Toolbox Programme Handouts

Youth Involvement, Youth Empowerment

tool box / *boite à outils*

Contents

Introduction

Youth involvement was considered the number one strategic priority by the majority of delegations at the 36th World Scout Conference in Thessaloniki, Greece (2002).

One may wonder why the Scout Movement feels the need to give such high priority to youth involvement, as it is actually one the basic elements of its method. After all, our Founder's motto was "Ask the boy". With its long experience of working with young people, the Scout Movement should be a leading expert in youth involvement.

However, the World Scout Conference certainly took such a decision because we are experiencing some problems in implementing youth involvement.

The purpose of this document is to help adult leaders at various levels of the Movement – local, national and international – to identify current problems or barriers and to find the best ways to overcome them.

The issue of youth involvement is in fact rather controversial in our Movement at the moment as there are several differing points of view, rooted in various cultural backgrounds.

We hope this document can contribute to building new consensus and finding more effective ways for involving young people in decision-making at all levels of the Movement as well as in the communities we are serving.

We believe that, in Scouting, youth involvement should not be the result of a struggle of power between adults and young people. On the contrary, it should be based on an alliance between the generations. In Scouting, adults should be the allies of young people and should provide them with the necessary motivation, skills and opportunities to take a constructive place in society and contribute to building a better world.

Developing youth involvement within and through Scouting is a challenge we have to face together in order to improve the quality of our programme and make it attractive and useful to more young people.

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What is youth involvement?

1. Who are young people?

International organizations, such as the United Nations agencies, define 'young people' as people aged between 10 and 24 inclusively[1]. The *Guidelines for Organizing Scout Youth Forums*, published by the World Scout Bureau in 1997, states that, as decided by the World Scout Conference, *participants in World and Regional Scout Youth Forums must be between their 18th and 26th birthdays.*

For the purpose of our reflection, we propose to choose the broader definition, i.e. from 10 to 26. In reality, youth involvement cannot start from scratch at 18. It should be practised and fostered at younger ages (even in the Cub Scout pack) in order to assume all its dimensions with older adolescents and young

adults. We have to be aware that, within Scouting, this age range covers two categories of young people:

- those who are benefiting from the youth programme: Scouts, Senior Scouts and Rovers; and

- those who are in charge of delivering and sometimes even developing the programme: young adult leaders aged between 18 and 26.

It is obvious that, as far as youth involvement is concerned, we cannot consider these two groups in the same way. The first group should primarily be involved in decision-making at the level of the unit, while the second group should participate fully in decision-making at the level of the whole organization.

2. Definition of youth involvement

Young people are often judged in terms of their role in the future instead of being acknowledged for their contribution to the present. However, in the past few years there has been a gradual shift in the way adults view young people and their contribution to society. Adults in youth-serving organizations, governments and the general public are beginning to see youth as valuable members of their communities:

... Many people believe that young people should be treated as citizens now (as opposed to the citizens of the future) and should be involved in all decisions that are made about the community and society in which they live [2].

Youth participation is becoming more common as people discover that decisions made without the involvement of youth have little to do with young peoples' needs or interests.

The generally agreed definition of youth involvement is as follows:

Youth involvement is a process that ensures youth have a voice in the decisions that affect their lives. It creates volunteer opportunities for youth to be a part of the changes and decisions being made in their communities.

3. Areas of youth involvement

There are two main ways in which voluntary organizations can engage in youth participation:

- *internally*, ensuring that young people are listened to and involved in decision-making and planning within their own organizations;

- *externally*, supporting the young people they work with to get involved in public decision-making and address issues that are of concern to them.

In Scouting, we have a long tradition of practising both these approaches, a tradition that dates back to the origins of the Movement. During the siege of Mafeking by the Boers, Baden-Powell got young people involved in several community service roles; and on Brownsea Island, he organized the first camp using the patrol system as a tool for involving young people in decision-making.

Scouting provides young people with two complementary kinds of experience:

- "Brownsea", the symbol of the Scout camp: experiencing community life within the Movement and acquiring citizenship skills (how to lead, how to cooperate, how to evaluate group life and decide on common rules based on shared values – the Scout Law). That experience is lived
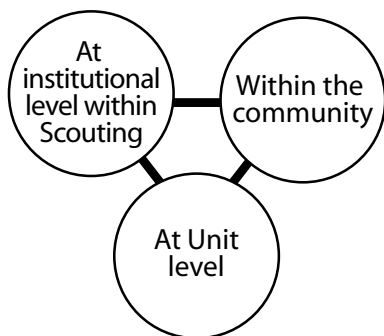
Fig. 1 - Areas of youth involvement

primarily at the level at the unit but should also be extended to other levels of the Movement.

- "Mafeking", the symbol of community involvement: Scouting opening up opportunities for real responsibility in the community to young people.

From Cub Scouts to Rovers (from childhood to adulthood), young people in Scouting should be given more and more responsibility and access to decision-making (Brownsea) and should have more and more opportunities for serving the community (Mafeking).

In fact, it is more accurate to divide "Brownsea" into two parts: on the one hand, the experience of participation lived at the level of the unit (in direct connection with the implementation of the Scout method) and, on the other hand, the experience of participation at other levels of the Movement (local, national and international).

Therefore, we can define three complementary areas of youth involvement (fig. 1):

- at the level of the unit;
- within the Movement at other levels;
- within the community, outside the Movement.

Every national Scout association should take the three areas of youth involvement into consideration. However, a number of associations, according to their culture, tend to limit youth involvement to one of these areas.

We can identify three main tendencies:

1. Youth involvement limited to unit level – Some associations focus their attention on educational aspects of youth involvement: involving young people in decision-making at unit level, selecting and evaluating activities, setting up rules. They consider the other levels of youth involvement as less important.

2. Youth involvement limited to institutional level – Other associations are very keen to involve young people in decision-making at institutional levels of the Movement: local groups, districts, counties, national and even world levels. They want to have young people taking part in all decision-making bodies of WOSM, but they neglect the others aspects of youth involvement.

3. Youth involvement limited to community development – A third category is more concerned with involving young people in community development. They believe that Scouting has the urgent task of involving young people in the development of society through activities of community service and community development. More often than not, they forget the other aspects.

In reality, the three areas are essential and complementary, and should be considered equally if we want to succeed in educating young people. It is useless to favour one area of youth involvement over the others. Involving young people in decision-making at the level of the unit prepares them to take on roles and responsibilities at the other levels of the Movement and in the broader community. In Scouting, an educational movement, the concrete implementation of the Scout method is the first and fundamental element on which any youth involvement policy should be based.

Likewise, how is it possible to try to involve young people in decision-making at higher levels of the Movement but accept that all decisions at the level of the unit are taken by adult leaders?

And does it make sense to mobilize young people for community development without training them in citizenship through correct implementation of the Scout method?

Therefore, we should overcome superficial arguments and develop a deeper understanding and better implementation of youth involvement for the benefit of young people themselves and the good of society.

Notes

1. The Convention on the Rights of the Child concerns children from 0 to 18 years old. UNFPA, WHO, UNICEF place "adolescence" from 10-19; "young people" from 10 to 24 and youth" from 15 to 24.

2. *National Council for Voluntary Youth Services*. UK: www.ncvys.org. uk/docs/youth/youth.html

Why involve young people in decision-making?

There are a number of sound reasons for involving young people in formal decision-making, and it is important to be clear about these reasons before embarking on a process of youth participation. Some reasons are general; others are specific to Scouting.

1. General reasons

a. Young people's rights

Young people have the right to be involved and to have their voice heard in decisions that will affect them. Participation is a fundamental right of all people, regardless of age. As far as young people are concerned, this right is enshrined in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, article 12[1].

b. Democracy and relevant representation

Participation of all citizens is essential for a healthy democratic society. This obviously includes the participation of young people. This is a particularly relevant reason in view of the declining involvement of young people in traditional political processes.

In youth-focused organizations such as Scouting, involving young people in decision-making ensures better representation and makes it possible to obtain a young person's

perspective, which is different from that of an adult. By involving young people in planning and management, activities can remain relevant and effective as they are based on young people's reality.

c. Youth perspective

Young people are often valued because of their ability to contribute new and fresh perspectives to traditional ways of operating. Because young people are typically excluded from positions of power or influence, their point of view is usually that of an outsider. Therefore, young people's input can be extremely beneficial in terms of contributing new and more creative approaches.

Brainstore Ltd, a company based in Switzerland, offers firms and associations a methodology for developing *new ideas with a competitive edge*.

When organising a seminar for an organisation, they include teenagers in the group of experts because they are able to contribute innovative points of view and fresher ideas. Brainstore claims that *Brainstore exercises work significantly better with input from teenagers.*

d. Skills development

Youth workers feel a sense of responsibility for providing young people with the opportunity to develop skills and experience in governance and related procedures. Young people can gain a huge amount of confidence from seeing their opinions and experiences valued and contributing directly to positive change in their community. Many skills are also developed which can lead directly to improved educational performance and better employment prospects.

2. Scouting reasons

Involving young people in decision-making is a key element for implementing the mission of Scouting.

a. Building a better world

Youth involvement is possible when adults realize that young people should not only follow in their tracks but also go further and improve society. Therefore, adults should be convinced that their mission is to involve young people in decision-making and to give them real responsibilities. In Scouting, adults and young people should work together to build a better world. And how can young people be trained in citizenship without giving them the opportunity to share responsibilities and make decisions?

b. Specific method

The Scout programme is an effective tool for youth involvement:

We know that young people experience their participation as meaningful when they report feeling a sense of belonging and ownership in the programme. When they are participating in meaningful ways, they feel that their contributions are valued, and, by participating, they 'make a difference'.[2]

This is true in any youth organization, but in Scouting there is something more: the Scout method itself is based on youth involvement. A Scout unit should work not like a military unit but like a small democratic state with its provinces, i.e. the teams; its constitution, i.e. the Scout Law; its government, i.e. the unit council or team leaders' council; its parliament, i.e. the unit assembly, where all Scouts can participate in selecting activities, evaluating group life and deciding on common rules. This is the real definition of the "patrol system".

The Patrol system has a great character-training value if it is used aright. It leads each boy to see that he has some individual responsibility for the good of his Patrol. It leads each Patrol to see that it has definite responsibility

*for the good of the Troop…
Through it the Scouts themselves
gradually learn that they have
a considerable say in what their
Troop does. It is the Patrol
system that makes the Troop,
and all Scouting for that matter,
a real co-operative effort.*[3]

c. Assisting young people to establish a value system

By being involved in a process of
decision-making, young people
can discover the values of working
together to achieve common
objectives, listening to others and
paying attention to other peoples'
opinions in order to achieve
consensus, sharing skills and efforts
in teamwork to share achievements
together instead of seeking self-
promotion. These values are
essential for building a tolerant and
caring society:

*Youth participation can
lead to improved academic
achievement by increasing the
substantive knowledge and
practical skills that come from
"real life" problem-solving,
while also strengthening social
responsibility and long-term civic
values. In contrast to youth who
accept their situation as given,
participants are more likely to
think critically and to actively
challenge their circumstances.
In contrast to youth who do not
view themselves as a group,
participants play roles that
contribute to collective action
and prepare them to make a*

*difference. These roles can have
particular importance for at-risk
or economically disadvantaged
youth.*[4]

However, in Scouting we want to
achieve more because we have
a set of values to be discovered
and adopted by young people: the
Scout Law. The Scout Law should
not be preached, said Robert Baden
Powell, it should be discovered
through experience. It is by being
involved in the process of identifying
needs, exploring solutions, making
decisions and planning action,
sharing responsibilities, evaluating
group life and deciding common
rules that young people will
gradually discover the values of
the Scout Law and develop a deep
adherence to those values.

Youth involvement in decision-
making is essential for the
development of moral autonomy.

d. Improve associations' democracy and dynamism

In most Scout associations, a large
proportion of leaders are under 30
and most of them deliver the Scout
programme at grassroots level.

If they are not involved in a
democratic process that allows
them to express their views about
the needs of young people and the
relevance of the Scout programme,
if they cannot express their
expectations and the support they
need, if they do not have a say in
the strategy and the management
of the association, then Scouting is
facing a double danger:

- Without feedback from those working at grassroots level, the national leaders risk losing contact with reality and will be unable to design and develop accurate strategies.
- Deprived of the opportunity to express their views and to be listened to, the young leaders lose their motivation and soon quit. Turnover increases and the quality of the programme deteriorates.

Interaction between the grassroots level and the summit, participation and democracy are the necessary conditions for dynamic and efficient national Scout associations.

At the regional and world levels of WOSM, the same argument can be applied: Regional and World Conferences, Regional and World Committees, must be exposed to "new and fresh perspectives" contributed by younger members. That is an indispensable condition for avoiding ossification.

3. Advantages of youth participation

a. Benefits for young people

In meaningful youth participation, young people:

- are empowered to be self-directed,
- make responsible choices about how to use their time,
- participate as group members in making decisions that influence the larger programme,

- are given the opportunity to learn group leadership skills and to assume leadership roles in planning activities and projects,
- have the opportunity to "give back" by contributing to the programme, to other young people, or to the larger community,
- experience a sense of belonging.

b. Benefits for adults

In meaningful youth participation, adults:

- serve as mentors and facilitators for developing the skills of the young people,
- share power in real ways with young people, which means by providing them with opportunities for problem solving, decision-making, planning, goal-setting, helping others.

A study of classrooms teachers revealed that when teachers rely on traditional whole-class instruction methods, they talk for more than two-thirds of the time, of which more than 70% is spent disciplining, lecturing, giving instructions, and asking questions. When the classroom shifts to a more participatory student-centred structure, "teacher talk" time is reduced to 25%, and 75% of the teacher's time is spent praising, encouraging initiatives, giving feedback, facilitating student communication, and helping students. In this way, the learning process is encouraged and supported far more.

c. Immediate benefits

Increasing meaningful participation in a programme takes careful planning and can present challenges for programme leaders. However, there are many benefits for the programme as well as for individual young people.

- *When young people participate in planning and implementing their after-school programme, the programme becomes more aligned with their interests.*

- *Attendance and interest increase, especially among older youth.*

- *New ideas brought by young people can result in new and exciting activities.*

- *As young people become more involved in articulating what is important to them, programme goals and objectives can become more youth-centred. As a result, the process of programme assessment and evaluation becomes more meaningful for everyone involved.*

- As young people take more responsibility for their activities, staff members can reduce the time spent on discipline. Programme staff feel rewarded as their role changes from that of supervisor to that of facilitator.

- Young people can begin to take on leadership and teaching roles and work in partnership with adults to maximize the opportunities for learning and growth for all participants.

- When we give young people the tools to be self-directed and invite them to take part in shaping their programmes and helping others, we communicate the message to young people that "what you think and what you do matters."

d. Long-term benefits

*Y*oung people's meaningful participation serves as a core protective factor for young people. In other words, regardless of their individual circumstances, meaningful participation helps young people overcome risks and obstacles in their lives, increasing their resiliency[5]. Offering young people opportunities for meaningful involvement and responsibility is part of creating an environment that conveys high expectations, including the importance of viewing young people as resources and not only as consumers or people to be assisted. We can do this by giving them useful roles, involving them in leadership, programme planning and other meaningful activities related to programme management.

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Notes

1. *UN Convention on the Rights of the Child*. Article 12: 1. "States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the rights to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child..."

2. *Fostering Meaningful Youth Participation*. CNYD Youth Development Guide. Community Network for Youth Development. 2001, www.gse.uci.edu/afterschool/ca/Documents/ cnyd/YD_Guide/ch5.pdf

3. Robert S. S. Baden-Powell, Aids to Scoutmastership.

4. *Adults as Allies* by Barry Checkoway, School of Social Work. University of Michigan, www.wkkf.org/pubs/YouthED/Pub564.pdf

5. *Resiliency* can be defined as "the ability to live and grow positively, in a way socially acceptable, despite of stress and adversity, which normally risk to drive to negative consequences." (Boris Cyrulnik)

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Barriers to young people's participation

1. Most common barriers

The most common barriers which are known to affect young people's ability to participate in adult-owned decision-making include cultural norms, poverty, disabilities and gender.

a. Cultural norms

Adults' and parents' mind-sets are sometimes influenced by negative social attitudes to, and stereotyping of, young people. Lack of parental support is a key barrier to young people's participation. Some parents fear losing "control" over their children as they develop greater confidence and become more assertive as a result of gaining competencies and feeling a sense of achievement.

Other adults' attitudes can also be a barrier arising from the traditional mind-set that young people, by virtue of their youth, are to be protected and/or dictated to. There is a lack of trust by adults in the abilities of young people.

In some communities, decision-making is normally the prerogative of adults. Cultural norms and traditions can fuel community resistance to young people's efforts towards assuming greater responsibility and spearheading positive change. Sometimes, young people who have received training and gained skills within a programme setting are rejected by the community because of widespread perceptions that young people's opinions and abilities are inferior to adults'.

In many societies, young people have been raised to be relatively passive, to not question authority or to stand up for their rights.

b. Poverty and disabilities

The situation of young people themselves can pose a barrier to their active participation, particularly for those who are in crisis – struggling with drug addiction, family violence, psychological problems as a result of environmental stresses, civil strife, etc. These young people need help before they can participate actively.

Youth with physical or learning disabilities frequently lack opportunities to participate actively in a programme's activities or to assume other roles because of popular misconceptions about their skills and abilities. Such young people are often prohibited from taking part under the guise of protecting them from harm or undue stress.

Within many cultural contexts, class distinctions inhibit the ability of young people from lower-income families to interact and assume responsibilities with those from wealthier families. Poverty is a major barrier to promoting increased youth participation due to the added responsibilities placed on children to contribute to their families' income; hence their inability to attend or stay in school.

Factors of inequality include:

- language (e.g. when the working language is not the person's first language),
- cultural or spiritual background,
- low socio-economic status,
- being remote from decision-making.

c. Gender

In many societies throughout the world, women are accorded less respect and given fewer opportunities than their male counterparts. This is equally true in various cultural settings, according to the results of recent research on gender education conducted by the World Scout Bureau, the European Scout Region and the University of Oslo in Denmark, Portugal, Russia and Slovakia[1].

2. Institutional limitations

a. Bad management

Often, the organizational mind-set creates barriers to truly embracing the notion of active youth participation. Many organizations give lip service to involving youth and there is disparity between words and action within many programmes. When it comes down to it, adults generally manage programmes and therefore have the final say in how much authority or responsibility is delegated to young people.

Institutional limitations can exist even if there is a real will to develop youth involvement:

- lack of clarity about expectations and desired outcomes;

- excessively complicated formal decision-making structures and processes (e.g. meeting procedures): lengthy meetings, complicated or long agendas, overly formal meeting procedures, vast amounts of documentation and papers requiring substantial reading and comment, etc.;

- lack of information and knowledge of the organization, its issues and its associated jargon. This is particularly true in a large international organization where the distance between world structures and the grassroots level is enormous and the circulation of information not so easy.

b. Lack of skills and training

Substantial barriers to young people working efficiently with their peers are lack of skills and adequate training in such areas as leadership, communication, social awareness and psychological/social development; insufficient training in committee-related roles and responsibilities; and insufficient training in budgetary issues.

Programmes often do not have the time or resources – or do not designate the time or resources – to training young people to contribute effectively.

c. Time and money

Lack of time due to school and work obligations prevent young people from devoting as much energy as they would like to involving themselves in programmes.

Lack of financial resources has been cited as a primary barrier to initiating youth-led activities. Many young people would like to become more involved in conducting primary research, collecting data, advocacy work, and other activities, but are prevented from doing so by lack of funds.

d. Staff turnover and weak adult training

Fast turnover of staff and volunteers and staff burnout are often key barriers arising from a lack of continuity and follow-up for young people seeking to become more involved in programme activities.

In some organizations, adult leaders do not receive sufficient training in youth involvement. The cultural barriers and traditional mind-set are not challenged. Adult leaders are not aware of the importance of youth involvement and not able to implement it correctly.

3. Missed opportunities

These barriers are sometimes very powerful and block any development of youth involvement.

At the first Asian regional meeting of YouthNet International held on the outskirts of Bangkok, Thailand, from 1 to 4 August 1996, Roger Hart, professor at the Center for Human Environments at the City University

of New York, said, in addressing the conference participants:

There is a tremendous missed opportunity to see community development and youth participation as a way to pave the way for the growth of civil society. It is particularly important that all young people have the opportunity to learn to participate in programmes that affect their lives.

Roger Hart pointed out that young people's rights to meaningful participation are underscored in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC).

The UNCRC assures the right of young people to express their views; protects their right to privacy, culture and language; upholds their right to association and peaceful assembly; and guarantees their freedom of thought, conscience and religion. Yet the interpretation of these rights varies from culture to culture. *The participation articles are controversial, not because they are any less important,* said Hart, *but because child-rearing and the degree to which children are seen as independent, thinking subjects, capable and deserving of a greater degree of participation, varies enormously by culture, social class, and the gender of children.*

In Scouting, all adult leaders should be aware of these difficulties and commit themselves to challenging and overcoming these barriers because they are obstacles which prevent young people from developing their full potential and contributing to the development of society.

A number of organizations argue that in order to ensure that youth participation is not based on the whim or personal commitment of individuals, organizations need to incorporate a youth participation strategy into their mission and vision statements and appropriate policies and procedures, and into all stages of a project, from planning to evaluation.

That is exactly what Scout organizations are committed to do through the Strategy for World Scouting. Identifying the principles of good practice for youth participation is the first step in this process.

Notes

1. One of the Boys: Doing Gender in Scouting". Harriet Bjerrum-Nielsen. 2002. www.scout.org

Principles of good practice for youth participation

1. Respect young people's views

Around the world, media often portray young people as inadequate. As Scout leaders and youth workers, we can provide numerous examples of how young people have successfully contributed to the development of society.

Adults should not regard adolescents and young people as problems. They should welcome them as partners for finding solutions. As young people themselves declared in the introduction to the Braga Youth Action Plan adopted at the 1998 World Youth Forum of the UN:

Young people can and should be a part of the solution to the problems in the world. Everywhere, young people and youth organizations show that they are not obstacles, but invaluable resources for development.

Young people can realize their full potential and acquire healthy and responsible attitudes by actively participating in decision-making in their families and communities, and above all, in decisions that directly impact on their lives. For this to happen, adults must take the views of young people seriously and respect them.

Youth participation often requires changes in the way adults perceive and deal with adolescents, since the rights of young people and their capacities to make decisions for themselves are often unrecognized and undervalued.

Promoting youth participation and leadership is a gradual process that needs to take into consideration factors such as age and maturity level as well as relevant socio-cultural and economic factors. Involving young people of both sexes and diverse groups is critical for sound programming. This may require special strategies, for example, to get young women to speak out where they have been taught to restrain their opinions in mixed settings.[1]

When young members are being sought for boards, management committees or youth advisory groups, good practice will ask the following questions[2]:

• What is the role of the young people involved in this board/committee, and how does this role relate to the rest of the organization?

- How can the committee's role and function be structured to avoid tokenism and promote meaningful participation?

- How can the committee be promoted to encourage the involvement of a wide range of young people?

- How can the committee's support processes be structured to ensure that the young people involved will have or develop the skills needed to maximize their participation?

- What does the organization expect from young people's involvement, and what can young people expect to gain from their involvement?

- What review processes can be established to identify the outcomes for both young participants and the organization?

2. Respect young people's needs

Youth participation should be attractive and enjoyable for young people. Therefore, it should[3]:

- be based on choice,

- be challenging and fun,

- be related to issues perceived as relevant by young people,

- raise young people's awareness of social, political, economic, cultural and personal issues affecting them,

- provide opportunities for training and skills development,

- ensure that young people are given ongoing support in their role in decision-making (e.g. through a 'mentor' system),

- provide young people with a sense of ownership and of belonging to the decision-making process,

- provide young people with a sense of security that their participation is valued,

- involve adequate resources, including time, space, funding and information,

- acknowledge the contribution of young people (e.g. reimbursement of expenses incurred, open acknowledgement of their expertise),

- acknowledge (through the timing of meetings, and financial support) that young people often have limited access, particularly because of financial constraints and lack of private transport,

- involve a review process to ensure that both individual young people and the organization concerned have obtained the outcomes they sought from the involvement,

- be based on clearly defined roles for young people within the overall structure of the organization,

- identify any barriers to youth participation – for example, processes which are not

user-friendly to young people – and modify or remove these barriers, and

• provide training and skills development, as well as support through mentoring and other processes to ensure that young participants are encouraged and enabled to maximise their involvement.

3. Target the right level of participation

a. The ladder of participation

Successful youth participation includes shared decision-making and collaboration with adults who can serve as resources and mentors for youth. The Ladder of Participation, developed by Roger Hart (fig. 1), describes various levels of youth participation with a steady progression to meaningful shared decision-making between adults and youth.

Projects corresponding to the three lowest bars of the ladder are not participative.

The five last bars of the ladder represent levels where there are real participation and learning opportunities. Each of these stages can be reached by young people at various moments, according to the progressive development of their participative skills.

The degree of educational value increases from level 1 to level 8.

1. *Manipulation*. This occurs when adults use young people to promote a cause they feel strongly about, but do not help young people to understand the cause.

2. *Decoration*. Young people are often asked to dress in a certain way and perform to support an adult agenda, usually with the aim of prompting an emotional response on the part of adult viewers.

3. *Tokenism*. This describes situations in which young people are asked to speak before conferences of groups of elected representatives, but without learning anything substantive about the issue, determining their own position or consulting with other young people, who, it is claimed, they represent on the part of adult viewers.

4. *Assigned but informed*. Although the young people's participation is decided for them, they understand the aims of the project, who decided that they should be involved and why.

5. *Consulted and informed*. The project is designed by adults, but young people's opinions are taken seriously in any decision-making process.

6. *Adult-initiated, shared decisions with youth.* Young people have an integral role in making decisions, rather than a consultative status.

7. *Youth-initiated and directed.* Such projects are infrequently

seen, because few adults are willing to relinquish complete control to young people. Because of lack of adult involvement, such projects often fail to become a true community concern and remain marginalized.

8. *Youth-initiated, shared decisions with adults*. Adults are involved as facilitators for the goals of the young people, directing them to needed resources, providing support in developing necessary skills, and helping them to evaluate. This type of relationship enhances learning for the young people, builds a sense of community ownership of the project, and provides adults with the opportunity to learn from the enthusiasm and creativity of young people. Generally, the assumption is that it is better to aim for the highest level of participation. However, different levels of participation may be appropriate to given situations.
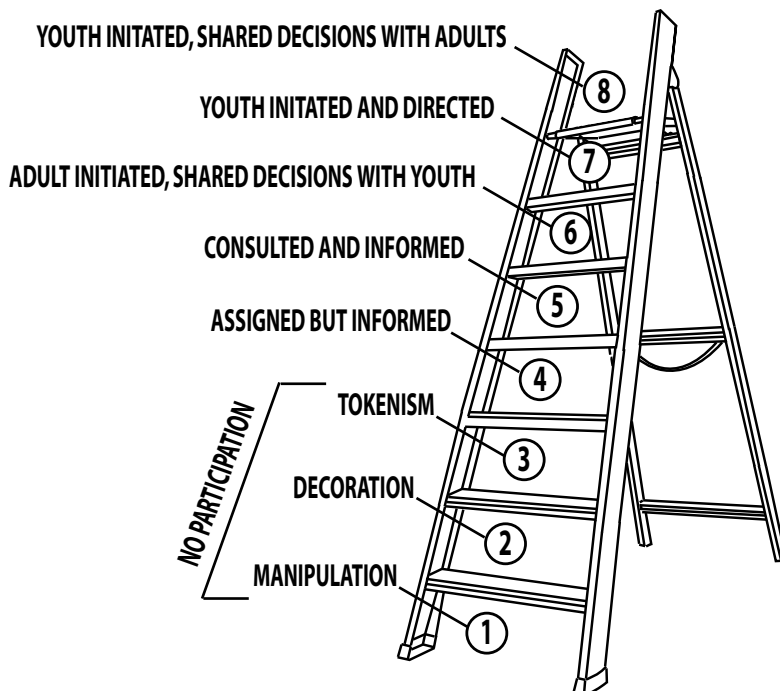

fig. 1 - Ladder of participation (R. Hart)

b. The empowerment model

Closely linked to participation is the concept of empowerment. Hodgson suggests five conditions for empowerment of young people:

- access to those in power,
- access to the relevant information,
- choices between different options,
- support from a trusted independent person and, where needed, a representative,
- a means of appeal or complaint if things go wrong.

While the Ladder of Participation model implies a one-dimensional approach to participation, the empowerment model highlights the concrete conditions of youth involvement.

An alternative model has been developed by Clare Lardner[4]. A version adapted to Scouting is shown in figure 2.

This model can be used to compare and assess the different methods of participation and includes some of Hodgson's dimensions of empowerment. It proposes six dimensions of participation and illustrates them on a continuum according to who holds the power. The elements are:

1. Initiation of the method: Whose idea was it?

2. The agenda: Who decides what is discussed?

3. Decision-making: Who makes decisions about how to proceed?

4. Information: Who holds the information necessary for decision-making?

5. Implementation: Who takes action on decisions?

6. Structure of participation: How formal or informal is it; does it replicate the adult structure?

As with the ladder model, there is no single correct way of involving young people, because it depends on the purpose of the proposed exercise, the type of questions being asked, whether it is a one-off activity or an ongoing mechanism, and the degree to which young people and adults want to commit to participation.

Other issues relevant to participation are inclusiveness and sustainability:

- *Inclusiveness***:** disengagement of young people is more pronounced among the socially excluded, for example ethnic minorities (including asylum seekers and travellers) and young people with disabilities. Several researchers note that efforts to involve young people, unless they are carefully thought through, targeted and creative, may succeed in attracting only the most motivated and academic young people.

- *Sustainability*: in choosing a method which is going to continue over time, there is a need to consider the issue of sustaining young people's involvement as those who have embarked on the project move towards adulthood. This is a key issue for models based on the youth forum/congress/parliament type approach.

- *Resources*: this is an important consideration and includes not only the money required but the investment of young people and staff time and the skills required.

Clare Lardner proposes a checklist for youth involvement that we have adapted for Scouting as an evaluation form (fig. 3). This form helps evaluate how adults and young people share power in a given activity or project.
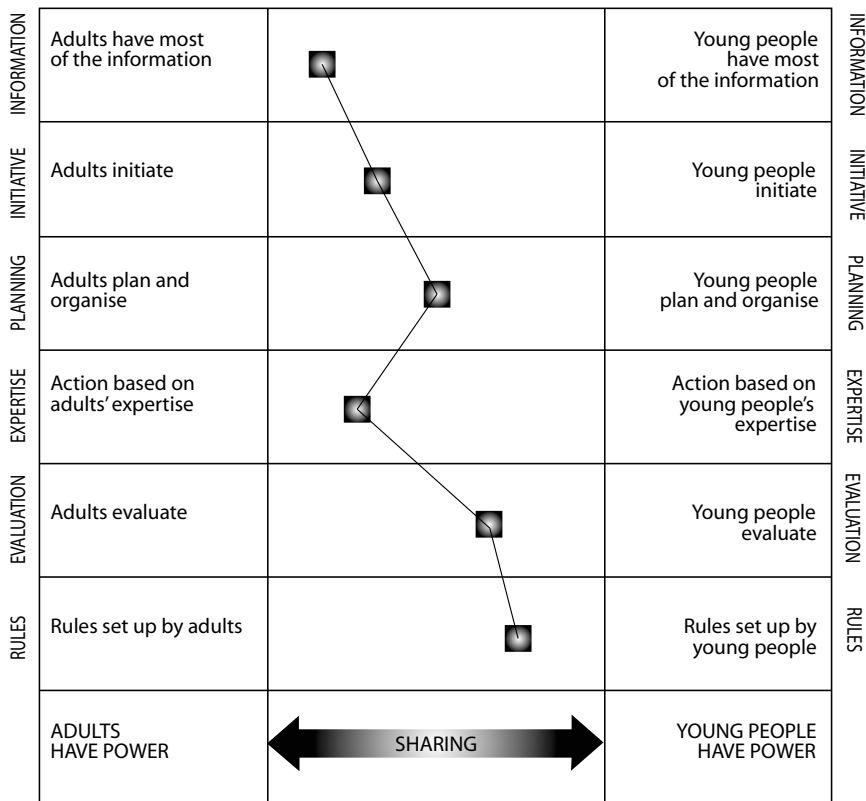
INFORMATION	Adults have most of the information		Young people have most of the information	INFORMATION
INITIATIVE	Adults initiate		Young people initiate	INITIATIVE
PLANNING	Adults plan and organise		Young people plan and organise	PLANNING
EXPERTISE	Action based on adults' expertise		Action based on young people's expertise	EXPERTISE
EVALUATION	Adults evaluate		Young people evaluate	EVALUATION
RULES	Rules set up by adults		Rules set up by young people	RULES
	ADULTS HAVE POWER	SHARING	YOUNG PEOPLE HAVE POWER	

Fig. 2 - The empowerment model

Youth Involvement Evaluation Form

1. Description of the activity (experience)

2. Outcomes

3. Required resources

Young people's skills	
Young people's time	
Support for young people	
Skilled facilitation	
Staff time	
Cost	

4. Inclusion

5. Sustainability

6. Participation

ADULTS			YOUNG PEOPLE
Have most of information		Have most of information	
Initiate		Initiate	
Plan and organise		Plan and organise	
Have expertise		Have expertise	
Evaluate		Evaluate	
Set rules		Set rules	
HAVE POWER	◄— *Shared / In between* —►	*HAVE POWER*	

7. Key learning points

Fig. 3 - Evaluation form

Notes

1. *United Nations Population Fund* (UNFPA), http://www.unfpa.org/ adolescents/page04.htm

2. *Fostering Meaningful Youth Participation.* CNYD Youth Development Guide. Community Network for Youth Development. 2001, www.gse.uci. edu/afterschool/ca/Documents/ cnyd/YD_Guide/ch5.pdf

3. *National Council for Voluntary Youth Services.* UK: www.ncvys.org. uk/docs/youth/youth.html

4. *Exploring good practices in youth participation, a critical review.* Final report for Edinburgh Youth Social Inclusion Partnership. Prepared by Clare Lardner. Clarity, 20 Galachlawside Edinburgh EH107JG, www. clarity-scotland.co.uk

How can adults foster youth involvement?

Youth involvement is a key element of the Scout method:

Both Cadet and Scout movements are out for the good of the boy. The outstanding difference between their respective methods of training is that of principle - one works through impression, the other through expression. The Cadet training imposes collective instruction upon boys from without; while the Scout Movement encourages self-development on the part of the individual from within. Military drill fashions him on to an approved standard as a part of a machine; whereas the aim of Scouting is to develop his personal character and initiative as a first step[1].

However, it is sometimes difficult for leaders to adopt a leadership style adapted to youth involvement. Does youth involvement imply a *non-directive* attitude from leaders? If so, how can you guarantee that the aims of Scouting will be achieved?

1. Directive or non-directive?

Many leaders think that youth involvement implies young people making all decisions by themselves. To develop youth involvement, adult leaders should be *non-directive*.

- A *directive* leader would make all the decisions.
- A *non-directive* leader would let the young people decide.

However, how is it possible to guide and educate young people if you are *non-directive*?

a. The concept of play

The concept of *play*[2] can help us to overcome this contradiction.

Baden-Powell wrote that play is the *first great educator*. He also described Scouting as a *game full of gusto.* Play is often defined as a futile activity of no real importance. It is seen as the opposite of work, which is a serious activity.

However, this question should be examined in more depth.

Play constitutes almost all of the child's spontaneous activities. It is synonymous with freedom and pleasure. This is not, however, a reason to deny its usefulness.

Indeed, all childhood specialists now agree on the importance of play in child development.

Action play

The first games children play (even before birth) are action games. Children seem to derive pleasure from practising their physical capabilities – moving their limbs, catching and throwing an object, crawling, walking, jumping, climbing, etc.

This type of play involves two elements: *physical action* in a given *space*. It allows children to develop their sensorimotor skills and explore the space around them. However, it also contributes to intellectual development by helping children to discover and understand the logical sequences which make an action successful.

Symbolic play

Between 18 months and two years of age, children learn to speak and then to use symbols. They learn how to visualize absent objects and events.

Symbolic play appears, characterized by the phenomenon of *representation* or *identification*. The child can use an object as a symbol of something else, e.g. a box of matches for a car. Also, they can identify with someone else.

Symbolic play enables children to explore cultural space and affective relationships. For example, by playing with dolls or puppets, they explore the father-mother-child relationships by being the "daddy" or "mummy" of the dolls or puppets.

Moreover, by identifying with a model whose qualities they want to acquire, they are encouraged to surpass themselves and grow. Symbolic play is a key part of affective development and character development (acquisition of autonomy).

Social play

At around seven or eight years of age, children learn how to truly cooperate within a group, and social play appears. This is characterized by three key elements: the acceptance of *rules* which establish the duties and rights of the group members, the formation of *teams*, and the allocation of *roles* which allow each member to contribute to the success of the whole.

Social play is a key element of citizenship education.

b. The elements of play

In all types of play, it can be observed that the dynamism of the individual is confronted with a framework (fig. 1): physical environment (action play), cultural and relational environment (symbolic play), and social environment (social play). Play is a factor in learning and development because it enables children to discover their environment and to explore/develop their inner capabilities.

In English, as in several other languages, the word "play" has several meanings. It can mean

activity undertaken for pleasure as well as *freedom or space for movement*. "There is play" means not being stuck, but being able to move and take initiatives (fig. 1).

Ultimately, any situation in which a person has to face something unexpected, show initiative or meet a challenge is a situation in which "there is play". Such situations are factors in learning and development.

In contrast, activities in which the individual takes no initiative and has to repeat the same gestures mechanically comprise no element of play. They do not favour learning and development.

2. Play and educational relationships

The concept of play throws light on the notion of educational relationships and leadership styles. What attitudes and what kind of relationships should an adult have with young people in order to encourage their development?

a. Offering *play*

The answer is simple: the adult leader should offer as much "play" as possible, taking into account the capabilities of the young people.

Offering as much *play* as possible means establishing a *framework* allowing room for initiative while ensuring guidance and security.

b. Two ways of restricting *play*

There are two ways of restricting play and, in doing so, limiting opportunities for development:
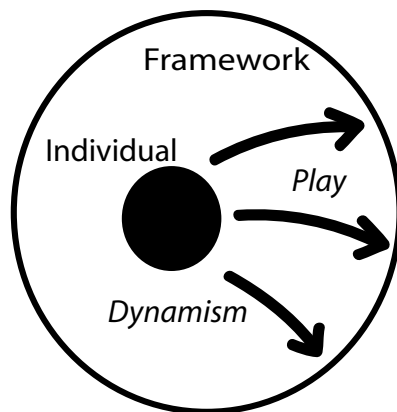

Fig. 1 - The elements of play

- *By blocking any opportunity for initiative and exploration*. The framework is so tight that there is no longer any play; everything is determined in advance; there is no room for initiative. This is the attitude of authoritarianism and overprotection adopted by some adults.

- *By refusing to establish any framework or rules*. There is no longer any play because there is no longer any confrontation between the dynamism of the individual and reality. This is a "laissez-faire" approach.

Figures 2, 3 and 4 illustrate this explanation:

- If you want to play chess, you need to have both a well-defined framework (the board and the rules) as well as the possibility to move your pieces freely (fig. 2). The game is challenging and interesting; you can have a good experience and learn.
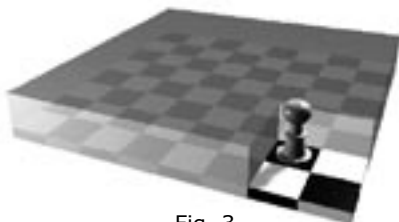
Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

- However, if the framework is so tight that you cannot take any initiative, you have no room to move; there is no play; you cannot learn (authoritarianism or overprotection, fig. 3).
- If there is no framework, i.e. a board without any markings and no rules, then there is also no play and no learning ("laissez-faire", fig. 4).

3. Framework and content

If you consider the activities and the life of a group of people, you can distinguish two main elements: the framework and the content.

The *framework* comprises all the things which guide the creativity/ freedom of the group members, give support and limit risks:

- security
- rules
- structures
- roles and responsibilities
- ways of working
- time constraints
- etc.

In the example of the chess game, the framework comprises the board, the various pieces, how they move on the board and the rules.

The *content* is what the group members are living: their activities, their experiences. In the example of the chess game, this relates to the strategies decided by the players and the various moves they make.

It is possible to be directive or non-directive both on the framework and on the content.

a. Directive on the framework as well as on the content

If you are directive on the framework and on the content, you are *overprotective or authoritarian* (fig. 5).

You do not let young people take any initiative, make any decision.

You impose your views both on the way the patrols are established (framework) and on the selection of activities (content). In your unit, young people are not involved very much in decision-making and the unit council is purely formal. You use it just to explain to the patrol leaders what they have to do.

b. Non-directive on the framework as well as on the content

If you are non-directive on the framework and on the content, you have a "*laissez-faire*" attitude (fig. 6).

You are not providing any guidance to young people.

You are not insisting on having any structure in the unit (patrols, councils, etc.); you let young people decide their activities by themselves and the way they prepare and run them.

c. Non-directive on the framework and directive on the content

If you are non-directive on the framework but directive on the content, you have a tendency to *manipulate* young people (fig. 7).

You are not giving them any rules or any method, but, for example, you try to influence them in their choice of activities.

d. Directive on the framework and non-directive on the content

If you are directive on the framework but non-directive on the content, you have understood the concept of "play" (fig. 8).

Fig. 5 - Authoritarian

Fig. 6 - Laisser-faire

For example, you insist on young people having teams but you let them decide how to establish them.

You give young people precise guidelines on how to run the various councils but encourage them to express their opinions and involve them fully in the decision-making process. You have truly a cooperative style of leadership.

Fig. 7 - Manipulative

Fig. 8 - Co-operative

Notes

1. Robert S. S. Baden-Powell, The Times, 14th July 1918.

2. *The Green Island*, D. Bénard and J. Collier-Jespersen. Pages 44 and 45. WOSM 2005. ISBN 2-9523075-2-0

tool box / *boite à outils*

The Team System, a tool for youth participation
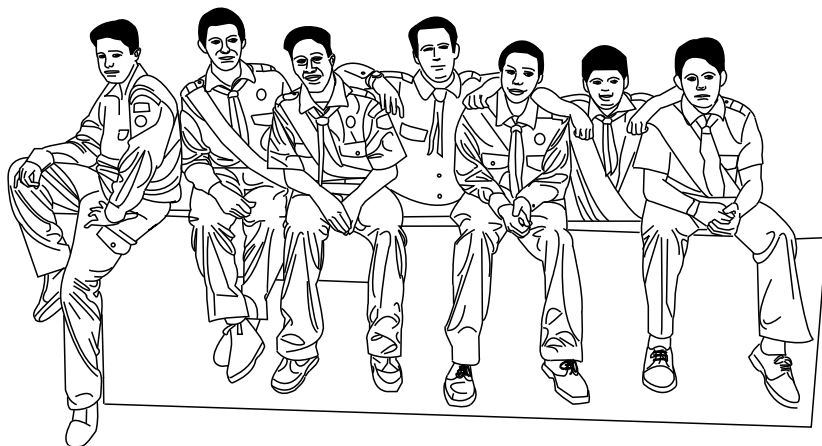
The Patrol system is the one essential feature in which Scout training differs from that of all other organisations.

The object of the Patrol system is mainly to give real responsibilities to as many of the boys as possible, with a view to develop their character.[1]

These two quotes of the Founder illustrate the importance he attached to the patrol or team system. This system is the basis on which Scouts units in all age ranges must be organised - from Cub Scouts (children) to Rovers (young adults). Unfortunately, it is sometimes misunderstood and misused. All too often, it is simply a system of *small group operation*, while it is primarily intended as a system in which young people participate in decision-making, and as a tool for citizenship education.

The aim of this factsheet is to help Scout leaders to gain a better understanding of the elements of the team system, its role in Scouting's educational system and how to make it work.
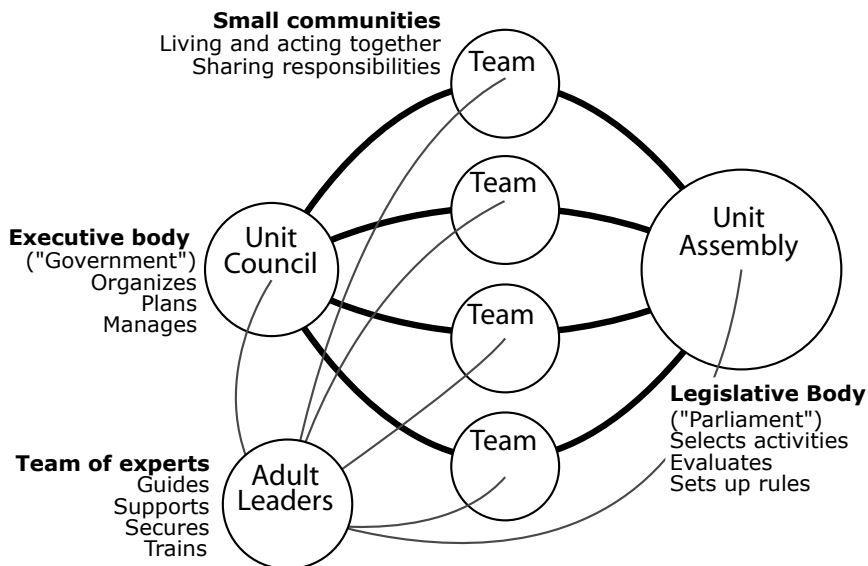
Small communities
Living and acting together
Sharing responsibilities

Team

Team

Executive body
("Government")
Organizes
Plans
Manages

Unit Council

Unit Assembly

Team

Team

Legislative Body
("Parliament")
Selects activities
Evaluates
Sets up rules

Team of experts
Guides
Supports
Secures
Trains

Adult Leaders

Team

Fig. 1 - Elements of the Team System

1. The elements of the team system

The team system does not just involve the teams. It involves all the institutions that organise relationships, communication, decision-making and evaluation processes within the group composed of young people and adult leaders.

As we can see in figure 1, there are three main institutions in the Scout unit:

- The Teams
- The Unit Council
- The Unit Assembly

a. The team: a primary group

The American sociologist Charles Horton Cooley defines family and childhood playgroups as primary groups.

A primary group is characterised by close interpersonal relationships. It involves a strong sense of loyalty between the members, a shared sense of belonging, based on mutual caring and identification. These groups are called primary groups because they shape an individual's moral ideals. They are the root reference of the moral - and thus social - life of an adult.

A primary group has the following characteristics:

- a limited number of members (5-8) which enable each person to have a clear perception of the other members;
- relationships based on affinity become established between the members (what they like, dislike, feel indifferent towards);
- a division of labour within the group;
- frequent meetings, which allow group members to share common goals and to develops a micro-culture with its own values, norms, language and traditions.

The team: a natural grouping

The Six, the Patrol, the Team are primary groups.

They are typically the kind of groups that children and especially adolescents seek spontaneously.

One of Scouting's major strengths is to have recognised this tendency and to use the ways in which children and adolescents spontaneously organise themselves. Our Founder firmly believed this:

Scouting puts the boys into fraternity gangs which is their natural organisation whether for games, mischief, or loafing[2]

This is why the key to success in a Scout unit is when young people form teams according to the criteria that naturally bring young people together: spontaneous affinities and friendships,

the fact of living in the same neighbourhood, going to the same school, etc.

The team must first of all be formed of young people who have chosen to be with each other.

The team: an efficient tool for communication and action

Just before and after the last World War, American sociologists brought to light the importance of the primary group[3].

- Observation studies of small groups of 5-6 female workers, conducted over several years, revealed that their output continued to increase despite increases or decreases in pay. It was discovered that the most important factor in increased output was the fact that the women had spontaneously developed friendships and thus took pleasure in their work.
- Researchers also discovered the importance of primary groups through studies conducted during the War: essentially, a soldier fights to defend his friends or to conform to the

expectations of a small group of friends - and much less out of hatred of the enemy or because of ideological convictions.

- While studying the US presidential election in 1940, other researchers were surprised to discover that the press and radio had little effect on votes. The most important factor in deciding votes was the interpersonal influence within primary groups - the daily exchanges between associates and friends.

- Numerous research studies conducted since have corroborated these observations. In business or in the public sector, research has shown that attempts at communication via hierarchical means are inefficient if they are not also relayed by primary groups.

The small group of 5-8 people is the most efficient form of organisation in terms of communication, action and the transmission of values.

The Team: a peer group

A peer group is a group in which all the members are equal and have the same status. In a Scout unit, all the young people are equal, but perform different roles according to the needs of group life. The Team Leader is elected by his/her peers - in agreement with the adult leaders. He or she has a certain amount of authority, but it is in the service of the group - he or she is not a dictator. The Team Leader

helps the Team members to express themselves, to evaluate group life, to make decisions and to organise themselves. He or she is the "voice" concerning the decisions taken: the Team Leader represents the Team at the Unit Council meeting.

Other roles are just as important: the Secretary in charge of keeping the Team's records and the conclusions of the team meetings; the Treasurer, in charge of the Team's financial resources and accounts; the Equipment Manager, the Cook; the First Aider; the Journalist, etc. Each role is equally important in the success of the Team.

In *Toolbox 018 - Interpersonal relationships within the group,* we can discover more about the importance of cooperation in a peer group: young people who are lucky enough to develop relationships within a peer group find it easier to develop efficient social relationships: they develop appropriate strategies so as to become integrated into the group; they acquire better social skills faster.

b. The Scout Unit: a secondary group

A secondary group brings together a fairly large number of people in order to perform differentiated tasks. It oversees the relationships between people and vis-à-vis the institution according to its structures and pre-established rules.

The Unit is a secondary group. It has to manage the interaction and

cooperation between the primary groups (the Teams). The role of the adult leaders is to orientate and facilitate the functioning of the unit.

When adults first start leading a group of young people, the majority hesitate between three fundamental attitudes (see TB016):

- An autocratic attitude
- An anarchic or laissez-faire attitude
- A democratic attitude.

In 1939, the psychologist Kurt Lewin conducted an experiment to demonstrate how democratic behaviour was superior autocratic or laissez-faire behaviour, both in terms of efficiency as well as the pleasure derived by the participants.

If the adult leaders are to maintain a democratic attitude, true institutions need to be in place. Once this is achieved, the leaders' attitude is no longer a subjective matter, it is determined by the need to respect the democratic framework of the institution. The two "institutions" that permit the democratic organisation of interaction and cooperation between the teams are the Unit Council and the Unit Assembly (fig. 1). The fundamental law that serves as a reference in evaluating and organising group life is the Scout Law.

The Unit Assembly: the legislative body

The Unit Assembly is the "Parliament" of this small republic of young people (the Scout Unit). It has legislative powers. It periodically convenes all of the young people to evaluate group life and the group's progress, to decide on objectives and the rules of group life and uses the Scout Law as a reference.

During Unit Assembly meetings, each Scout speaks for him/herself and not as a Team representative. A young person, elected at the beginning of the session, chairs the Unit Assembly.

The role of the Unit Assembly is to make the main decisions concerning group life:

- To determine the Unit's objectives for the year
- To decide on the activities to be carried out during the Programme cycle (see *TB023 - the Programme cycle*)
- To evaluate life in the Unit and group progression
- To adopt common rules in answer to identified problems.

The Unit Council: the executive body

The Unit Council is the executive body. It is the government of the Unit. Sometimes called the "Patrol Leaders' Council", this body involves the Team Leaders and the adult leaders. Many people wrongly think that the function of the adult leaders is to run the Unit. This power belongs to the Unit Council. In practice, this means that the Unit leaders must not make any important decisions outside of the Unit Council (excepted for security reasons).

The Unit Council meets at least once a month. It is responsible for taking all the decisions concerning the organisation of activities and group life. It establishes the dates of activities and coordinates the missions of each team within the framework of the common activities.

Through their representative in the Unit Council (the team leaders), all of the Teams are involved in the decision-making process. Each Team is given advance notice of the council's agenda and can discuss the various subjects in order to provide their representative with a clear mandate.

2. A system of youth participation

The Patrol system has a great character-training value if it is used aright. It leads each boy to see that he has some individual responsibility for the good of his Patrol. It leads each Patrol to see that it has definite responsibility for the good of the Troop... Through it the Scouts themselves gradually learn that they have considerable say in what their Troop does. It is the Patrol system that makes the Troop, and all Scouting for that matter, a real co-operative effort.[4]

This quote of the Founder illustrates the primary aim of the team system: it enables young people to really participate in decision-making. In a recent

Internet Forum on youth participation, the team system was identified as the primary tool for youth participation in Scouting. One of the participants neatly summarized the main conclusion of this forum as follows:

Scouting is a youth movement, supported by adults; it is not just a youth movement organised by adults. In effect, Scouting offers a "learning" community of young people and adults committed to a partnership of enthusiasm and experience.

How can this be put into practice in the different age groups?

As figure 1 shows, the principal role of the adult leaders is to advise, propose and reassure.

They need to offer a space for experience which enables each person to develop new attitudes, skills and knowledge so as to achieve the personal development objectives offered by the framework of Scouting's educational goals.

They also need to be attentive to the physical, emotional and moral security of the young people. The team system enables them to do so. This applies to each age group, although how it is achieved will evidently depend on the capacities of the age group.

As figure 2 shows, the extent of youth involvement is lower in the younger age ranges. The degree of youth participation in decision-

making increases with age. However, from the earliest age, children have a say and take an active part in decision-making.

There is a progression from youth participation (Cub-Scouts and Scouts) to youth leadership (Venturers and Rovers).

3. A tool for citizenship education

Playing an active role in Scouting prepares young people for responsibility in society. Young people who have learned how to manage a project together in a Scout Unit are better prepared to assume their responsibilities as citizens when they become adults. The team system is not just a way of organising the group - it is also a key tool for citizenship education.

During the same Forum on youth participation, one of the participants summarized how the team system achieves this aim:

In a sense, we offer a simulation or a microcosm of life in larger communities or societies and of what is meant by being an active and responsible citizen. If only the world resembled the microcosm of a World Scout Jamboree! The patrol system is about learning to live together in harmony and achieving more than one could by oneself through synergy. It is about achieving common goals for the benefit of everyone.

The team system enables young people to experience the fact that, together in small communities within a larger communication and decision-making system, they can plan and achieve projects, and organise group life according to common values. In other words, we no longer have to accept events passively. We can change ourselves and the world - and thus build a better future together.

Nothing is more urgent nor more important than offering young people this experience.

Notes

1. Baden-Powell, Aids to Scoutmastership.
2. Baden-Powell, Aids to Scoutmastership.
3. Elton Mayo, The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization, 1933.
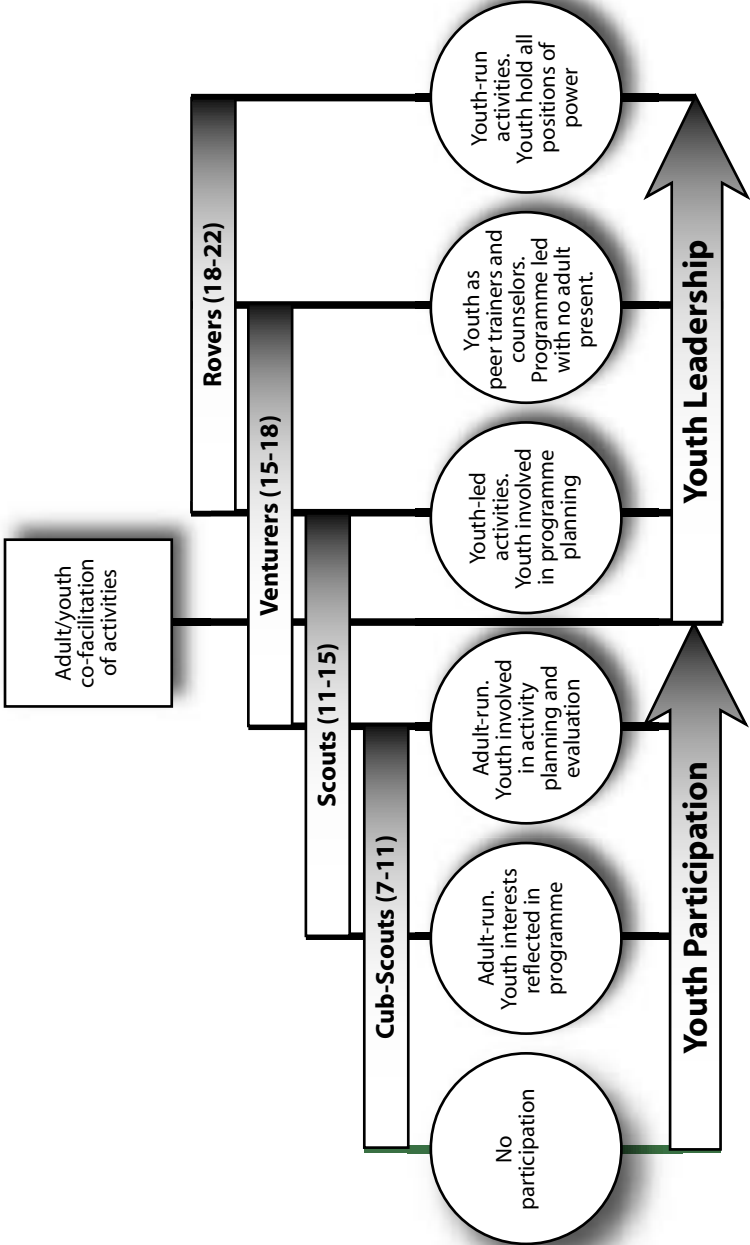4. Baden-Powell, Aids to Scoutmastership.

Fig. 2: Youth Involvement adapted to age ranges

Interpersonal relationships within the group

From time to time, it is important for Scout unit leaders to have a clear idea of the interpersonal relationships among the young people in the group. It can be useful when there is a need to review the composition of patrols or when evaluating each Scout's level of social development. A useful and simple tool for this purpose is the *sociometric test*. It enables you to obtain a *sociogram* of the group.

Don't be alarmed by these technical terms. Sociograms are quite simple and they are used by many educational and youth organizations.

1. The sociometric test

The sociometric test[1] is a way of taking a *snapshot* of the structure of interpersonal relationships in a small group. The answers to the sociometric test enable you to develop a sociogram (a diagram) using the scores obtained. This then enables you to visualize and analyse information concerning the state of interpersonal, psychological and subjective relationships in the group. A sociometric test can help to identify potential leaders in the group, evaluate the relationships between the members and identify those who are likely to be socially isolated.

NAME:_____

If I was going on a hike, I would like to be with:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Fig. 1: the sociotest

Let us take the example of one undertaken in a Scout unit. The sociometric test was conducted on 17 Scouts (boys and girls) aged 11 to 14.

a. Questionnaire

So how do you carry out a sociometric test? The process is very easy, Figure 1 shows an example of the sheet used for the test. Simply hand out a sheet of paper to each young person and ask each one to:

• write his/her name at the top of the page,

• then write the names of other Scouts with whom he/she would like to carry out a particular project, e.g. a hike.

When everyone has answered, the unit leaders collect the papers and analyse the information.

b. Relationships table

- On an A4 sheet, prepare a double-entry table (fig. 2).
- Draw as many columns as there are Scouts who answered the sociometric test. Along the top of the columns, write in the Scouts' initials.
- Draw as many rows as columns and write the Scouts' initials in the rows in the same order as for the columns.
- Fill in the table with the Scouts' choices: in each row corresponding to a Scout's initials, draw a cross in the columns that correspond to the Scout's choices.
- At the bottom of each column, write in the total number of choices that each Scout received.

Received choices

	AV	CP	CS	CG	DF	EJ	FV	FP	GD	IC	JL	LA	NM	PM	PS	RC	YH	
AV										X	X	X		X				4
CP			X		X	X								X		X		5
CS		X		X	X									X		X		5
CG							X				X			X		X		4
DF		X	X	X		X								X				5
EJ	X	X					X					X						4
FV								X	X			X		X		X		5
FP							X			X				X				3
GD		X			X					X					X			4
IC	X											X		X		X		4
JL	X					X	X							X				4
LA	X				X								X	X		X		5
NM							X			X	X	X				X		5
PM	X					X	X		X							X		5
PS	X				X		X			X								4
RC							X			X			X					3
YH				X			X		X					X				4
	6	4	2	3	2	5	4	6	2	5	7	4	3	11	1	3	5	73

Expressed choices (row axis label)

Fig.2 - the relationships table

Received choices

	AV	CP	CS	CG	DF	EJ	FV	FP	GD	IC	JL	LA	NM	PM	PS	RC	YH	
AV										X	X	X		X				4
CP			X		X	X								X		X		5
CS		X		X	X									X			X	5
CG							X				X			X		X		4
DF		X	X	X		X								X				5
EJ	X	X							X				X					4
FV							X			X		X		X		X		5
FP						X					X			X				3
GD		X					X				X					X		4
IC	X											X		X			X	4
JL	X					X	X							X				4
LA	X			X		X							X	X		X		5
NM						X				X	X	X				X		5
PM	X					X	X		X							X		5
PS	X				X			X			X							4
RC							X				X	X						3
YH			X				X			X				X				4
	6	4	2	3	2	5	4	6	2	5	7	4	3	11	1	3	5	73
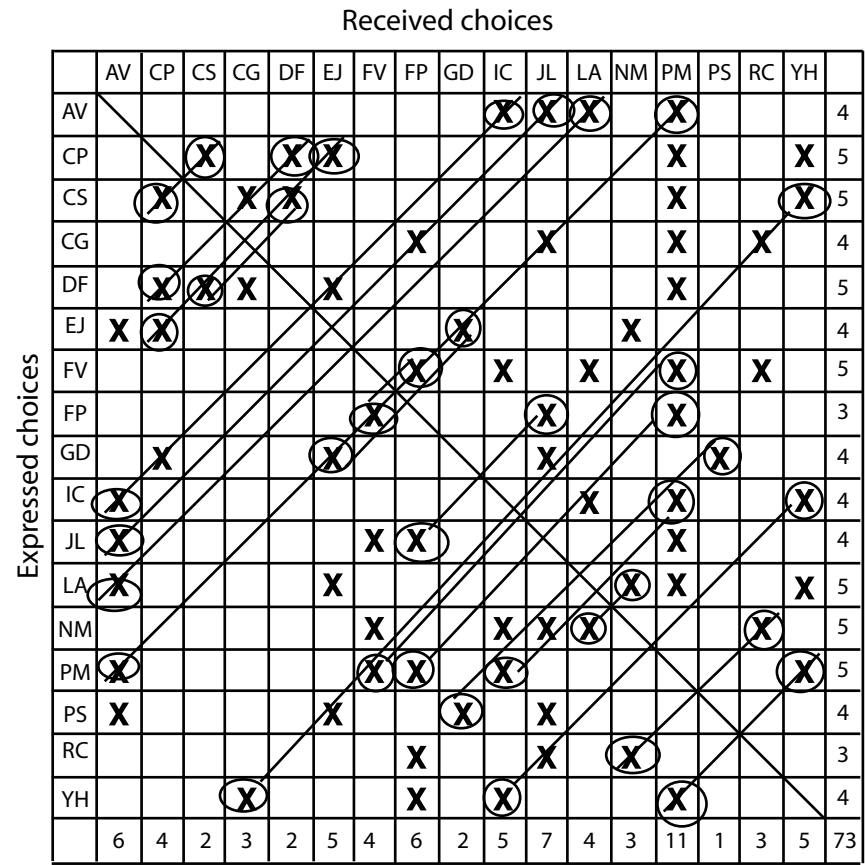
Fig. 3 - The reciprocal choices

- Rank the young people according to the number of choices received.

- In the example of the completed table (fig. 2), PM is ranked highest with 11 choices. PS only received 1 – and thus has the lowest score.

c. Sociogram

- Upon examining the grid, we can see that some members chose each other. For example, CP (row 2) chose CS (column 3) – and CS (row 3) chose CP (column 2).

- These reciprocal choices are spread symmetrically across the left-right diagonal line (fig. 3).

- There are 19 reciprocal choices in the table.

Once the reciprocal choices have been identified, we can establish the sociogram.

Here is how to do it:
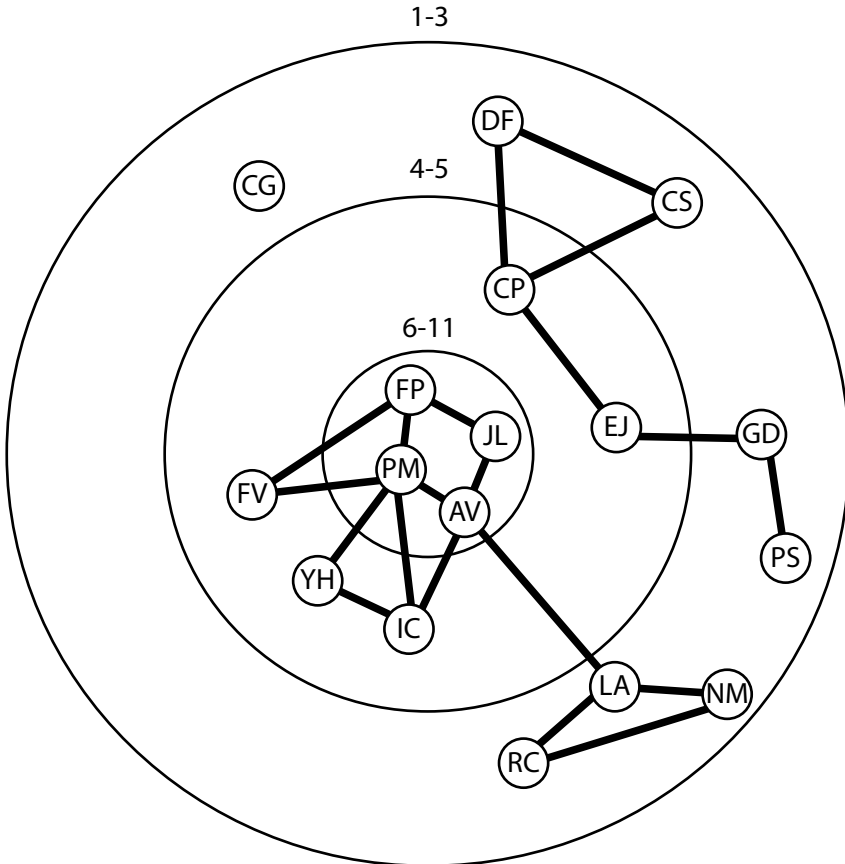
Fig. 4 - The sociogram

- Draw a series of concentric circles – like a dart board (fig. 4). The innermost circle (the "bull's eye") corresponds to the highest range of scores. In this example, it is 6-11.

- The other circles correspond to progressively lower score ranges: 4-5, and 1-3. It is better to limit the number of circles so as not to make the diagram too complicated.

- Each member of the group is represented in the diagram by drawing a small circle surrounding his/her initials.

- Identify the young person who has received the greatest number of choices. In the example, it is PM (11 choices). Then place the other members in the rings according to their score. Thus, those who are closer to the bull's eye are the

most "popular", those who are in the outermost rings are the most "marginalized".

- Draw a line to connect only the young people who chose each other. A pattern of "dyads", "triads" and sub-groups will emerge.

2. Analysis

a. Mutual connections

- In the example (fig. 4), we can see the natural leaders in the bull's eye: PM, JL and AV.

- PM is the "central leader" as this young person is part of two other groups of three: FP and FV, and YH and IC.

- This set of "triads" forms a group of seven members with a relatively high degree of cohesion (the number of reciprocal choices).

- One member of this group (AV) is linked to another, more marginal, "triad" involving LA, RC and NM.

- There is another important sub-group, involving six more marginal members. The backbone of this group involves the DF-CP-CS triad – to which EJ, GD and PS are linked. However, this liaison is fairly fragile. It is less cohesive as a sub-group.

- Finally, CG appears isolated and marginalized.

b. Non-mutual connections

In order to complete the analysis, we can also examine the unilateral choices (i.e. non-mutual connections

where A chooses B, but B does not choose A). In figure 5, the unilateral choices are represented in grey with an arrow pointing towards the person chosen, whereas the reciprocal choices are in black.

CG's case needs some attention. He is not linked to anyone else by reciprocal choice. Several young people have chosen him (DF, CS and YH), but these young people are not the ones that he chose. This could indicate a problem of social adaptation.

On the other hand, a popular leader such as PM only chose those who chose her. Her place in the group is well defined.

The unit leaders need to pay more attention to CG in order to try and identify what is hindering his social development and to help him fit better into the group.

c. Indexes

A few indexes can help to evaluate the state of the group.

Mutuality Index: Mp/N x 100

- Mp = the number of members with mutual choices.

- N = the number of young people in the group.

If all the members of the group made reciprocal choices, then the mutuality index = 100. In our example, the mutuality index is high: 16/17 x 100 = 94.1.

Density Index: M/N

- M = the number of all mutual choices.
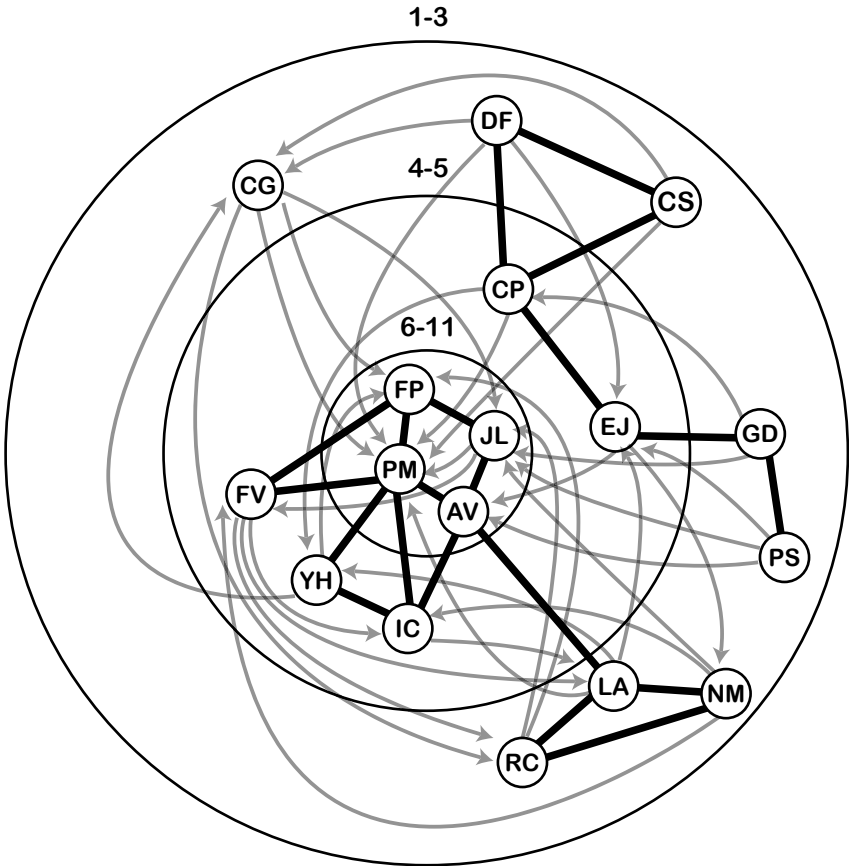
Fig. 5 - Non-mutual connections

- N = the number of members in the group.

In our example, there are 36 reciprocal choices for 17 members. The density index is therefore 2.1. On average, each member has just over two reciprocal choices.

Requited Relationship Index: M/E x 100

- M = the number of all mutual (reciprocal) choices.

- E = the number of choices mentioned.

In our example, 36/72 x 100 = 50. Only 50% of the members have a reciprocal relationship. This means that the young people chose many people, but only half were reciprocal choices.

It is important to remember that the sociogram is only a "snapshot" of relationships in the group at a particular moment and in

specific circumstances. The results can change according to the circumstances. Answers are likely to be different after going through a particular experience together or depending on the question asked.

For example, "Who would you like to go on a hike with?" will not elicit the same answers as "Who would you like to be friends with?". A sociogram only provides relative and temporary results. The indices are useful in order to compare different sociograms and to evaluate the evolution of the group.

3. How to use the information

a. Young people's level of social development

- Young people who are chosen the most often by their peers are the most popular. They have a lot of influence in the group and are often in a leadership role (team/patrol leader, etc.). Popular young people tend to be outgoing, cheerful, attractive and friendly.

- Young people who neither receive many choices nor express many choices probably tend to be shy or introverted. They need to be helped to develop more self-confidence and to become more open to others.

- Other young people do not receive many choices but they themselves choose many others. They would really

like to go towards others and develop relationships, but they are probably trying to do so in an inappropriate or aggressive way. They do not have the appropriate strategy to become integrated in the group. They need to be helped to develop their social skills.

Young people who find it difficult to interpret the social signals given in a group and to develop appropriate social responses have a lower social status and risk being rejected by the group. In adolescence, young people who are excluded tend to form new groups that devalue academics, encourage aggression, and promote other dysfunctional behaviour in young people.

b. Importance of peer groups

A peer group is a group in which the members have the same status. Through sociometry, we can see how important the peer group is in the life of young people. At home, most of the young people's interactions take place with people who have a different status: parents, brothers and sisters, etc. Generally, the young people have a subordinate status and receive instructions or orders from older people.

All the research shows that young people who can develop relationships within a peer group find it easier to develop effective social relationships. They respond positively to others' requests

or signals for attention. They develop good strategies to help themselves become integrated. Relationships within a peer group help the young people to understand and appreciate the points of view of others who are similar to them and enable them to acquire better social skills.

This is why the "patrol system" is an excellent educational tool, provided that the teams are truly peer groups (a limited age range), established according to reciprocal choice.

c. Precautions when using sociograms

Some reference books on sociometry and sociograms suggest asking study group members to state not only "with whom they would like to be friends", but also "with whom they would not like to form a group". Such questions are designed not only to establish the *positive choices* but also the *rejects* and to identify more clearly those rejected by the group.

It is recommended not to use such questions in a Scout unit as doing so could reinforce polarities. In any event, you are strongly advised not to present the results of a sociometric test point-blank to the group. Doing so is likely to perturb the group and negatively affect socio-affective development. It is clearly out of the question to reveal who appears to be the most or least popular. Scout leaders should therefore use a sociometric test from time to time as a tool to observe affinities within the group.

You can then determine within the leadership team how to use the conclusions so as to support the group and the individual members.

You can use the conclusions to help you in discussions with certain young people so as to help them to analyse any difficulties that they have in the group and to support them in their personal development. The test can also help to identify certain problems that exist in a team or in the whole unit and to define new rules concerning group life so as to solve the problem.

Notes

1. *Sociometry*
   - Marineau, René F. - "Jacob Levy Moreno 1889-1974 Father of psychodrama, sociometry, and group psychotherapy". Routledge 1989, London & New York.
   - Who Shall Survive? Foundations of Sociometry, Group Psychotherapy, and Sociodrama by Jacob L. Moreno
   - Sociometry Then and Now: Building on Six Decades of Measuring Children's Experiences With the Peer Group (New Directions for Child Development, No 8 by William M. Bukowski (Editor) (Paperback - June 1998)
   - http://www.thesociometry.com/sociometry.html
   - http://www.asgpp.org/ The American Society of Group Psychotherapy & Psychodrama

How to prepare a Council meeting

Our entire Movement functions in a participatory manner – right from local units up to the World Scout Committee. Young people and adults are invited to form teams and to cooperate in order to evaluate situations, make decisions, organize future action, give progress reports, etc.

Our most common way of working is through meetings or, more generally, councils. Council meetings are an indispensable part of the life and functioning of any organization. However, inefficient council meetings undermine the group's morale and cohesion. The quality of a leader, whether it is a patrol leader, a Scout unit leader or the chairman of the national, regional or World Committee, can largely be measured in terms of the quality of such meetings.

This handout is to help you to prepare a council meeting. The next handout (TB020) will help you to run an efficient council meeting.

1. Before convening a meeting

Before convening a council meeting of any kind, you should ask yourself four questions:

a. Is the meeting really necessary?

Some problems can be sorted out through personal contact: phone,
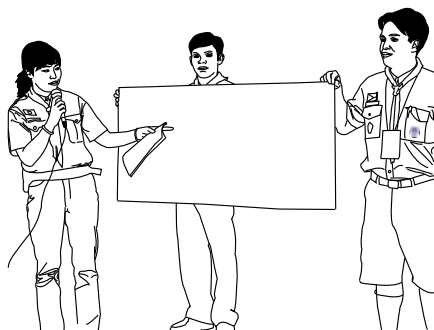
e-mail or mail. Keep council meetings for when discussions as a group are really necessary.

b. Are you inviting the right people to the meeting?

Involving people who have little to do with the subject of the meeting weighs down discussions and makes them more difficult. Not inviting people who are directly concerned by the matter at hand is likely to undermine the credibility of the meeting's conclusions.

c. What are the expected outcomes of the meeting?

Everyone convened should have a clear idea of the subject and the objectives of the meeting. The questions to ask yourself are the following: What is the subject of the meeting? What results will we have achieved by the end of the meeting?

d. What degree of freedom do the participants have?

There is nothing worse than disappointing or frustrating the group members. When a leader calls a meeting, he/she needs to have a clear idea of what is expected of the participants – and keep to it. If you call people to a meeting, it is because you expect something from them and because you will take their input into account. It is always dangerous to consult others if the decision has already been made, or to ask participants to make a decision if you are not sure that it will be implemented.

2. Convening the meeting

The act of convening a meeting represents a mini-contract which binds the organizer with the participants. It is vital to respect the following rules:

- The invitation should be sent out in good time, at least two to three weeks in advance of the meeting.
- The invitation needs to contain clear information. It should be concise, readable and attractive. It should mention:
  - the date that you are sending it out
  - the purpose of the meeting
  - the date, time and duration
  - where it will be held (the exact address, a map and directions as to how to get to the venue, the organizer's phone number in the event of a problem)
  - a list of the people invited (alphabetical order, name, title and function)
  - the agenda and the expected outcomes of the meeting
  - an indication of who is responsible for each item (so that those concerned can prepare their input)
  - who is responsible for the meeting: the chairman, facilitator-moderator, secretary
  - the name, function etc., of the person signing the invitation (it should obviously not be anonymous)
  - available information: any documents that should be read prior to the meeting
  - enclosures: documentation, practical information concerning meals or breaks, accommodation if necessary
  - a reply form (written in a style that does not give the impression that the meeting is optional)

3. Preparing the meeting

A well-prepared meeting is halfway to success. The organizer should ask him/herself the following questions:

1. What is the goal of the meeting?

2. Who will the participants be?
3. When will the meeting take place and for how long?
4. Where should the meeting take place?
5. What are the expected outcomes of the meeting?
6. What working methods should be used in order to achieve the expected outcomes?

a. What is the goal?

In general terms, meetings can have five kinds of goal:

i. Information

People are brought together to bring them up to date on a number of matters or to ask them to report on a particular subject.

ii. Consultation

There is a problem to be solved. We have a possible solution. We want to share this possible solution with the group to see what objections there might be and to see whether it is possible to reach agreement.

iii. Studying the problem

There is a problem – and we do not yet have a solution. We are convening a meeting to examine the problem and to find a solution.

iv. Negotiation

We are aware that members of the group are divided on an important matter. We have decided to bring the group together in order to try and define a common position.

v. Organization or planning

The group has agreed on a certain course of action. The group is meeting to organize and develop a plan of action.

It is usually better to avoid combining too many goals in a single meeting.

b. Who should participate?

Participants should not be selected at random. They should:

- have knowledge/skills related to the subject matter of the meeting and/or be directly concerned by it;
- know each other and have a common aim;
- come to the meeting with a constructive attitude, i.e. to offer ideas and listen to other people's ideas.

If needed, in addition to the regular participants, you may wish to invite one or more people from outside the group if they have particular knowledge or skills related to the subject matter of the meeting. Efficient interaction depends on the number of participants (see fig. 1).

c. Date and duration

Don't forget to bear in mind people's prior commitments/ availability when choosing a suitable date and time.

The optimum duration of a meeting is between one-and-a-half and two hours. A meeting of young people should be much shorter.

Make sure that there are breaks with refreshments if the meeting needs to continue any longer.

d. Venue

The venue should be easily accessible (public transport, parking area). A map should accompany the invitation. Draw an arrow pointing to the venue if necessary.

The meeting room needs to be appropriate for the number of participants. If you have to have a meeting with 12 people in a room that could seat 100, then organize the meeting area in a corner of the room, so that people feel more comfortable. Check what external noise or disturbances there might be so as to take precautions (phones, visitors, etc).

Pay attention to comfort: lighting, heating, air circulation, etc. Table arrangements are very important (see fig. 2). A rectangular or square table is often unsuitable

Less than 4	Very poor
From 4 to 6	Weak
From 6 to 8	Good
From 8 to 10	Excellent
from 10 to 15	Weak
More than 15	Very poor

Fig. 1
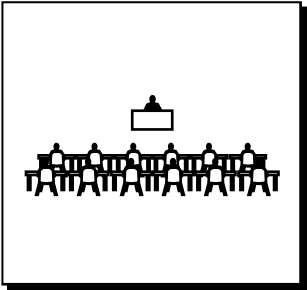
Magisterial conference
("I know everything...")
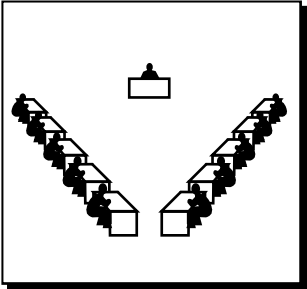
Controlled meeting
("Let us co-operate
under my leadership...")
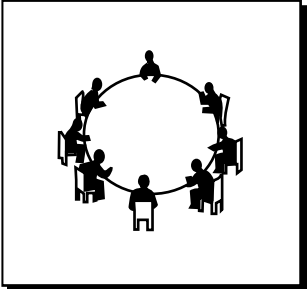
Free discussion
("All equal")

Fig. 2 - Various arrangements

for a group of more than ten people. Round or V-shaped arrangements enable everyone to see everyone else – thus facilitating communication among all of the members. The facilitator should be able to move easily. An open arrangement of tables allows more lively interaction. Foresee the equipment needed:

- Sufficient tables and chairs.
- Cards to display the names of the participants on the tables, and name badges if the meeting involves a large group.
- A writing-board that everyone can see. The advantage of a flipchart is that the paper can be kept as a record. Both the writing-board and the person leading the discussion should be in front of a solid background and never with their backs to a window (incoming light will make them hard to see).
- Suitable marker pens (water-soluble for white boards).
- Audiovisual support if necessary (overhead projector, slide projector, video player, etc.).
- A watch.
- Sticky tape or thumb tacks to hang up flipchart sheets.

Remember to test all the equipment before the meeting.

e. Expected outcomes

The most important quality of the person leading the meeting is to be realistic. One cannot produce miracles in a one to two hour meeting. The expected outcomes therefore need to be scaled to what the group is able to achieve within the time frame. For example, if the aim of is to solve a particularly delicate problem, it is most likely that several meetings will be needed.

- The expected outcome of the first meeting will be to share all available information so that the problem can be analysed more clearly.
- A second meeting should aim to list all the foreseeable solutions and the means required to implement each of them.
- A third meeting should aim to decide on a particular solution, based on the best cost/benefit estimate.

Evidently, this process is only feasible with older adolescents or young adults. For younger adolescents, the process has to be scaled down. This means that adults will have to play a greater role in preparing the decisions.

f. Choosing the method

Once the expected outcomes have been identified, one can then consider the most efficient method for achieving them. This is what is called a session outline.

The session outline should be presented at the beginning of the meeting. Several different outlines are possible. They should be adapted to the kind of meeting

and to the expected outcomes. Here are a few examples:

i. Facts and reactions

This is the most common type (fig. 3a). It involves:

- Defining the subject (theme or objective). For example: How much will the fee be for next year?
- Facts: sharing information concerning the subject. Refusing opinions or comments: just facts (What? Where? When?).
- Analysing: What does the information gathered mean? What does each participant think? How do they interpret the information?
- Action-oriented conclusion: What should we do? Who does what? When? Where? How?

ii. For and against

We have a problem (X). A possible solution would be to…. I would ask you to examine the advantages and disadvantages of this solution and to weigh them up. If your conclusions are in favour, than we can accept this solution. If your conclusions weigh against this solution, then we shall reject it… (See figure 3b)

A variation involves adding a third column, Improvements, in order to find ways of increasing advantages and decreasing disadvantages.
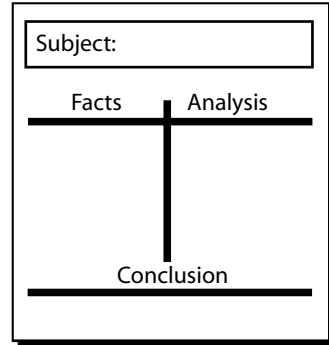
(a) Facts and reactions
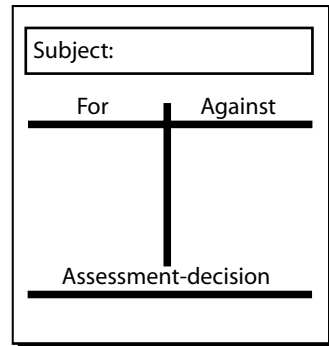
(b) For and against
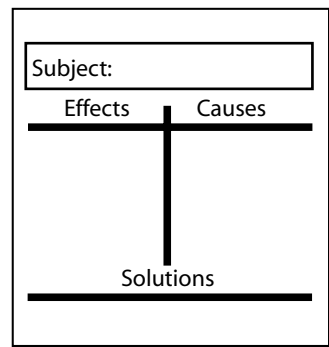
(c) Causes and effects

Fig. 3

iii. Causes and effects

This is the method used by mechanics to identify what has broken. *We can see a problem, let's find out what's not working* (observable effects), *then we can search for the cause of each effect that we have observed: why it's not working (because of something, someone). Finally, we'll try to find solutions that could reduce those causes.* (fig. 3c).

iv. Divergence study

We have a problem. Let's share all the information and opinions that we have on this subject. Then, we'll try to identify where our opinions diverge and why they exist. This will help us to stand back from the problem and to find an agreement on a solution more easily (fig. 4).

Choose an appropriate outline according to the goal of the meeting:

- Sharing information: "facts-reactions" outline.
- Obtaining consensus on a course of action: "for and against" outline.
- Studying a problem without an identified solution: "causes and effects" outline.
- Reconciling divergent opinions: "divergence study" outline.

If there are strongly diverging opinions in a group, it is not advisable to use the "for and against" outline as it could accentuate the divergences. In
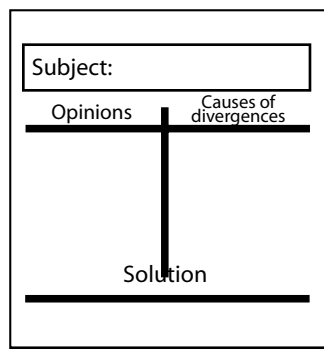
Fig. 4

this case, it would be better to use the *divergence study* outline as it would encourage participants to stand back and understand each others' points of view.

 tool box / *boite à outils*

How to run a Council meeting

A council meeting brings together people who are in charge of sharing information and making decisions (see TB019). In organizations, people often complain that they spend too much time in unproductive meetings. This handout presents the different skills needed for a successful council meeting and explains how to apply them. It follows on from the TB019 handout: "How to Prepare a Council Meeting". It describes the functions to be fulfilled in a council meeting, the causes of failure and remedies, the first ten minutes, reformulation techniques, how to deal with difficult participants and how to prepare a report. This handout can be used to conduct a team or unit council meeting (see TB017).

1. The functions to be fulfilled in a council meeting

In running a council meeting, there are always three main functions to be fulfilled:

- *The organizational function*: defining the objectives of the meeting, choosing the working method, equipping and arranging the meeting room, welcoming the participants.

- *The production function*: analysing the problem at hand, summarising the progress of work, ensuring that discussions lead to conclusions.
- *The regulatory function*: facilitating discussion, sensing the group atmosphere, clarifying misunderstandings about the problem to be solved, noting interpersonal difficulties and helping to solve them.

In order to ensure that the different functions are fulfilled, three roles are needed:

- *The chairman*: deals with the organizational and regulatory functions.
- *The secretary*: helps the chairman, especially by keeping a record of the meeting.
- *Participants*: carry out the production function.

a. The chairman

The chairman serves the group by ensuring that the meeting is conducted appropriately. This person is neutral and does not intervene in the substance of the debate – only in how the debate is conducted. His/her tasks are to:

- prepare the agenda;
- prepare the framework of the meeting and working methods;
- help the group to concentrate on the subject by suggesting methods and procedures;
- make sure that each participant can express him/herself without being attacked or criticized;
- encourage all members of the group to participate and share speaking time;
- provide intermediate conclusions to help the debate to progress;
- ratify the decisions;
- ensure follow-up to the meeting (report, implementation of decisions).

If the usual chairman is too involved in the subject matter of a meeting, it is better to nominate an external moderator who can remain neutral and correctly fulfil the organizational and regulatory functions.

b. The secretary

This person is also neutral. His/her task is primarily to keep an accurate record of the meeting by:

- writing the group's ideas on a flipchart in view of everyone;
- noting the main points in a way that reflect what the participants said.

c. The participants

- actively take part in the discussion;
- help the moderator and the secretary to maintain a neutral position;
- ensure that the ideas expressed are noted;
- make suggestions concerning procedure;
- determine the direction of the discussions.

2. The first ten minutes

The first ten minutes are crucial to the success of the meeting. Here are seven important tasks that the chairman needs to fulfil during this critical phase:

a. Make the group feel at ease

- Welcome participants.
- Create a relaxed atmosphere that helps people to express themselves and listen to others.

b. Manage the time available so as to reach the objectives

- Remind participants how long the meeting will last and present an outline of the meeting.

c. Establish the "rules of the game"

- Establish the reciprocal degree of freedom between the

chairman and the group. Will the chairman intervene in the debate? If so, how? What does he/she expect of the group? Just to share information? Opinions or advice? Decisions?

d. Organise the reporting procedure

- Propose or nominate a secretary; inform him/her of the subject of the meeting and of the distribution list for the report.

e. Make sure everyone is on the same wavelength

- Remind participants of the meeting's objectives and agenda, and of the decisions to be made.
- Propose a plan and a working method and check that the group agrees (see TB003).
- List participants' expectations and ask if there are any other items to add.

f. Open the debate

- Make a short introduction and, going around the table, invite participants to speak.

3. Reformulation

During a meeting, group dynamics can produce phenomena that can lead to failure if they are not channelled and managed. On page 60, the table summarizes the main difficulties and proposes solutions. However, in order to fulfil the regulatory function, the chairman should be also able to use a reformulation technique.

a. What does reformulation mean?

When a participant speaks, the chairman:

- notes the main points;
- reformulates, i.e. verbally summarizes the main points;
- tries not to forget anything, nor to add, distort, interpret nor react to anything.

b. The effects of reformulation

Reformulation has positive effects on the chairman, the participant and the rest of the group.

- The chairman – improves his/her ability to listen, shows that he/she is attentive, encourages participation, verifies that he/she has understood, clarifies and summarises.
- The participant – hears a reflection of what he/she said, thinks whether this is what was intended and, if necessary, corrects either the idea itself or how it was formulated, feels listened to, feels encouraged to continue to take part.
- The group – follows the discussion more easily, understands the subject better, feels more secure in knowing that the chairman is attentive, feels encouraged to take part more actively.

c. When should the chairman reformulate what has been said?

- When he/she is not sure what the participant said.

Causes of failure	Remedies
1. The animal with several heads This is the tendency to discuss several subjects at once. Each person defends his/ her point of view without listening to anyone else. The meeting leads nowhere.	**One subject at a time**
2. Confusion between what and how The chairman did not establish agreement with the group on how to progress. No distinction was made between the substance of the meeting ("what") and the method ("how"	**The group agrees on:** · The subject to be discussed · The working method
3. Censorship A participant would like to express an idea but the others do not let him/her speak, or else he/she does not dare to speak for fear of being criticised. **4. Abuse of power** The roles and responsibilities are not clearly defined. Some do not respect the rules that were agreed upon. The chairman seems to be involving the council members but is, in fact, manipulating them so as to make his/her own ideas prevail.	**A chairman is nominated** The chairman serves the group. He/she must be neutral and avoid making judgements. His/her role is to facilitate the meeting and to monitor the relationships between participants. He/she does not intervene on substance. He/she encourages everyone to take part and ensures that everyone has a chance to speak. He/she makes sure that speaking time is shared fairly and protects everyone from personal attacks or criticism.
5. No summary The group goes around in circles, returning to the same point of discussion... So much information has been shared that people are lost... Important ideas are forgotten.	**Ensure that records are kept** · Designate a secretary · Use a flip chart · Keep notes and write a report, formulate intermediate conclusions and check that the group agrees (see TB019).

- When the participant has made an important point which the group did not pay attention to or may have misunderstood.
- When there is a need to summarize the item discussed and move on to another item.

4. Dealing with difficult participants

There are always difficult participants in a group. They can be grouped into three categories:

- those who talk too much;
- those who do not say enough;
- those who are disruptive.

a. Those who talk too much

The talkative person

Reformulate his/her ideas and ask the group what it thinks so as to enable the others to express themselves and thus open the discussion, or make him/her wait after having noted the idea.

The "know-it-all"

He/she is always the first to speak on any point. Ask the group if anyone has a different opinion.

The person who strays from the subject

Ask his/her opinion on the point being discussed.

b. Those who do not say enough

The person who has difficulty expressing him/herself

Capture the main points of the ideas, help him/her to express them more clearly, reformulate what was said so as to encourage – not embarrass – the speaker.

The shy person

Invite and encourage the person to speak and protect him/her from criticism.

The person who feels that no one listens

Offer praise to improve how the person is viewed by others and to make him/her feel more important.

Those who are uninterested

Let them talk about their own experiences.

The person who is sleepy or daydreams

Ask the person questions that will interest him/her and bring him/her into the debate.

c. Those who are disruptive

The person who wants precise answers on details

Use an example to illustrate why it is necessary to understand the general situation before dealing with details.

The person who is hostile and feels that meetings serve no purpose

Give him/her an opportunity to shine; praise his/her experience.

The argumentative person

This person is obsessed with details or procedures: ask the question in a different way, ask the group's opinion.

The person who asks delicate questions

Suggest that it would be better to discuss the point at a later date or reply briefly to end the debate.

The aggressive person

Stay calm, listen and reformulate the idea in non-aggressive terms. Show your esteem for any positive aspects and then invite him/her to listen to the others.

5. The report

The report represents the collective memory of the group. It must be sent to everyone invited to the meeting (including those who were absent) and also to any other people involved.

a. Types of report

The chairman needs to determine the type of report needed before the meeting. There are two types of report:

Minutes

These are a complete record of what everyone said. They are mainly used for statutory meetings (general assembly, board meeting or steering committee).

Summary of conclusions

This does not reflect all of the discussions but simply the main points and the intermediate and final summaries.

b. Preparing the report

The secretary takes notes during the meeting. He/she notes on a flipchart the main stages of the meeting and the intermediate summaries or conclusions as proposed by the chairman. If the chairman was not able to make intermediate summaries during the discussions, the meeting was not run appropriately and the records will be mediocre.

Outline of the report

With the help of the notes and the flipchart sheets, the secretary writes the final report. The outline may look like this:

1. Subject of the meeting.
2. Date, venue and duration of the meeting.
3. Date on which the records were sent.
4. List of participants invited and their functions.
5. Indication of who was present and who was unable to attend.
6. Names of the chairman and the secretary.
7. Agenda.
8. Record of the substance of the meeting (minutes or a summary of conclusions).
9. Decisions.
10. Date of the next meeting.

Style of the report

The style should be simple, legible and attractive. Use short sentences and everyday vocabulary. The report is intended to be read and also to encourage those who were absent to attend the next meeting.

Peer education and youth participation

A "peer" is "one that is of equal standing with another; one belonging to the same societal group especially based on age, grade or status" (Webster dictionary). Thus, the term "peer education" would indicate "peer to peer education" or those of the same societal group or social standing educating each other.

1. How do peer groups influence their members

Normally, children and young people are very keen to join a group of peers.

The main themes in friendship relations – affiliation and common interests – are first understood by children in early childhood. Friends have fun with one another; they enjoy doing things together; and they care about one another.[1]

In a peer group, relations are mostly egalitarian. Peer groups are symmetrically or horizontally structured, in contrast to adult-child relationships, which are asymmetrically or vertically structured.

a. Positive influence

Meeting young people's needs

Young people are keen to belong to a peer group because they can, in this way, meet some basic needs which are particularly important at the adolescent age:

- Sense of belonging – fulfilled by loving, sharing, and cooperating with others.

- Mastery/Power – fulfilled by achieving, accomplishing, and being recognized and respected.

- Freedom – fulfilled by making choices.

- Stimulation/Fun – fulfilled by laughing and playing: a variety of interesting, fun, and engaging activities.

Providing resources

Friendly relations in a peer group provide young people with the following resources:

Emotional resources

- Young people relate well to people similar to them in age,

background, and interests. They have fun together and then adapt better to stress.

• Peers play a very important part in helping their friends. Peers listen to, accept and understand certain frustrations associated with being a teenager.

Cognitive resources

• Cognitive resources for problem-solving and knowledge acquisition.

• The cultural similarity of peer promoters helps ensure that the language and messages used are relevant and appropriate.

Social resources

• Social communication.

• Cooperation, and group entry skills.

The single best childhood predictor of adult adaptation is not school grades, and not classroom behaviour, but rather, the adequacy with which the child gets along with other children. Children who are generally disliked, who are aggressive and disruptive, who are unable to sustain close relationships with other children, and who cannot establish a place for themselves in the peer culture, are seriously at risk.[2]

Exerting a positive pressure

Peer pressure is a type of force applied to get us to do something other people are doing.

Peers provide an opportunity for teens to feel capable of belonging and having fun. If you do something positive and encourage your friends to do the same, you are exerting *positive peer pressure*.

b. Negative influence

However, there is also a risk of *negative peer pressure*.

If you feel left out of the *right* cliques, you may be tempted to find any clique just to belong somewhere.

Many of today's most serious public health and social problems have their roots in behaviour that begins in late childhood and adolescence, including smoking, drug and alcohol consumption, and sexual activity. Children and adolescents are much more likely to participate in a particular high-risk activity if their friends participate in it.[3]

Negative peer influence can be developed in three main ways: normative, informational and facilitative.

Normative influence

The peer group can change young people's social norms either by conformity or contagion:

• *Conformity* – when the adolescent engages in behaviour because he/she feels that he will receive either social rewards (e.g. group acceptance) for participating, or social punishment (ostracism or ridicule) for not participating.

• *Contagion* – when one wants to engage in a certain activity, is restrained by perceived

social norms against it, feels a reduction of these restraints when seeing someone else engage in the behaviour, and then does so himself/herself.

Informational influence

The peer group can provide young people with information which motivates them to engage in risky behaviour:

- *Direct verbal exchange* – an adolescent telling an upset friend that smoking helps "calm the nerves".
- *Vicarious learning* – noticing that friends act more uninhibitedly and are more "fun" when they drink.
- *Syllogistic reasoning* – Bill is a smart guy; Bill uses cocaine; therefore cocaine must not be too harmful.

Facilitative influence

Peers make it easier to engage in the risky behaviour: 74% of 14-16 year-old smokers had obtained their most recent cigarette from a friend or family member, compared to 23% who had purchased it from a shop.

2. How to get the best from peer influence?

Peer influence occurs naturally. It can have positive or negative influences. Therefore, the question is: How do we get the best from peer influence and transform it int*o peer education*?

Several kinds of peer helping have been identified: peer mentoring, peer mediation and peer tutoring.

a. Peer mentoring

A mentor is a person who leads another person in a positive direction by offering listening, attention, transferable skills, interpersonal skills, empathy and compassion.

Peer mentoring allows for a "for youth by youth" philosophy. Mentors listen and are supportive and often have a non-judgmental, common sense, age appropriate reaction to mentees' concerns, questions and issues.

The benefits of peer mentoring include:

- Increases self-esteem, skill-building, social involvement with peers.
- Peer mentoring can offer an important form of support for students experiencing strong emotions with death, divorce, family relationships, pregnancy and other challenges in daily life.
- Mentors role model appropriate, acceptable behaviour so that peers can follow that behaviour.

b. Peer mediation

A mediator is a person capable of assisting other people to manage conflict in a useful fashion.

Peer mediation projects have been used to influence and guide behaviour in many ways over a number of years and in many different school settings, for example in Canada, with encouraging results.

Students were first asked to analyze and reflect on styles and methods of conflict resolution and interpersonal relationships. Emphasis was placed on identifying and understanding cultural differences and self-awareness. The training then focussed on negotiation and mediation as strategies for conflict resolution. Specific mediation skills were taught and practiced.

c. Peer tutoring

Peer tutoring is an approach in which one child instructs another child in material on which the first is an expert and the second is a novice (Damon and Phelps).

The following reasons explain why peer tutoring works:

- Tutors and tutees are close to each other and the level of interaction is high.
- Tutors and tutees speak a more similar language than do teachers and students (Hedin 1987; Cazden 1986).

In peer tutoring, the expert party is not very far removed from the novice party in authority or knowledge. Being closer in knowledge and status, the tutee feels freer to express opinions, ask questions and risk untested solutions.

Despite its advantages, peer tutoring is not widely used.

Obstacles which prevent the development of peer tutoring are tradition, teacher resistance, possible disadvantages accruing to the tutor, possible tutor impatience, implications of tutor selection, parent cautiousness, implications for school organization, variable suitability of different subjects for peer tutoring, and possible lack of expertise on the part of the tutors.

Several solutions have been developed to overcome these obstacles and ensure effective peer tutoring. One is reciprocal tutoring, a programme used with high-need students (Gartner and Riessman 1993, 1994). Reciprocal tutoring programmes *(1) give all students the opportunity to be tutors and thereby learn through teaching, and (2) have all tutors experience the tutee role as part of a tutoring apprenticeship* (p. 58), as well as including teacher support groups.

Tutees and tutors first learn the subject matter that is being tutored. Secondly, they learn how to tutor. Thirdly, they learn how to listen and communicate effectively. Fourthly, and most importantly, they learn about learning.

d. Acquiring life skills

Peer to peer education with its three main functions – mentor, mediator and tutor – implies providing young people with opportunities for acquiring life skills.

Life skills comprise a set of competencies such as:

- setting objectives;
- communication skills: body language, active listening, assertiveness;
- anger management: identify feelings, recognizing anger, coping skills, relaxation;
- conflict resolution,
- making friends: understanding relationships, getting along with colleagues, getting along with roommates;
- leisure skills;
- message analysis;
- decision-making skills: problem solving, refusal skills;
- employability: time management, proper attire, adapt to change;
- money management, budget, using bank services, credit, comparative shopping;
- social responsibility, family responsibility, basic understanding of law;
- empathy and perspective taking.

3. Peer education in Scouting

The fact that peer education is a current concept, in health education programmes particularly, should not make us forget that it is has been practised within Scouting from the very beginning. It is one of the key elements of the Scout method.

a. The team system

In Scouting, peer education is organized through the team system.

Young people who are similar in age, share common interests and are willing to cooperate, form small groups (six, patrol or team). This enables young people to develop relationships among equals (peers).

The small group is led by one of the young people: the team leader. He or she is responsible for managing the team and passes on experience and knowledge to the younger members. This young person is a "peer leader". The role of team leader, as well as all other roles in a team, can be described by the concept of peer education.

Team leaders as mentors

Team leaders play a mentor's role when they pay attention to the difficulties that some members of their team are facing, when they listen to them and provide them with support or advice without judging them. Suggestions given by a peer are often better received than the same suggestions coming from an adult.

In this respect, team leaders should be able to help their team members

to evaluate their progress and to set personal objectives.

Team leaders as mediators

In order to play their role effectively, team leaders should be able to implement the main functions of mediation:

- run a team council with the aim of discussing various interests and choosing an activity by consensus;
- analyse a problem and find a solution;
- conduct negotiations and reach agreement between several opposing points of view;
- prevent or solve a conflict within the team;
- represent their team in the unit council.

Team leaders as tutors

In their role, team leaders are naturally driven to teach skills to team members or to support them in acquiring skills. However, a tutor's role is not exclusively reserved for team leaders. During their personal progression, each Scout should be invited to reach a level of proficiency where he/she will be able to teach skills to other Scouts. In this way, each Scout unit becomes a 'learning community' that practises reciprocal tutoring.

b. Empowering young people

When we provide young people with the opportunity to play the role of peer leader (mentor, mediator or tutor), we empower them. In other words, we make them more aware of the power which is within them to change situations and to improve things.

In every human community, one can identify three levels of awareness regarding community and personal ability to bring about change (fig. 1). This is called by Barry Checkoway the *Continuum of change*[4].

We can express the mission of Scouting as that of bringing as many young people as possible to level 3.

In order to achieve this aim, it is essential to develop peer education in Scouting and to introduce life skills in the progressive scheme, particularly in the Venture/Explorer and Rover sections.
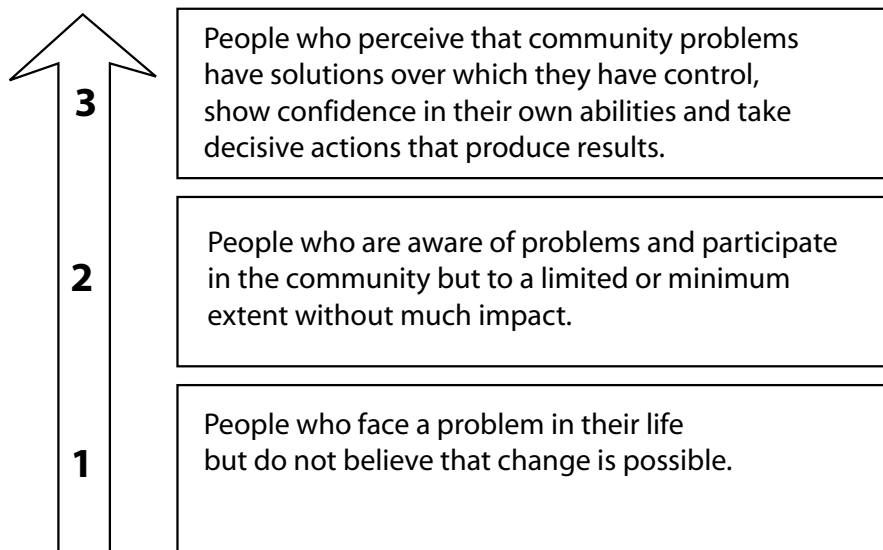
Fig. 1: Levels of empowerment (continuum of change)

_____

Notes

1. Having Friends, Making Friends, and Keeping Friends: Relationships as Educational Contexts. ERIC Digest. The University of Minnesota's Center for Early Education and Development.

2. Peer and Cross-Age Tutoring . Page Kalkowski . http://www. nwrel.org/scpd/sirs/9/c018.html. Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

3. Peer Mediation as an Alternative to the Criminal Justice System, June Maresca. Canada's Children. Promising Approaches to Issues of Child and Youth Violence.

4. *Adults as Allies* by Barry Checkoway, School of Social Work. University of Michigan, www.wkkf.org/pubs/YouthED/Pub564.pdf

Youth participation and moral autonomy

The Promise and Law are essential elements of the Scout method. However, they are often misunderstood both within and outside the Movement.

This handout presents the psychological foundations of the Promise and Law as essential elements of the Scout method and explains their relevance to current educational needs. It shows that the use of the Scout Promise and Law as tools for developing moral autonomy is linked with youth involvement.

1. Misunderstandings

Sometimes, in permissive Western societies, the terms "Promise" and "Law" appear old-fashioned and suspect.

For many, the only law that counts is that of spontaneous expression and personal pleasure. In more structured societies, the Promise and Law are understood literally as a set of obligations to which the child must submit. Neither of these cultural environments prepare people to understand the Scout Promise and Law correctly.

Let's go back to Scouting's roots. What did Baden-Powell say about the Promise and Law? Here are a few quotes:

The Scout Law is the foundation on which the whole of Scout training rests[1].

The boy is not governed by DON'T, but led on by DO. The Scout Law is devised as a guide to his actions rather than as repressive of his faults[1].

Let's stop to think about the words that Baden-Powell used: "not governed by DON'T" – the young person should not be governed by (subjugated to) a negative and repressive law, but rather be led forward by a positive law ("led on by DO").

In his writings, Baden-Powell often denounced the harmful nature of rules that prohibit or repress. In January 1916, for example, he wrote in the *Headquarters' Gazette*:

Education must be positive, not negative – active, not passive. For example, the Scout Law in each of its details says: "A Scout does" – this, that, or the other.

Authorities have come along to improve the Scout Law, and not recognising the active side of it, have changed it to the reverse – a series of "Don'ts". "Don't", of course, is the distinguishing feature and motto of the old-fashioned system of repression, and is a red rag to a boy. It is a challenge to him to do wrong.

We cannot understand Scouting if we ignore this essential aspect of our Founder's thinking. Scouting does not impose or repress; it invites the young person to make a personal commitment concerning his/her own personal development. Here is another quote from Baden-Powell:

The two main methods of training are:

1. *By Education: that is by "drawing out" the individual boy and giving him the ambition and keenness to learn from himself.*

2. *By instruction: that is by impressing and drumming knowledge into the boy.*

Number 2 of these is still too often the rule. In the Scout Movement we use Number 1.[2]

It could not be clearer! The Law is a positive appeal to do better and to develop oneself, and the Promise is the young person's personal response to this appeal.

2. The concept of rule

Psychoanalysis has shown how the concept of rule becomes established at around the age of three, when the young child emerges from a relationship of fusion with the mother, accepts the father's presence and "internalizes" parental authority (the "superego" which represents rules).

Until the superego is established, rules are not internalized; the individual remains in a state of fusion in which he/she is the object of his/her impulses. The only law

is that of his/her own wishes. In extreme cases, this can lead to sociopathic dysfunction, i.e. the individual is incapable of putting him/herself in another person's shoes or experiencing any feelings of altruism or compassion (fig. 1).

This situation is increasing in modern societies in which there is a phenomenon of single-parent families devoid of a father image, and educators are faced with children who have never encountered anything that is forbidden and who rebel against authority from a very early age.

There are other cases in which people remain blocked at a primitive stage with an all-powerful law to which they must automatically submit themselves. This is the punitive law, the old system of repression that Baden-Powell denounced.

Figure 1 shows the route towards an adult understanding of rules.

- To begin with, the child submits to any rule. If such an attitude persists into adulthood, the person will, at best, be highly conservative and, at worst, be enclosed in a neurotic world of prohibitions and guilt.

- The aim of Scout education is to bring each person to an adult conception of law: respect for laws (rules) as well as the capacity to criticize those which appear bad or insufficient in order to change them in a democratic way for the good of all, in the name of more fundamental values.
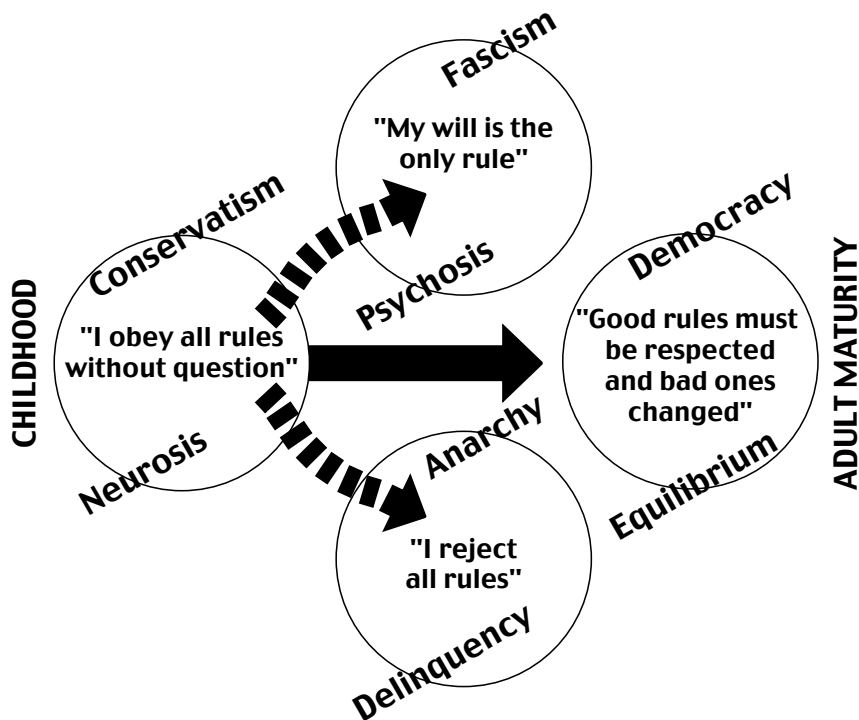
Fig. 1 - The concept of rule

- A possible deviation is one which causes the person to impose a law on others for that person's benefit or for the benefit of his/her group: "I am the law!" This is an authoritarian or fascist attitude. It is also the delusion of power that affects some psychotics.

- A second possible deviation is the rejection of all laws. Any rule is considered bad: "it is forbidden to forbid". This is the self-centred attitude of the *spoiled child* who cannot bear any frustration. Rejecting all rules leads the person to consider the satisfaction of his/her impulses as the only valid law and can lead to crime.

3. The Law-Promise duo: a motor for development

In Scouting, the Scout Law is an invitation to live according to fundamental values: uprightness and loyalty ("to be trustworthy", "to be loyal"); respect for, and solidarity towards, others ("to be a friend to all", to help others"); protection of life and nature ("to protect plants and animals"); a positive attitude to life's ups and downs ("to smile under all difficulties"); respect for work and to strive to do one's best ("respect the work of others", "to do nothing by half"); a sense of one's own dignity ("to be clean in thought, word and deed").

The Scout Law does not forbid anything. It is an invitation to develop oneself, to become more humane. It is a reference for one's life.

Even though the Scout Law is positive, it is not a matter of imposing it on young people. On the contrary, it should be proposed to young people and they should be helped to discover it through group life.

The Promise thus becomes the free and voluntary response of the individual who, in a sense, declares to the group: *I have discovered the values that you wish to live by and, with your help, I agree to try and live in accordance with them as well.*

In other words, the Promise is the starting point of the young person's personal progress; it is because he/she wants to live according to the Scout Law that he/she will set personal development objectives to reach through Scouting activities and everyday life.

It is through the Promise that the young person truly becomes an agent in charge of his/her own development.

4. The Promise and Law in group life

The Law must not be an abstract reference document stuck on the wall in a dusty frame. It has to be given substance in the group's experiences through the unanimously adopted rules governing group life. Figure 2 summarizes this process.

Life in the unit inevitably involves issues, discoveries and problems. After each major activity, one should take time to note and discuss the important points and events that have affected group life, first in team councils, then in the unit assembly (see TB017 and TB023).

What has been observed? Some have not fulfilled their roles correctly; others cheated at a game; or a team was unable to agree on an activity. There will also be positive experiences: a team persevered with their mission despite the difficulties; another

team exemplified the meaning of sharing and friendship; etc. What does this mean in terms of the Scout Law? How can we live better together?

If the adult leaders know how to facilitate discussion without imposing their own point of view, the young people will themselves propose rules concerning group life. These can be discussed, modified if necessary and adopted. For example: "Here, everyone has the right to express him/herself and to be listened to"; "No one can use force to impose their views"; "We share with everyone"; "Assembly decisions must be respected"; etc.

Consequently, rules inspired by the Scout Law will arise out of the experience of group life evaluated in the unit assembly. In turn, these rules will shape group life and help everyone to discover the values underlying the Scout Law through concrete experiences.

Thus, the desire to commit oneself to living according to these values by making the Scout Promise will come naturally to new members. For the others, it is an opportunity to understand the Scout Law and their own commitment better (fig. 2).

5. From rules to values; the stages of development

We can see how common rules – decided as a result of what the group has lived through – can be a springboard to a deeper discovery of the values represented by the Scout Law. This can easily be observed in the child's development.

Before the age of five, a child is still too engrossed in the desire to affirm him/herself, and is still unable to put him/herself in another's shoes to truly accept a rule. He/she imitates elders' rules but cannot respect them. There is always a player who cheats because the desire to win is too strong; so everyone argues, play stops, new agreements are reached; play resumes but stops again after a few minutes in the midst of new arguments.

From the age of five or six and up to nine or ten, rules are considered sacred. Children think that they "come from" adults and that they have no power to change them. It is only from the age of ten or eleven that things change: rules are considered to be the outcome of consensus.

From then on, the opinion of the nation of youth is that rules do not "descend" from adults; they were invented by young people themselves, and they can be changed if they agree to do so.
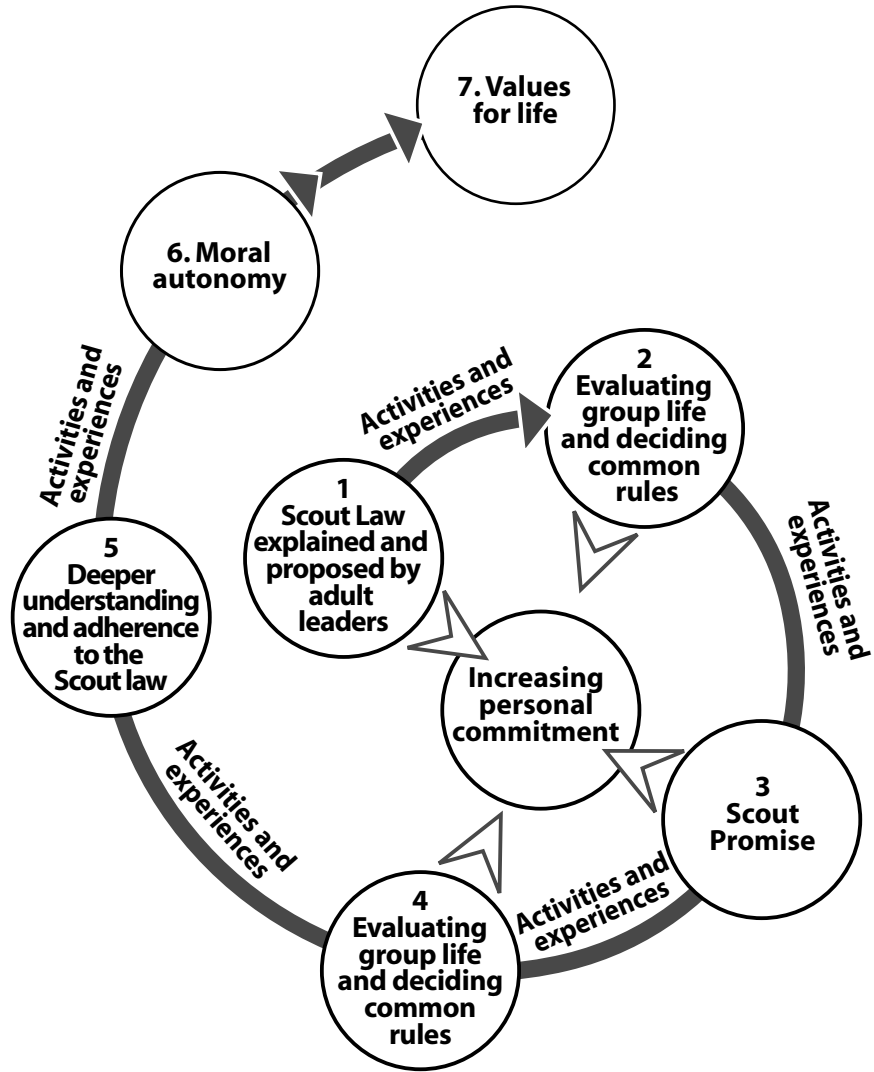
Fig. 2 - The Scout Law and Promise: the spiral to moral autonomy

6. Moral autonomy and citizenship training

From the rules governing games, we move to the rules of morality. Until the age of seven or eight, children do not judge acts as such; they label them according to cultural norms: "good or bad", "wrong or right", etc.

They consider that the more a lie is far-fetched, the worse it is. Doing something naughty is more or less serious depending on the extent of material damage. The intention does not matter. Punishment is considered as expiatory: punishment must be severe enough to make the guilty person aware of the gravity of the act.

The next stage is that of conventional morality. The child conforms to the role that he/she perceives is expected of him/her by parents or the social group: "a good little boy/girl", etc. "Law and order" and respect for authority are considered as absolutes. Some adults never emerge from this stage, no doubt due to an insufficiently rich experience of life in society or because they were subjected to an overly rigid and authoritarian education (fig. 1).

From the age of ten or eleven (as they become capable of logical reasoning), children slowly develops moral autonomy. They are able to evaluate people by their acts and become more aware of their personality traits. They are therefore able to perceive their faults and

weak points and no longer have blind confidence in their authority. They start to judge their own acts and those of others. Moral principles are personally accepted as a way of sharing rights and duties in the group to which one belongs.

Towards the age of 12, the child accepts rules as a kind of contract between people. Rules are not intangible and can be changed by mutual consent. Slowly (and especially in the second half of adolescence – towards 15), the young person is able to understand the concept of universal values: justice, reciprocity, equality, dignity. A "right" is defined according to personal and conscious adherence to moral principles. This is the stage of access to an "adult" conception of the Law (fig. 1).

7. Promise and Law: tools for moral autonomy

The two elements which will enable the young person to progress towards moral autonomy are, on the one hand, the example set by older people (senior members and adult leaders) and, on the other hand, peer group interaction.

The harmonious development of the young person – especially in adolescence – and his/her progression towards moral autonomy require both influences. On the one hand, the young adolescent needs models with whom he/she can identify and who exemplify life's values; on the other, he/she needs to experience

a process which allows discussion and the development of rules within a peer group.

This evolution is, however, not automatic. There are many stumbling blocks that can prevent a person from truly becoming morally autonomous and developing an adult conception of the Law. Some people who are educators make the matter worse when they have not themselves reached a sufficient level of maturity vis-à-vis the Law. For example, an excessively authoritarian or controlling attitude can perpetuate a childlike, submissive attitude on the part of the young person (figure 1).

An overly protective attitude, which reduces social interaction in the peer group, can lead to the same result. Often, excessive authoritarianism or overprotection can make young people suddenly revolt and reject all rules. Out of defiance, the rebellious adolescent will behave antagonistically and take part in risk-taking activities.

On the other hand, an excessively permissive attitude will not enable the young person to structure his/her personality. Such an attitude will leave the young person blocked at a stage of non-differentiation, in which impulses and personal pleasure are the only "law". Some people who have been brought up in an overly authoritarian way tend to have a "laissez-faire" attitude towards their own children. This is just as bad.

What is interesting in the Scout method is that it proposes two effective "tools" - Law and Promise - to help the educator and the young person progress in the right direction.

The Law summarizes a number of essential values that the adult can propose to young people in a way that is adapted to each age group (this is why the Cub pack Law is different from the Scout Law). Group life and the bodies that evaluate group life and decide on common rules (team councils and unit assembly) enable these values to be explored concretely and facilitate the young person's personal commitment through the Promise (figure 2).

There is thus a two-way process: the adult proposes the Scout Law; the young people experiment with it and adhere to it personally. This is how Scouting can achieve with millions of members what Jean Piaget advocated for experimental schools:

By developing the rules governing school discipline themselves, by electing the government in charge of applying these laws and by constituting the judiciary power whose function is to deal with offences, children acquire the possibility of learning through experience what obeying rules, belonging to a social group and individual responsibility mean.[3]

Notes

1. Robert S. S. Baden-Powell, Aids to Scoutmastership
2. Robert S. S. Baden-Powell, Headquarters' Gazette. October 1913.
3. Jean Piaget, Psychologie et éducation, Payot.

The Programme Cycle

The "programme cycle" is a method developed by the Interamerican Scout Office. It was presented for the first time in the International Handbook for Cub Scout Leaders[1]. In an adapted form, it can be used in all age sections. Here we present its adaptation for the Scout section (11-15). The programme cycle is a framework for activities and a tool for participatory planning. It is a way of organizing young people's participation in all of the decisions concerning group life. It is also a means for focusing and evaluating personal and collective progression.

1. A tool to ensure participation

The programme cycle is an educational tool to enable young people to:

- learn to form an opinion, express it and make decisions that are consistent with that opinion;

- practise the basic principle of participation, which is to defend one's opinion while respecting and valuing other people's opinions;

- learn to develop a project, present and defend it;

- gain negotiation and organizational skills.

Using the programme cycle involves making full use of the three bodies that enable young people to take part in decision-making and evaluating processes in the unit: the team (or patrol) council, the unit council (also called the patrol leaders' council) and the unit assembly (see *TB017 - The Team System: A Tool for Youth Participation*).

2. A four-stroke engine

Life in the Scout unit is a succession of programme cycles. Each cycle involves four successive phases (see figure 1):

1. Evaluating personal progress, assessing the unit. Preparing activity theme proposals based on the unit assessment.

2. Deciding on team (patrol) and unit activities.
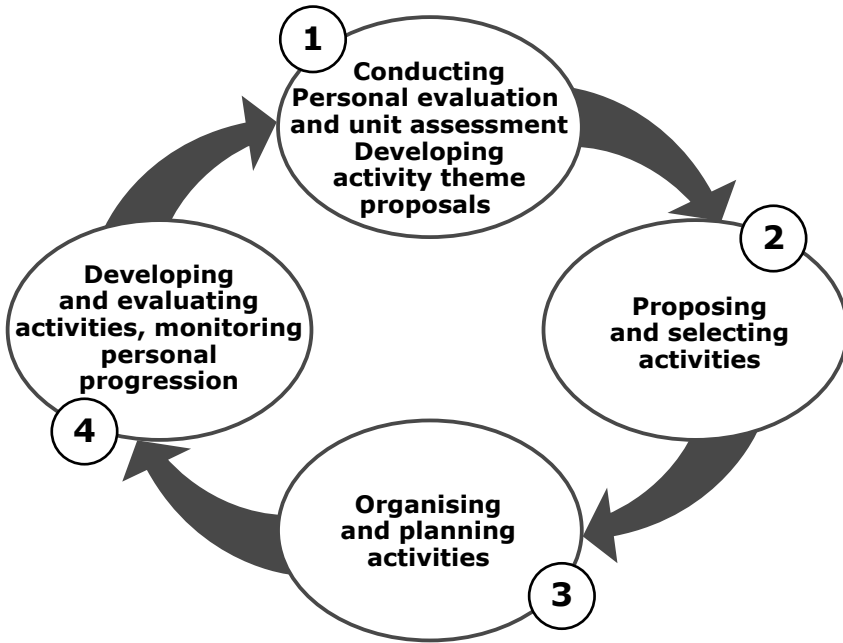
Fig. 1 - The 4 steps of the programme cycle

3. Organizing and planning the activities.

4. Developing and evaluating the activities.

The duration of a programme cycle is variable. It is shorter in the Cub Scout section and somewhat longer in the Rover section. In the Scout section (11-15 years), it can last three to four months. The first three phases of the cycle each last around a week. The fourth phase lasts the rest of the cycle (see figure 2). This does not mean that the first three weeks only involve council meetings and discussions. Activities can also take place during this time. It is important that the council meetings are made dynamic and interesting through games and varied forms of expression.

The various phases of the programme cycle – and particularly the first three – enable young people to become familiar with life in a democracy. This corresponds to the view of our Founder, who recommended consulting the "highest authority" – i.e. the young people themselves – before making important decisions such as selecting activities.

3. Phase 1

The first phase in the cycle has four objectives: 1. To evaluate personal progress; 2. To recognize personal progress; 3. To assess the unit; 4. To develop activity proposals (see figure 2).

a. To evaluate personal progress

Evaluating personal progress involves determining whether each young person has achieved the personal development objectives that he/she established at the beginning of the previous cycle.

Who does the evaluating? Firstly, each young person evaluates him/herself, with help from the rest of the team[3]. That is why the first body involved in the evaluation process is the team council (see figure 2).

Each team meets to share opinions about each person's progress. Each member presents his/her self-evaluation to the others, and the others comment. It is the role of the team (patrol) leader to ensure a constructive attitude, to encourage the shy members to express themselves and to calm down the more enthusiastic members. Each young person keeps a record of his/her evaluation results and notes the feedback. The feedback serves to reassess the original self-evaluation.

b. To recognize personal progress

Then the unit council meets. It is composed of the team leaders and their assistants as well as the adult leaders. Each team leader presents his/her team members' self-evaluation. Each case is discussed. The adult leaders have to agree with proposals to recognize personal progress. Recognition takes the form of a merit or award advancement badge. The badges are distributed during the party at the end of the cycle (see figure 2).

c. To assess the unit

The unit assessment involves a general evaluation of how each team and the unit as a whole function. Do not confuse this assessment with the evaluation of personal progress. The assessment concerns the group, not the individuals.

First, each team meets and assesses the team. Then, each team sends its representatives (the team leader and assistant) to the unit council. Each team's assessments are shared, then the unit is assessed as a whole.

At team level

Examples of questions for the teams to consider:

- Are the team activities interesting?
- Have they enabled you to learn new things, new skills?

- How do you find the team spirit?
- How do team members get on with each other?
- How well are the roles being carried out?
- Etc.

At unit level

The unit council (see TB 017) tries to identify what progress has been made during the cycle that just ended and what progress should be made during the new cycle. Questions to consider include group life and the general atmosphere; the balance between fixed and variable activities[2]; the young people's level of interest and participation in the activities; how educational the activities are; how much attention has been paid to each young person's development, etc.

Simple and concise notes are made to record the assessment. Next, priorities are written down for the new cycle in response to the assessment (so as to reinforce the positive aspects and eliminate the negative ones).

An example of a unit assessment

- The Scouts took part in the activities with enthusiasm.
- There was a good balance between fixed and variable activities.
- We haven't done enough activities in nature and the Scouts lack practice in this area.
- Not enough has been done in two personal development areas:

social and spiritual development.

- There has been a lack of thoughtfulness towards others and there are have often been conflicts in the teams.
- The unit council and the team councils are not working efficiently. They need to be prepared better.
- Not all of the Scouts are using the progressive scheme.

d. To develop activity proposals

Once the assessment has been made and the priorities established, the unit council then develops a written proposal to submit to the teams. The proposal involves:

- the priorities;
- themes for activities related to the priorities.

The themes only relate to the variable activities. They need to be consistent with the priorities and varied enough in nature to permit a choice. They should not be activities that have already been undertaken recently.

The proposal needs to be presented in an exciting way.

An example of a proposal

• *Priorities*

- During the last cycle, we spent too much time indoors. It's time to get out and do more activities in nature.
- We need to learn how to work better with and for others and discover a spiritual reality in our lives.

- The team and unit council meetings need to be prepared and led with more care in order to be more efficient.
- Every Scout will be helped to formulate his/her personal development objectives and to use the progressive scheme.

• *Themes*

Spring is coming – and so is better weather! Why don't we take advantage of this and learn more about discovering and protecting nature?

- 50km from our town, there is a nature reserve with a huge forest. What do you think about going there to discover what forest rangers do?
- There is also a lake in the forest. Imagine everything we could do with canoes: Go bird watching? Make a video?
- The forest rangers probably have nature protection projects for us: building bird houses, cleaning up the banks of the lake, preparing a nature-discovery path, etc.
- There is a small island on the lake where we could organize a "Robinson Crusoe" adventure: each patrol would need to make use of available natural resources to build a hut and find food – by fishing, finding edible wild berries, and so on.

There are tons of things we could do in that forest! It is a great place to discover the marvels of Creation, learn to get on better together and to help each other. What do you think? You've probably got lots of ideas. Discuss them in your teams and present them at the next unit assembly – maybe everyone will think your idea is brilliant!

4. Phase 2

a. The team councils analyse the proposals

Each team meets to discuss and analyse the unit council's proposals. The team leader and his/her assistant present the priorities and explain the reasoning. Then they present the proposed activity themes and open the discussion. Based on their discussion, the teams prepare a project to submit to the unit assembly. This involves:

- a central theme for activities during the new cycle;
- a motto that summarizes the values on which the unit should concentrate during the cycle;
- activity ideas for the unit as a whole;
- activity ideas for the team;
- proposals for new knowledge or skills that could be gained during these activities.

b. The unit assembly decides on the unit activities

At the unit assembly (see TB 017), each team presents the team activities that it has decided to carry out as well as its ideas on

unit activities. A democratic game enables the Scouts to express their opinions and to make a collective decision.

5. Phase 3

a. The unit council organizes and plans activities

Once the unit assembly has chosen its activities for the programme cycle, the unit council organizes and plans them.

The unit council, which is the unit's executive body, organizes and plans the activities' project approved by the unit assembly. The objectives and outlines of the activities are clarified; the material, human and financial resources are identified; and, finally, a general timetable is established that includes both the unit and team activities.

b. The unit assembly approves the timetable

The unit council's decisions are presented to all the Scouts during a unit assembly meeting. The objectives and the timetable are approved.

6. Phase 4

a. Developing and evaluating activities

In accordance with the established timetable, each team carries out its own activities as well as specific tasks needed to achieve the common project. Inter-team task forces can be constituted temporarily, if needed, to manage aspects of the common project.

The team activities and the unit activities are coordinated by the unit council which, if necessary, may decide to modify the plan of action and the timetable.

The team leaders need to take special care that each Scout has a role to play in every activity in which he/she is involved. A clearly defined role is an opportunity for each person to gain new knowledge and skills.

A team evaluation session is held after each activity to see if the objectives have been met.

b. Keeping an eye on personal progress

Once the activities have been decided upon, each Scout is invited to determine his/her personal development objectives for the cycle. This is done with the help of an adult leader who will continue to follow the Scout's progress. Each person's personal objectives are shared during a team council meeting. Personal objectives are evaluated throughout the activities.

Each adult leader should follow the progress of a maximum of eight young people throughout the year. This involves helping the young person to establish, evaluate, review his/her personal objectives and to identify how to achieve them through the activities and roles.
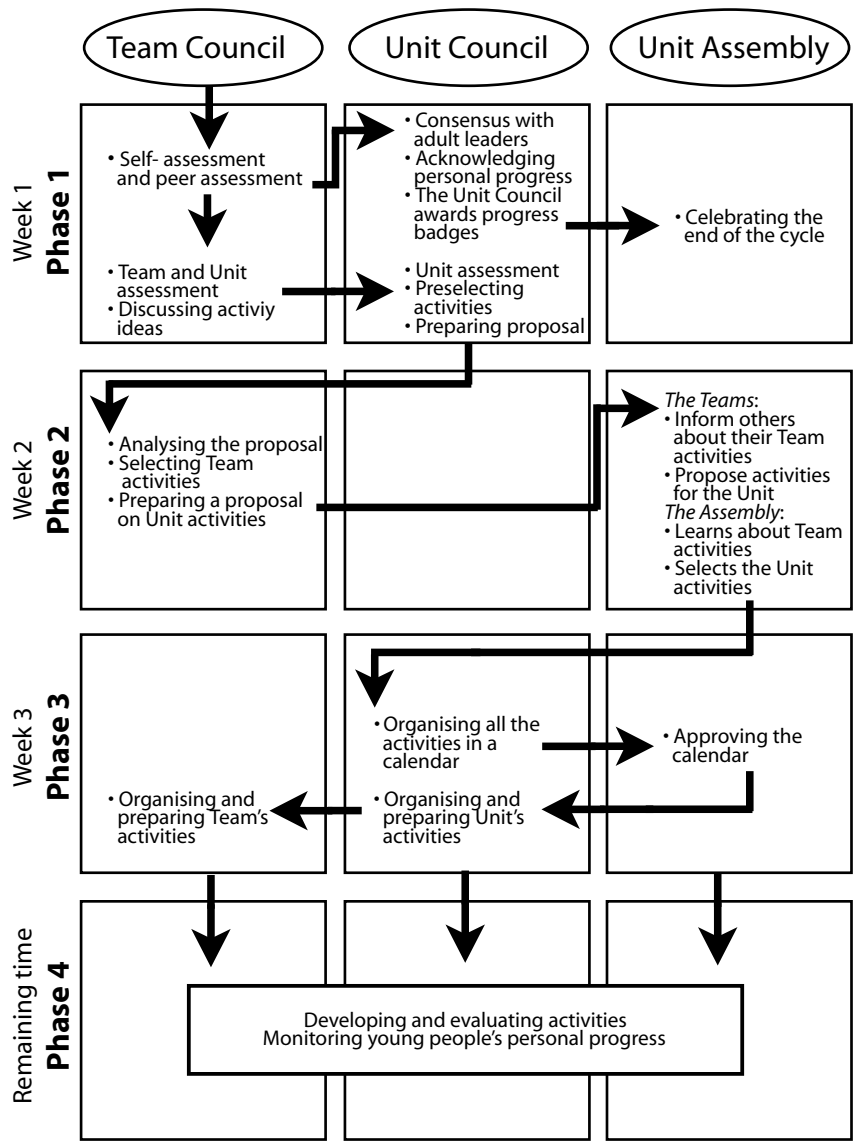
Fig. 2 - The programme cycle process

Notes

1. The Handbook for the Leaders of the Cub-Scout and the Handbook for the Leaders of the Scout Section, Interamerican Scout Office.
2. See TB009 "Educational activities" in RAP Toolbox.

Youth involvement at institutional level
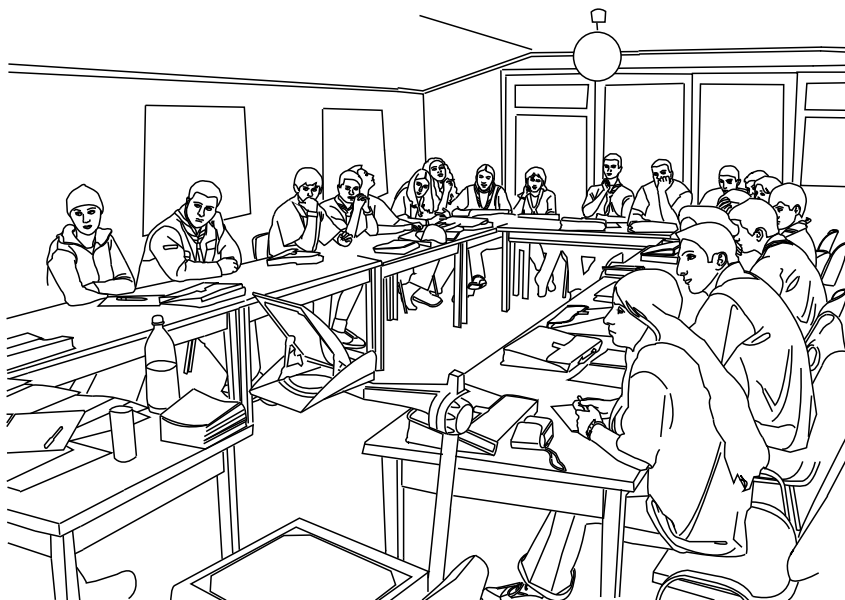
At national and international levels, various systems of youth involvement have been tried out and developed. They correspond to several models of participation.

These systems allow young people to be either:

- *consulted* through "youth forums" which can be established at various levels; or
- *involved in decision-making* through their membership of decision-making bodies at the various levels of the Movement.

1. Challenges

a. Lack of democracy and participation

Our working structures in Scouting are often the same as they were at the beginning of the 20th century. At local, national and world levels, we can be an *old* organization. That can be a quality but it can also be a disadvantage. In this changing world, we need to be able to respond quickly to new trends appearing in the youth world as well as in society. Our communication systems in both

directions between the top and the grassroots should be quick and efficient. We know that this is not always the case.

We need to improve our systems of communication and participation at every level – local, national, regional and world. Ossification happens when top leaders stay too long in a function and become cut off from the reality at the grassroots.

Young leaders, in direct contact with young people, are often aware of the necessity to change our programme in order to respond to new needs, but their voice is not sufficiently listened to; they do not have enough access to decision-making bodies; they do not have enough influence on assessment and decision-making processes.

A tree dies if the sap stops circulating between the roots and the leaves. Without feedback and participation between the grassroots and headquarters, and without efficient cooperation between young leaders and top leaders, an association also dies.

b. Lack of inter-generational cooperation

In some countries, Scouting is not able to counterbalance efficiently the effects of cultural barriers and traditional mind-sets which undermine cooperation between younger people and older people.

This is quite surprising because, from the beginning, the success of Scouting was based largely on

this inter-generational cooperation. The Scout leader, said Robert Baden-Powell, should not assume a hierarchical position, imposing his views from the top:

He has to be neither schoolmaster nor commanding officer, nor pastor, nor instructor. He has to put himself on the level of the older brother, that is, to see things from the youngster's point of view…"; " To be a successful Scoutmaster, a man has simply to be a boy-man, that is:

1) he must have the boy spirit in him and must be able to place himself on a right plane with his boys as a first step;

2) he must realize the needs, outlooks and desires of the different ages of boy life;

3) he must deal with the individual boy rather than with the mass;

4) he then needs to promote a corporate spirit among his individuals to gain the best results.[1]

We all agree that this passage refers to relationships between unit leaders and Scouts. However, can it not also be applied to relationships between experienced top leaders and young leaders?

Unfortunately, there are associations where top leaders are closed in a kind of ivory tower and ignore the needs and expectations of younger leaders.

There are also other associations which are marginalized in society

because young people have taken all the power positions; they lead Scouting but, on account of their youth, they have no link with influential decision-makers in society.

The success of Scouting requires strong and genuine cooperation between young people and older people, real inter-generational cooperation. In Scouting, older people should be the allies of young people in giving them access to responsibilities and the opportunity to have their voices heard.

Youth involvement in decision-making does not require conflicts or war between generations; it just requires an alliance between younger and older people. Obviously, this alliance has to be founded by older people because they hold positions of responsibility. Their role is to create spaces for expression and access to responsibility for young people. That should be done at every level of the Movement.

Adults who work closely with young people are strategically situated to help youth reflect critically upon experience and move them across the continuum of change. At one point on this continuum are people who face problems in their lives but do not believe that change is possible. At another point are people who are aware of problems and participate in the community to a limited or minimal extent without much impact. At still another point are people who perceive that community problems have solutions over which they have control; show confidence in their own abilities; and take decisive actions that produce results. Critical reflection can cause learning that is truly transformational, especially for those who are new to the process.[2]

2.Several models can be implemented

At the institutional level in Scouting, it is not always easy to give young people access to decision-making bodies and responsibilities. However, we need to pursue and diversify our efforts by drawing lessons from failures.

Several models of youth involvement at institutional level exist and should be practised systematically at national, regional and world levels.

a. The youth consultation model

This model can be used to inform young people and consult them on specific issues. The difficulty is to identify and recruit appropriate representatives. If the young people attending the meeting are chosen at random and do not actually represent a larger group of young people, then it will be token consultation.

Good practices could be:

- Consulting patrol leaders of the Scout section at district level. Each Scout unit designates

one or two patrol leaders to attend the meeting to express their ideas on how to improve the Scout programme or how to organize a large event for Scouts. The patrol leaders have a clear responsibility and can speak on behalf of their patrol or unit.

- In each Rover unit of a Scout association, Rovers elect a "youth chairman" to chair the unit assembly. The association organizes a national congress of Rover unit chairmen to inform and consult them on a new programme to be developed for the Rover section. In this example there is no tokenism either because the Rover unit chairmen have a clear role and represent their peers.

- A Scout association organizes a national congress of young adult leaders of the Cub Scout section. Each local group must delegate one leader under the age of 26. Here also, there is no tokenism if the congress is convened far enough in advance to allow proper preparation and delegation by each local team.

It is important to be clear about the place for consultation and information, and how these processes can be maximised. To be effective, consultation requires:

- payment/reimbursement for attendance, wherever possible;

- adequate preparation, so that the issues which need to be explored are clearly identified,

and sufficient time is available to promote the consultation;

- appropriate promotion so that a wide range of young people are reached, which means using youth rather than adult information networks (such as youth publications, youth radio programmes) and youth-friendly techniques such as the Internet;

- priority to be given to young people participating without dominant adult intervention.

The consultation model has several advantages. For example it can be very appealing for young people who are not attracted by formal methods of involvement.

However, it has several limitations (for example it cannot be used on a regular basis, and it is limited to specific topics); therefore it cannot give good results if it is used as the only way of youth involvement in decision-making.

b. The youth advisory committee model

This is a widely used model for involving young people in decision-making, with the committee typically operating as a sub-committee which reports to the main decision-making structure, providing a link between this structure and young people.

It is often used in local government and by large organizations such as non-profit and religious bodies, and is widely used in the secondary school system (in some countries) in the form of student councils.

This is, in some respects, the model used for the World Scout Youth Forum, as this body adopts recommendations, which are then submitted to the World Scout Committee.

The youth advisory committee model holds appeal for young people who are attracted to more formal methods of involvement. Its benefits include providing a youth perspective and the opportunity for participants to develop a range of skills and abilities.

Its procedures are likely to be less formal than those normally associated with formal management structures and are therefore more youth-friendly.

To be effective with those young people who can contribute in this way, this model requires careful attention to selection, recruitment, operating methods and review. For example, it is not easy to recruit young delegates with a very precise profile for the World Scout Youth Forum; therefore the participants have various levels of experience and not all of them are really representative of a large number of young people.

Research has identified that good practice in establishing a youth advisory structure involves:

- allocating the responsibility for planning and establishment to a designated staff or board member; and

- incorporating the youth advisory structure's objectives into overall organizational policy objectives.

Unfortunately, this model is often used exclusively, thereby excluding the majority of young people. Its effectiveness can be magnified if it is designed to work in conjunction with other youth participation strategies. Multiple strategies will capture a wider youth audience and can be mutually reinforcing.

For example, to overcome the limitations of a regional youth forum, the Interamerican Scout Region has launched a *regional youth network* with a number of youth representatives from each national association staying in contact and exchanging information and ideas via the Internet over a long period of time. However, one must ensure that this network has access to the regional committee – in attendance or the ability to propose agenda items and recommendations.

c. The peer education model

This model emphasizes young people's skill development by creating roles for young people in educating their peers. It begins with a detailed training programme for the young educators and is sustained by ongoing support from adults.

This model has been used successfully by health promotion programmes targeting young people. It offers a number of advantages, including:

- reinforcement of the learning process by young people learning from other young people;
- provision of accurate information and skills to young people to be effective educators;
- ensuring that information and skills are pitched at an appropriate level and style; and
- encouraging young people to assume responsibility.

Peer education can be usefully incorporated into training programmes for young people who are appointed to boards and committees by linking them to past or current young members of those bodies. However, it needs to be used carefully because it is not appropriate in all situations.

d. Partnership between young people and adults

Youth participation is about developing partnerships between young people and adults in all areas of life so young people can take a valued position in our society, and the community as a whole, as well as young people being able to benefit from their contribution, ideas and energies.[3]

Meaningful involvement of young people in decision-making relies on effective working relationships between adults and young people (inter-generational cooperation).

When different skills and capacities are recognized and valued for their contribution, and both parties respect the other's expertise, the

basis exists for partnership. Stacey (1997) expresses this concept well in a 'youth-friendly' description of the 'youth partnership accountability' model (see below):

If adults talked more with young people about decisions that have to be made, really listened to young people and their ideas, this would mean they are trying to work in partnership with young people. Partnership is about doing things together. It is about listening to everyone's voice and taking different ideas seriously …. It is about mutual respect.

Two partnership models can be identified: youth partnership accountability and peer research.

Youth partnership accountability

This partnership model sees young people as having significant control over a service or project while adults play a supportive role (Stacey, 1998). It is more or less on this model that the World Scout Bureau launched a system of young project officers: young people are invited to work at the World Scout Bureau to realise a specific project in partnership with a senior executive. Similar systems exist at other levels in national Scout organizations. Some Scout centres (such as the Kandersteg International Scout Centre) employ young volunteers on a similar basis.

Peer research

This partnership approach involves young people as equal partners

with adult professionals valued for their expertise and perspective. As such, it is based on negotiation and mutually acceptable outcomes.

This model can be applied in a variety of ways and can be a feature of other participation strategies. In the case of peer research, it involves young people working as co-researchers with professionals in youth-focused research. This model was used for the research on gender in Scouting conducted by the World Scout Bureau and the European Scout Region. To be effective, the model needs:

- a serious assessment of skills,
- a clear definition of expectations on both sides,
- open negotiation,
- careful recruitment,
- recognition through employment conditions, including pay,
- involvement in all stages from planning to evaluation.

e. Young people in decision-making bodies

In some regions (Europe, Interamerica, Africa) young leaders (under 30) are automatically well represented on national boards and committees.

In some countries, national Scout associations are obliged by law to apply a quota system : for example, two-thirds of national board members must be under 30 years.

Such a system is not appropriate everywhere, particularly when

several quota systems would come into play and compete with each other (age quota versus gender quota versus cultural quota), as could be the case at the level of the World Scout Committee.

However, by combining several models it could be possible to select skilled young people for positions of responsibility and to demonstrate the advantage of involving young people in decision-making bodies. For example, youth networks established at national, regional or world levels could be used as breeding grounds for identifying young people able to contribute to technical sub-committees and then to be elected to boards or committees.

When determining how to involve young people in your organization's decision-making processes, consider the following:

- Do you want to obtain input from as many young people as possible? (If so, explore unstructured methods of involvement.)
- How much ownership do you want young people to feel? (If a significant amount of ownership is sought, then consider more structured methods of involvement.)
- Do you want one-way (if so, pursue unstructured approaches) or two-way (if so, pursue structured approaches) information flow?

- Do you need in-depth (if so, pursue structured approaches) or more superficial (if so, pursue unstructured approaches) exploration of youth issues?
- Do you have the resources to designate specific people to mentor, support and otherwise guide young participants?
- How can you best combine different strategies to achieve the best outcomes for your organization and your young participants?

Notes

1. Robert S.S. Baden-Powell, Aids to Scoutmastership.
2. *Adults as Allies* by Barry Checkoway, School of Social Work. University of Michigan, www.wkkf.org/pubs/YouthED/Pub564.pdf
3. *Youth Participation Handbook.*A Guide for Organisations seeking to involve young people on boards and committees. An initiative of Government of South Australia, office of Employment and Youth. Prepared by Kate Barnett and Associates with the assistance from Julie Sloan Management. Department of Education, Training and Employment. 2000, www.maze.sa.gov.au

Youth involvement within the community

1. What do we mean by "community"?

Community" is a word with many meanings and uses. It is customary to view community as a place in which people live (such as a village or city), or as a population group with similar characteristics (such as rural villagers or older people), or as a group of people with a common concern (such as religious freedom or the status of women). The concept of community is often used but less often defined. When it is defined, it is commonly used as a noun or adjective.

But community is also a process through which people take initiatives and act collectively. It varies from one area to another, but is generally based on the belief that problems in communities have solutions in communities, and that people should participate in the matters that affect them at the local level. So community is more than a noun or adjective, but also a verb that refers to a process of participation, and a means of solutions in society.[1]

2. Challenges

a. Marginalization of young people

In industrialized societies, young people are usually cut off from the realities of their communities. They spend most of their time with their peers, at school, in youth clubs, at summer camp, in front of the TV or playing video games, etc. Young people have to wait longer and longer before having access to responsibilities and adult roles in the community. A century ago young people usually left school and started work when they were 14.

Today, most young people have to wait until they are 22-26 before assuming adult roles.

Besides the positive aspects of that situation (security, education, etc.), there are

also negative aspects: young people often lack knowledge of technical and operational community issues; they have no idea how real society works, how it changes; they suffer from being kept in a situation without responsibilities when they all have the capacities to play a constructive role in the community.

The best youth participation projects are the result of successfully matching the needs of the community and the ability of youth to devote their energies, ingenuity and imagination to meeting those needs.

This ideal match is frequently hard to achieve: parents and other adults working with youth often do not sense the potential of young people to make significant contributions at the community level.

Some of the major causes of this are obvious: young people are segregated in schools where their actions have little direct consequence on others; they are largely cut off from the adult world; and gradual introduction to the world of work is no longer a normal pattern for them.

Consequently, many young people do not develop confidence in their ability to make a difference, and as a result, many adults are even less aware of their potential contribution.[2]

In developing countries, segregation between adults and young people is less generalized. However, unemployment and poverty also tend to marginalize young people.

That marginalization causes many problems – delinquency, drug abuse, suicide – because many young people feel that they cannot find a positive place in society.

Young people are not encouraged to contribute to the development of society. They react by a lack of interest in and motivation for community issues. They are not well prepared to assume an active role in society.

b. Adultism

Moreover, in both industrialized and developing countries, "adultism" is dominant:

'Adultism' refers to all the behaviour and attitudes that emanate from the assumption that adults are better than young people and are entitled to influence young people in many ways without their agreement.

Except for prisoners and a few other institutionalized groups, young people's lives are more controlled than those of any other group in society. In addition, adults reserve the right to punish, threaten, hit, take away "privileges," and ostracize young people when they consider it beneficial for controlling or "disciplining" them.

If this were a description of the way a group of adults were treated, society would quickly recognize it as a form of oppression. Adults, however, generally do not consider adultism to be oppressive because this is the way they themselves were treated as young people; i.e. the process has been internalized.

The essence of adultism is that young people are not respected. Instead, they are less important and, in a sense, inferior to adults. "They cannot be trusted to develop correctly, so they must be taught, disciplined, harnessed, punished, and guided into the adult world. [1]

Adultism is the most important obstacle to youth involvement in the development of the community.

c. Overprotective adults

Other adults, particularly those who are teachers or educators, assume that young people are *vulnerable members of society* who are too often victimized by forces beyond their control. Proponents of this view want to *save the children*, *defend their rights*, and protect them from worsening conditions.

Adults who share that perspective are reluctant to involve young people in community development activities. They express the view that social or environmental problems have to be solved by professional services and not by young people.

This is certainly why, in many industrialized countries, community

development projects are rare and Scouts are involved mainly in recreational activities.

Significantly, in these countries the proportion of adolescents and young adults in Scouting is weak. Adolescents look for adult responsibilities and adult roles; if they cannot find them in Scouting, then they join other organizations.

We should, indeed, be aware that in industrialized countries, a number of youth organizations involve young people in community development activities.

Barry Checkoway[1] quotes several kinds of community projects in which young people are involved in the USA: challenging prejudices and racial discrimination, marching against toxic waste dumps, mobilizing residents against drug abuse in public housing, conducting violence prevention workshops, etc.

d. Adults as allies

Even in the richest countries, communities are facing many problems and young people could benefit from being involved in developing solutions.

The EuroSteps programme launched by the European Scout Region shows many examples where Venture Scouts and Rovers are preventing forest fires, protecting endangered wild species; helping refugees, renovating abandoned houses for the homeless, challenging ethnic hatred, organizing summer camps for underprivileged children, etc.

These kinds of activities are possible everywhere, but they require adult leaders who are able to propose a "real adventure" to young people; working for community change, working for a better world!

Young people are creating community change! They are tutoring in schools, working in health clinics, and serving meals in soup kitchens. They are cleaning up the environment, renovating houses for the homeless, and formulating strategies for neighbourhood revitalization. They are solving problems, planning programmes and involving people in decisions at community level.

But these young people are not working in isolation, without support and encouragement. Some adults are working closely with them and playing various roles in the process – from bringing young people together and giving them encouragement, to nurturing their ideas and building support for their work. These adults view "youth as resources" – as competent citizens who have a right to participate and a responsibility to serve the community.[1]

Unfortunately, there is a "widespread shortage"[1] of adults who are "available for real friendship with young people" and able to play the key role of making room for young people to enjoy real responsibilities and key roles in society.

e. Poor-quality projects, short-term thinking

When Scouting actively involves young people in community development – and this is the case in most developing countries – the quality of projects is sometimes questionable.

It is not enough to multiply the quantity of community development projects and to have as many young people as possible mobilized in these projects.

Some Scout leaders push young people into activities without taking the time to make them understand the causes of the community problem they are being asked to solve: 1,000 Scouts are mobilized and are asked to plant 10,000 trees, but

nobody helps them to discover the causes of deforestation, and nobody explains to them how to involve the community in respecting and protecting trees.

In other cases, *adults steer youth into a few safe strategies rather than challenging ones… Adults encourage youth to sweep the streets rather than protest to the sanitation department, or .. to tutor in schools rather than challenge inequities in education.*[1]

Scouting is an educational movement, not a development agency; therefore, when dealing with community development projects, it faces a double challenge:

1. Community involvement projects should provide young people with a learning process. Adult leaders should "help young people reflect critically upon experience" and discover the connections between issues, explain the root causes of problems and clarify the choices to be made. They should help young people identify and try out the "Continuum of change" for themselves.

2. Scout associations should not make the mistake of developing short-term solutions only. In an emergency situation, the first reaction is to respond to the most urgent problem and to develop short-term solutions focused on symptoms.

In a country where there has been an outbreak of violence between two communities, the Scouts will be mobilized to help in the refugee camps. This is a short-term response required by the emergency situation. However the long-term response (more efficient) would be to integrate life-skills training into the Scout programme to enable young people to challenge ethnic prejudices and manage conflicts. In accordance with its mission, the Scout Movement should give priority to long-term educational solutions.

3. What to do?

a. Young people room for responsibility and experience in the community

It is the mission of Scouting and other youth organizations to open up "spaces" in society, at local, national and international levels, for young people to express their views and to take part in community development activities.

- Scouting should work with other youth organizations to persuade authorities at local, national and international levels about the interest and usefulness of involving young people in community development activities.

- Scouting should promote and develop various activities (visits, explorations, surveys,

etc.) enabling young people to discover the community (at local, national and international levels) and to assess needs. These activities should train young people to reflect critically on experience (see the connections between issues, explain the root causes of problems, clarify the choices to be made) and to think about the process of change (What needs changing in the community? What would the ideal community look like? Why is there a gap between the real and the ideal?).

- Through Scouting, young people should have the opportunity to take part in various youth platforms to discuss youth-policy matters and propose changes and improvements to community authorities at local, national and international levels.

- Scouting should develop partnerships with development agencies and other non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in order to achieve two crucial objectives: (1) develop its expertise in various areas of community development; (2) make its partners recognize its specific field of action (education) and avoid being involved in activities where young people are just used as manpower.

b. Develop various approaches and strategies adapted to young people

In industrialized countries, Scouting meets some difficulties in providing community development opportunities for young people. In developing countries, Scouting, because it is often one of the rare organizations implanted all over the country, receives too many requests for involving young people in a wide diversity of actions.

In both cases, we need to identify and promote promising practices in community involvement, e.g. activities where young people can make a difference, which have a high educational potential and which do not present the risk of moving Scouting away from its mission.

Barry Checkoway[1] identifies several strategies of community development which can be more or less adapted to the nature of Scouting:

- *Mass mobilization: a*massing individuals around issues through highly visible public demonstrations, such as when they plan demonstrations against racial discrimination.

  This kind of activity is usually not well adapted to the nature of Scouting because it can involve the Movement in political disputes and also because it does have high potential for individual

training. However, some good practices can be quoted, for example the demonstration organized by the Italian Scout Movement in Palermo (Italy) some years ago to mobilize people against the Mafia.

- *Grassroots organizing*: empowering local groups facing social or environmental issues.

  For example, challenging ethnic prejudices or violence at school, improving the environment, preventing car accidents, preventing AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases, etc.

  These activities can be developed in small groups, according to the Scout method, and have high educational potential.

- *Citizen participation*: representing people in committees and meetings of community agencies, such as when they have a seat on the school board or city planning commission.

  Representing the Movement on this kind of platform can be a challenging and very educational experience for a young person, provided that he or she is well prepared to offer Scouting's experience, to collect relevant information and to contribute to valuable decisions.

- *Public advocacy:* representing group interests in legislative or other institutional arenas, such as when they lobby legislators to show support for youth programmes.

  This is generally not an activity that Scouting organizes by itself, but it can take part in similar activities through youth platforms (for example the European Youth Forum, where Scouting has a high profile).

- *Popular education:* raising consciousness and strengthening confidence through small group meetings, such as when they educate themselves about the root causes of poverty (or other problems), and discuss alternative solutions.

  This should be the privileged field of community involvement for Scouting, particularly because it corresponds to its usual type of activity and has high educational potential.

- *Local services development*: providing services of their own at community level, such as helping at a child care centre or tutoring children in maths.

  This is a field of activity particularly well adapted to the older section (Rovers).

There are many examples of good practices in community development experienced at local, national or international levels. National Scout organizations and

the World Organization of the Scout Movement (WOSM) should extend its efforts to promote and disseminate these promising practices. It is particularly important to highlight not only the action but also the critical reflection upon experience made by young people and how the activity has contributed to personal development:

- improving academic achievement by increasing the substantive knowledge and practical skills that come from "real life" problem-solving;
- strengthening social responsibility and long-term civic values;
- developing capacity to set priorities, make decisions and plan collective projects;
- developing a sense of belonging and solidarity;
- developing intercultural learning;
- etc.

c. Recruit and train adult leaders able to become "allies of young people"

Able to discover and assess the assets of youth

Many adults see young people as *potential victims* ("we need to protect them") or *potential sources of problems* ("we need to control them").

We need to find and recruit (particularly for the older sections) adults able to consider young people as *potential resources* for the community, e.g. competent citizens with a right to participate and a responsibility to serve their communities.

These adults will be able to establish positive relationships with young people, make a "capacity inventory" of the assets of young people and help them to identify and develop their potential.

Young people, often unconsciously, yearn for a relationship with an adult who could be trusted with confidential information, lend a hand, provide guidance and reassurance, and lift adolescent depression with caring confidence.

Adults who possess authority, give approval, and become real friends to young people can have unexpected influence. Frequently, adults are surprised at how little intervention it takes to establish a significant relationship with young people, and to be embraced as a 'mother', 'father', or 'mentor'. [1]

Able to empower young people and to implement leadership development

Adult leaders should be trained to "empower young people".

"Youth empowerment" is more than "youth involvement". Generally speaking, empowerment is a process in which a person or community gives or gets power from another. Actually, power is not a thing that you can have or not, give or receive. Power is not outside the person or the community. Power should

be viewed rather as a potential resource in every person or community.

Regarding empowerment, Checkoway[1] reminds us of the story of the Wizard of Oz:

The Cowardly Lion asks the Wizard for courage. Eventually, the Wizard gives a ribbon to the Lion, signifying courage. When the Lion looks at the ribbon, he believes he has power; when he feels this way, he also acts this way. But, as the Wizard remarks, "I don't know why people always ask me for what they already have.

This remark can be applied to empowerment: every young person potentially has the power to participate in and contribute to community development. Adult leaders should help them discover that they have this power.

Many young people, particularly those who are members of an ethnic or cultural minority, have never experienced this potential power. On the contrary, they have been told that they are less important than adults, without any right to make decisions, subject to control from parents, vulnerable to punishment and abuse, limited in their legal rights, etc. Therefore, a positive effort is needed to help them discover that they have the power to participate and to lead.

This effort is called "leadership development": *a process which builds on the young people's assets and provides young people with experiences that counteract situations of invalidations and inequality.* Leadership development empowers young people.

The key elements of leadership development are:

- *Nurturing relationships*: before taking on responsibility for the well-being of others, we need to feel well cared-for ourselves. We learn best from others who love us. To be successful in our personal development, we need a mentor, a friend, a counsellor supporting and encouraging us.

- *Identifying individual potential*: the potential for leadership is often not obvious. Sometimes, the most aggressive leaders have some negative characteristics associated with their dominance and those who are less outspoken, less popular, less assertive, may have better potential.

- *Emphasizing accomplishments*: the tasks in which young people are involved for the benefit of the community should have significant and visible results. Adult leaders should propose high standards of achievement to young people in order to obtain clear recognition from the community.

- *Correcting academic deficiencies*: skills development workshops should be proposed to help young leaders acquire capacities that they were not

able to get at school: oral expression, written expression, how to lead a group discussion, how to define objectives and set up an action plan, how to report, etc.

- *Broadening the scope of activities*: leadership development should not be limited to experiences in Scouting. Leadership training should be given in a manner which makes it applicable outside the Movement: at school, university, in professional life, and at the service of the community.

- *Involvement in real world issues*: any problem at the level of the local community has a link with some global issues. Young people must discover this link. The motto should be "act locally, think globally". Young people should be encouraged not to limit their vision to their own community. Experience starts at home, but vision should go beyond the borders of the neighbourhood. The international network of the Scout Movement can be used to achieve that objective (international contacts, twinning, etc.)

c. High priority to programmes for adolescents and young adults

When discussing with Scout leaders, we sometimes get the feeling that our Movement is far too self-centred. Indeed, some

adult leaders present their action as if the purpose of Scouting is to produce Scout leaders. Every time a Rover is reaching the end of the Scout programme, the first proposal he/she receives is that of becoming an adult Scout leader.

We should be more aware of the simple fact that the value of a Scout association is measured by its capacity to "put on the market" of civil society every year a certain number of young people who have the motivation and skills to take responsibilities in the community. If this number goes from several hundred to several thousands, Scouting will give better service to society and its success and influence will grow.

That is why we need to make a clear distinction between short-term objectives and long-term objectives in the field of community involvement.

Let us take an example: in a developing country, a Scout association is keen to contribute to solving the growing problem of streetchildren. The association developed the idea of opening community crèches in order to help mothers take care of young children from 2-3 years old.

Such a project probably meets the needs of the community; however it risks moving Scouting away from its specific mission. Developing activities for small children is not part of the Scout programme.

The solution, in this case, would be

to propose this project to Rovers who are on the point of leaving the Movement. With the leadership capacities they have acquired in Scouting, they should be able to create a new NGO which will undertake this action.

Involving young people with leadership capacities in the development of the community is certainly the ultimate goal of Scouting.

Notes

1. *Adults as Allies* by Barry Checkoway, School of Social Work. University of Michigan, www.wkkf.org/pubs/YouthED/Pub564.pdf
2. US National Commission on Resources for Youth, 1978.

tool box / *boite à outils*

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