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SOS Children's Villages Literature Review: The Social Exclusion of Vulnerable Youth

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Literature Review

1. Introduction

This literature review report is written on behalf of SOS Children's Villages Netherlands as part of a bigger research project, commissioned by SOS and carried out by the Amsterdam Institute of Social Science Research (AISSR) at the University of Amsterdam on the topic of **Social Exclusion of Vulnerable Youth**. In a broader framework of knowledge development in the field of social inclusion and exclusion of vulnerable children and youth, SOS Children's Villages Netherlands (SOS) and the University of Amsterdam (UvA) jointly developed a research proposal to conduct a longer-term study on the social exclusion of vulnerable youth, including: children and youth at risk of losing parental care and of children and youth who have lost parental care. The research is to be conducted over a period of two years in the period 1st of January 2016 to 31st of December 2017.

The literature review study was carried out in January-February 2016 and is the first product that this research project delivers (*Work package 1*). It aims to take stock of and summarize the international research literature that is available on the subject matter. The literature review will feed into the identification of knowledge gaps and subsequent research design, including its theoretical and methodological approach. The literature review covered 38 studies, including 20 empirical studies, 11 policy review papers, 6 literature reviews and 1 presentation. The search terms comprised of: social exclusion, youth, young people, care leavers, vulnerable, and employability. Since there is a global lack of research on children and youth of at risk of/having lost parental care, the literature review covered the broader literature on 'vulnerable youth'. The preliminary outcomes of the literature review were presented at SOS Children's Villages Netherlands in Amsterdam on 12 February 2016.

The remainder of the report is outlined as follows. Section 2, summarizes the conceptual debates on 'social exclusion', which is followed by the discussion on 'vulnerable youth' in section 3. Section 4 provides an overview of the principal 'mechanisms' driving social exclusion of vulnerable youth. Within this section a distinction is made 'drivers' and 'outcomes' of social exclusion, although the two are interlinked. Section 5 outlines the different methodologies used to conduct empirical research on social exclusion of vulnerable youth in different countries and contexts, and section 6 summarizes the recommendations made for policy and action in the research literature. In the two annexes of this report, a tabled overview of the main research literature findings is presented (Annex I) as well as the annotated bibliography (Annex II). The complete literature list is included at the end of this report.

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Amsterdam, 23 February 2016

2. Defining social exclusion

Social exclusion is a multi-dimensional and dynamic concept (Beall and Piron, 2005, p.5). This means that social exclusion is best studied as a complex process. For example, Gaetz (2004, p. 428) proclaims that 'social exclusion' is about the interaction of individual personal histories and social, political, and economic conditions that restrict access. Chirwa (2002) defines social exclusion as a process that constitutes of a "multi-dimensional character of deprivation and the processes, mechanisms and institutions that exclude people" (p.95). An apparent sign of social exclusion is the inability to participate in key societal activities, through no fault of the individual (Alston and Kent 2009, p. 93).

Rather than looking at circumstantial factors alone, many argue in favour of considering social exclusion as a broad-based structural phenomenon (Alston and Kent, 2009; Beall and Piron, 2005; Colley, 2003; Gaetz, 2004; Thompson, 2011). This structural phenomenon can create social inequalities that are passed on from one generation to the other (Susinos, 2007, p. 118). Those who are socially excluded share similar social, economic and political barriers and constraints, and lack security, justice and economic opportunities in life in general (Berkman, 2007). Importantly, young people do not always recognise these structural factors and instead blame themselves for being socially excluded (Alston and Kent, 2009, p. 93). Rights-based approaches to the study of social exclusion tend to emphasize the lack of entitlements (e.g. in the form of written and unwritten rules and regulations) and political rights as shaping the process of social exclusion and marginalisation (e.g. see YEU, 2013).

Social exclusion is by some studies seen as a relative problem, more than an absolute problem (Colley, 2001, p. 8). This means that there are two sides to the story and social exclusion may lead to self-exclusion and *vice versa* (Chirwa, 2002). Where social exclusion of particular groups of people is systematic and persistent over time, studies speak of 'discrimination' (e.g. DfID, 2005, p.3).

There is an increasing awareness in the recent literature that the social exclusion of vulnerable youth is an emergent problem, arising out of the relationship between social change and social inequality (Savelsberg and Martin-Giles, 2008, p. 21; Paolini, 2013) and ideology (Thompson, 2011). As such, social exclusion of vulnerable youth poses multiple challenges to present and future social stability and cohesion.

3. Defining vulnerable youth

Youth (in general) is described as a life phase or transition between childhood and adulthood (Barnardos, 2006; Bynner and Parsons, 2002; Frimpong Manso, 2012; HM Government, 2013; Johnston et al, 2000; Raffo and Reeves, 2000; Stein, 2006). This transition is accompanied by a transformation of childhood social markers into adulthood markers. For example, the transition from education to professional training and employment, or the transition from living as a dependent family member to living independently (Johnston et al, 2000, p. 3). Honwana (2014, p. 1) defines youth as a phase of 'waithood' - the period of suspension between childhood and adulthood, where access to adulthood is delayed or denied.

Vulnerable youth is defined differently in different contexts. Relative social-economic (e.g. class) and discriminatory (e.g. race, religion, disability) factors are often mentioned in developed countries, (absolute) poverty, migration, ill-health (e.g. HIV-Aids orphans) and conflict are more often mentioned in a developing country context. Some studies speak of 'disadvantaged' or 'marginalised' youth, instead of vulnerable youth. In the United Kingdom, where comparatively more studies on the topic have been done, the term 'NEET' (Not-in-Employment-Education-or-Training) is strongly associated with vulnerable youth (Bynner and Parsons, 2002; Thompson, 2011).

Young people coming from a care background ('care leavers') are defined as vulnerable youth. These young people experience much shorter and quicker transitions from childhood to adulthood, where when they reach a certain age they lose their social support and immediately have to find employment and accommodation (Frimpong Manso, 2012; HM Government, 2013, p.4; Stein, 2006, p.3). They have to do this without the social, emotional and financial support young people from stable families or communities have and have no time or space to make mistakes. In Ghana and Kenya it is also highlighted that young care leavers make these transitions without the skills and knowledge needed to engage in the wider community and live independently (Frimpong Manso, 2012, pp. 349 - 350; Ucembe, 2013, p.30). When youth experience significant difficulties or delays during this transition face, they are more likely to turn to alternative lifestyles, be susceptible to exploitation, drug use, violence or crime (Berkman, 2007; HM Government 2013, p.16).

The definition of 'vulnerable youth' is thus highly contextual. The number of 'vulnerable youth' may be growing in developing countries that experience rapid population growth without poverty reduction at the bottom end of the distribution, especially in countries in sub-Saharan Africa. An increasing amount of 'vulnerable youth' may also be residing in cities (e.g. Sommers 2010), making vulnerable youth increasingly an urban phenomenon in countries that experience rapid urbanization and population growth.

4. The mechanisms of social exclusion

In the literature, there is an analytical distinction made between the 'drivers' or 'risk factors' associated with social exclusion and 'outcomes'. The two are closely inter-connected, overlapping and mutually reinforcing. What are 'outcomes' (e.g. being unemployed) at some point may become 'drivers' themselves in a later stage of life.

4.1 Drivers of social exclusion
- o Drivers of social exclusion include childhood risks (ill health, disability, malnutrition, neglect, abuse, lack of pre-school education and socialization), family risks (breakdown, parental absence, instability, low aspirations), social-cultural (lack of social support/network, minority, class, gender, ethnicity, religion, race, stigmatization), economic (poverty, employment, living conditions) and political risks (lack of rights, lack of voice in decision making, discrimination, inequality embedded in formal and informal institutions) (AIHW, 2012; Alston and Kent, 2009; Bynner, 2001; Bynner and Parsons, 2002; Gaetz, 2004; Morrow, 2001; Susinos, 2008; Thompson, 2011; YEU, 2013; Partos, 2015).

- Most frequently discussed in (Western) literature are the risks of poor education(al attainment) and lack of employment opportunities (Johnston et al, 2000; Jamet, 2007; Minguez, 2013). However, this focus might be a result of political agendas. Change/lack of residential status or migration is also mentioned as driving social exclusion in Western countries (Paolini, 2013, pp. 9-11). Furthermore, in urban contexts, living in an inner-city environment close to criminal activities poses several childhood risks - especially to boys. For girls, the risks are more often parents who are not interested in girls' education (Bynner and Parsons, 2002), leading to poor workforce participation.
- In literature on developing countries, (urban) poverty, overcrowding and dilapidated homes, geography (remoteness), poor nutrition and health, lack of education, underemployment and overrepresentation of youth in the informal sector are all mentioned (DfID, 2005; Marrock, 2008; Okojie, 2003; Sommers, 2012).
- There is an important interplay between structure and agency, where excluded young people often are bounded in their agency (abilities and ambitions) by structures (e.g. see Alston and Kent, 2009; Beall and Piron, 2005; Colley, 2003; Raffo and Reeves 2000). These structures can work against young people, for example, as in the case of care leavers, who face negative attitudes, prejudice and stigmatization on the side of educators, social workers, employers and the wider community (Jackson and Cameron, 2009; Ucembe, 2013). This is why leaving care is also signalled as a potential driver of social exclusion itself, and the focus of some few studies (e.g. Barnardos, 2006; Chirwa, 2002; HM Government, 2013; Jackson and Cameron, 2009; Stein, 2006; Ucembe, 2013).
- Some literature puts emphasis on a broader systems failure, especially due to the individualisation of social systems, as driver of youth social exclusion where youth are 'failed by the system' (e.g. Alston and Kent, 2009; Barnardos, 2006; Raffo and Reeves, 2000; Shucksmith, 2004).

4.2 Outcomes of social exclusion

- The transition from childhood to adulthood of vulnerable youth is typically delayed/disrupted/stopped. This is particularly true for care leavers who do not have the necessary support (family, financial) to guide them through 'waithood'. Their transition phase is abrupt, with hardly any time, space and money to try, fail and learn (Barnardos, 2006; Frimpong Manso, 2012; Honwana, 2014; Hook, 2010 HM Government, 2013, p.4; Stein, 2006, p.3).
- Social exclusion leads to further and deeper social exclusion, where social exclusion in one part of life often leads to exclusion in subsequent stages of life. For example, Bynner (2001, p.289) asserts that childhood risk factors build-up over time, and can have a cross-generational effect, becoming cyclical. Furthermore, excluded young people have no one to turn to (neither family nor institutions).
- The experience and/or expectation of social exclusion can lead to self-exclusion because young people may internalize social exclusion or blame themselves for their exclusion, rather than attributing their exclusion to structural determinants (Alston and Kent, 2009. P.93; Paolini, 2013, p.7; Ucembe, 2013, p.31.)

- Self-exclusion by young people also has a cognitive dimension, whereby certain cognitive abilities to establish relationships with others/institutions, decline or remain underdeveloped (Baumeister et al, 2012).
- Excluded young people, especially those unable to find employment, resort to improvised livelihoods. This blurs the lines between legal and illegal (Berkman, 2007, p.17) and makes the dichotomy between employed and unemployed redundant (Sommers, 2010, p.322). Excluded young people often live in groups, are homeless, and/or work in the informal sector (AIHW, 2012; Gaetz, 2004; Okojie, 2003; Berkman, 2007; Sommers, 2010).
- The inability to deal with social institutions and a lack of resources leads youth to resort to crime and violence (especially young men). This may be done in order to survive, to fit in (such as stealing clothes in order feel like everyone else) or to express resentment (Savelsberg and Martin-Giles, 2008). Berkman (2007) highlights in Latin America that crime and violence are also used to gain social status, higher income and a wider influence when the normal routes to achieving these are not available. This leads to the wider exclusion of communities who become associated with crime and violence (Berkman 2007 in Latin America; DfID 2005 in Jamaica).
- Young people turn to drug use as a coping mechanism - leading to further social and self-exclusion (Jackson and Cameron, 2009, p. 1; Savelsberg and Martin-Giles, 2008, p.26).
- In the UK studies on NEET, higher-level outcomes in terms of a poorer workforce are highlighted (Bynner and Parsons, 2002; Thompson, 2011).

5. Methodology

Social exclusion of vulnerable youth is an emerging topic in the social science literature; there is a general lack of longitudinal and cross-comparison data derived from studies with a similar research design. Jackson and Cameron (2009) do make some comparisons across Europe, but working with different existing datasets and literature. Europe, the UK, Australia, the US and South Africa are relative leaders on the topic, but put different emphases. Vulnerable youth, and care leavers in particular, are hard to find in institutional records or databases and little systematic research has been done yet. We have not come across any cross-country comparative studies.

The methodologies used for doing research on the topic are mostly qualitative in design, with 'youth' being the prime unit of analysis. In addition to young people, some studies include interviews with parents, teachers, companies and NGOs and other stakeholders. In-depth interviews, short life histories, semi-structured interviews and focus groups are the methods used for data collection. Data analysis is often mixed, using both objective and subjective data. In a few exceptional cases, in studies on Australia, UK and Spain, there is survey data available and quantitative analysis is performed on a larger sample (AIHW, 2012; Barnardos, 2006; Bynner and Parsons, 2002; Minguez, 2013). 'Care leavers' are largely absent in institutional databases and in research, with a few exceptions (e.g. Barnardos, 2006; Bown et al, 2014; Hook, 2010). There is one experimental study on the US exploring the interaction between social exclusion of youth and cognitive processing (Baumeister et al, 2002).

6. Solutions

Policy review literature often focuses on improving the education and vocational training of vulnerable youth. Vulnerable youth are 'diagnosed' to lack certain knowledge, skills and other attributes, especially the skills needed to be in training or employed in accordance to their education and personal ambitions. Policies and projects are then designed to fill in this deficiency, seeking to enhance the educational attainment or employability skills of youth (e.g. HM Government 2013; ILO, 2013; Jamet 2007; Souto-Otero, et al 2012).

Such an approach is criticised in the academic literature because it proceeds from the underlying assumption that social exclusion is caused by the (deficient) attributes of the young person him/herself, thus failing to take into account the wider societal structures and institutions that have caused and will continue to cause social exclusion ('failed by the system') (Colley, 2001; Colley, 2003; Thompson, 2011).

Beall and Piron (2005, p.14) emphasize that 'inclusion' is not always the answer. One should apply the notions of social in- and exclusion more dynamically. There is always the right not to be included, or remain a minority if this is freely chosen. Policymakers and social organizations should therefore train themselves to keep envisioning solutions beyond the social exclusion framework.

Annex I - Summary table of literature

Article	Country	Youth group	Findings	Methodologies	Theories and concepts
Alston and Kent 2009 – Generation X-pendable	Australia	Rural Youth, indigenous youth	Policies and structures impact experiences but collective problems dealt with individually and self-blame. Rural Youth lack employment and education. Market, bureaucratic, associative and communal relations are breaking down and effecting the exclusion of young people.	Qualitative interviews and focus groups with young people, teachers parents and other stakeholders	Reimer's (2004) notion of the social relations underpinning social exclusion: Market, bureaucratic, associative and communal. Erosion of these demonstrates Social exclusion and systems failure. Social exclusion as the inability to participate in key societal activities through no fault of the individual.
Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2012. Children and young people at risk of social exclusion	Australia	Neglected Children	Strong relationship between child abuse and neglect, homelessness and criminal activity	Policy Review, quantitative data analysis	Child abuse and neglect, homelessness, juvenile justice
Barnardos 2006 – Failed by the system	UK	Care Leavers	YP in care consistently underachieve in education resulting in exclusion later in life. Bullied as a result of being in care, treated differently in school, teachers assume they are uninterested/trouble makers/	Survey of 66 young people who had been in care (aged 16-21), national survey of parents/cares of children not in care.	Transitions to adulthood

Baumeister et al 2002 - Social Exclusion & cognitive processes	US	All	Decline in cognitive ability amongst those expecting social exclusion	Experimental study	Link between "social belongingness" and intellectual thought/cognitive processing.
Beall and Piron 2005 DFID Social Exclusion Review	Developing Countries	All	(Paper on implementation of Social Exclusion Framework in DFID's work)	Policy paper	Social exclusion as multidimensional and dynamic framework for analysis. Examines causes and impact of disadvantage, focuses on structures and processes.
Berkman 2007. Social exclusion and violence in Latin America and the Caribbean	Latin America	Marginalised, youth gangs, street children	Inability to depend on institutions results in the minority of excluded people (usually males) using violence as instrument to achieve outcomes. The further excludes those who are already excluded and do not use violence through the creation of no-go areas and geographical discrimination. Socially excluded youth in difficult transitions result to violence or crime to overcome obstacles and survive.	Empirical literature review	Social exclusion – lack of security, justice and economic opportunities. Social exclusion fuels violence for justice, security, authority and economic gain.
Bown, Harflett & Gitsham 2014– Embedding inclusive practices	UK	All	Exclusion due to health, care leavers, cultural background, sexual orientation, residence. To ensure inclusion, must engage, empower, give up control, support excluded yp	Scoping review, call for information and examples of effective approaches for participation, learning exchange meeting.	Disadvantaged/excluded young people – those who may not have had access to opportunities to participate.
Bynner 2001 – childhood risk and protective factors	UK	All	Risk Factors of social exclusion: Childhood risks, economic risks, family risk and social risks Disabled, lack of family support,	Literature Review	Risk and prevention models. Social exclusion has a cumulative, cross-generational effect.

			poverty, inner-city living.		
Bynner and Parsons 2002 – Social exclusion and the transition from school to work	UK	NEET	NEET likely with poor educational achievement, living in an inner city housing estate for boys and having parents uninterested in education for girls. Effects: poor workforce engagement (men), early marriage, dissatisfaction with life, feeling of lack of control (women)	Quantitative analysis of longitudinal study.	Youth transitions in changing times. Human capital may not be sufficient for a fulfilling adult life, also need social capital, cultural capital. All three combined can be considered identity capital.
Chirwa 2002 – Social exclusion and inclusion Malawi	Malawi	Orphaned children	HIV/AIDS casing rising number of destitute orphans. Family and support services developing adaptive capabilities. Success/failure of orphan care system depends on age, gender and number of losses of child and economic status of caregiver.	Literature Review/Qualitative	Social exclusion and self-exclusion related. Social exclusion a process constituting "multi-dimensional character of deprivation and the processes, mechanisms and institutions that exclude people" Orphanhood – social and economic process, beyond biological situation.
Colley 2001 – Problems with Bridging the gap	UK	Excluded young people	Exclusion caused by inequalities in class, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, disability and place of address. Increasing workforce participation and education levels does not always result in inclusion.	Analysis of "Bridging the Gap" paper by the UK Government	Bourdieu's social capital. Social exclusion as relative.
Colley 2003 – Engagement mentoring for socially excluded youth	UK & EU	Socially excluded	Engagement mentoring seeks to re-engage socially excluded to labour market by altering attitudes, values and beliefs but ignores power of structures and institutions.	Case studies	Bourdieu's habitus

DFID 2005 – Reducing poverty by tackling social exclusion	Developing countries	Poor	Exclusion deliberate and unintentional Exclusion due to ethnicity, race, religion, sexual orientation, caste, descent, gender, age, disability, HIV status, migrant status or spatial exclusion Social exclusion causes poverty and can lead to conflict.	Policy Document	Social exclusion a process by which certain groups are systematically disadvantaged because they are discriminated against.
Frimpong Manso 2012 – Preparation for young people leaving care.	Ghana	Care Leavers	Youth receive preparation for leaving care from SOS mothers, youth facilities and secondary boarding school. Need preparation on housing issues, managing finances and cultural skills. Barriers to preparation are lack of supervision and guidance and lack of decision making power.	Qualitative case studies of 27 young people.	Young people from care face shorter transitions to adulthood
Gaetz 2004 – Safe Streets for Whom	Canada	Homeless	Exclusion: no accommodation, employment, safety, social networks. Victims of crime. Exacerbated by structural features.	Surveys and interviews with homeless young people	Social exclusion explores interaction of individual personal histories and social, political, and economic conditions that restrict access.
HM Government 2013 – Care Leavers Strategy	UK	Care Leavers	Young people leaving care face quicker and shorter transitions to adulthood leading to exclusion. Care leavers - long term unemployment, homelessness victims and perpetrators of crime, poor health, lack of access to services. Broad areas of concern for care leavers are education, employment, finance, health, housing, justice and support.	Review of Government policy.	Children from care have "abrupt transitions to adulthood"

Honwana 2014 Waithood, Restricted Futures and Youth Protests in Africa	Africa	Young Africans	Majority of young Africans are living in waithood Waithood, economic and social pressures an marginalisation leading to protest Need systematic transformation.	(Presentation)	"Waithood" – period of suspension between childhood and adulthood, where access to adulthood is delayed or denied.
Hook 2010 – Employment of former foster youth	US	Care Leavers	Black youth more likely to be unemployed that white Care leavers – lower income Neglect – higher unemployment, lower social support Traditional foster family – higher employment. Correlation with educational attainment and employment	Utilise data from longitudinal study of 732 young people from foster care	Human capital, social capital and personal capital are important for employment and these can be hindered by foster care.
ILO 2013 – Enhancing Employability	Global	All	Core skills for employability: Learning to learn, communication, teamwork, problem-solving. Policy challenges: securing jobs, accessing education, opportunities to develop skills, recognising skills developed out of work.	(Policy brief)	Employability skills – "portable competencies and qualifications" to make use of education and secure and retain work
Jackson and Cameron 2009 - Unemployment education and social exclusion	EU	Care leavers	Poor educational attainment of care leavers due to structures, care system & attitudes of social workers	Literature review, surveys of local authorities and child protection	
Jamet 2007 – Combatting Poverty and	France	All	Concentrations of social exclusion and poverty major challenge. Need changes in education, labour	Policy review	Social exclusion leads to increased insecurity and criminality. Inequality most damaging when passes from

Social Exclusion in France			market, housing, urban planning , anti-discrimination policies and social services Employment as main source of social inclusion.		generation resulting in unequal opportunities.
Johnston et al. 2000 - Snakes and Ladders	UK	Low socio-economic status	Structural factors, esp. socioeconomic conditions shape choices. Need to keep YP in school.	Interviews with stakeholders and yp, participant observation	Social exclusion discourse. Coping strategies Youth transitions
Marrock 2008 – Youth employability	South Africa	Unemployed	Education raises employment rates but educational programs must do more to increase employability. Capabilities associated with employability; technology, teamwork, communication, initiative, self-management, learning, planning, problem solving.	Interviews with companies and NGOs and teachers.	Two dimensions of employability: willingness and capacity. Need to obtain, maintain and find new employment
Minguez 2013 – Employability in Spain	Spain	Unemployed	Cause of youth unemployment due to education and labour market deficiencies	Quantitative analysis	Institutionalised individualism Model of Life course regimes
Morrow 2001 – Explanations and experience of social exclusion	UK	Excluded young people.	YP's relationships important to their sense of belonging and identity formation.	Qualitative research methods and structured activities. Written accounts, visual methods, group discussions.	Bourdieu – cultural capital, social capital and symbolic capital.
Okojie 2003 – Employment Creation for Youth in Africa	Africa	Females	Workforce participation lower for women. Face restraints including customary laws and norms, gender bias and time poverty Majority of yp in informal sector Unemployment leading to "street	Literature and Policy Review	Feminisation of poverty

			youth" and "gangsterism" Evidence of successful initiatives.		
Paolini 2013 Youth Exclusion	EU	All	Determinants of social exclusion: 1) Discrimination (actual and perceived) 2) Lack of residency or legal status 3) Low levels of education and school exclusion 4) Poverty and unemployment	Review of existing literature and surveys	Analytical differentiation between aspects and determinants of social exclusion Process-oriented nature of exclusion
Partos 2015 – Leave noone behind!	Developing countries	Ultra-poor	Ultra-poor consistently socially excluded as a result of stigmatisation due to age, ethnicity, economic status, gender, geography, health, race, religion etc.	Programme document	Relationship between exclusion and poverty. Graduation approach and the community approach for inclusive development
Raffo and Reeves 2000– Youth Transitions and social exclusion	UK	Excluded	4 types of individualised systems of social capital: weak, strong, changing and fluid.	Interviews	Individualised systems of social capital - dynamic, social, spatially, culturally, temporally and economically embedded group, network, or constellation of social relations, which has the young person at the core of the constellation and which provides opportunities for learning.
Savelsberg and Martin-Giles 2008 - Young people on the margins	Australia	Rural youth.	Economic, social and individual aspects of exclusion. Those excluded are also neglected and be subject to punitive punishments.	Purposeful selection, semi-structured interviews with young people and service providers.	Social exclusion as an emergent phenomenon The relationship between social change and social inequality Policy creates socially excluded places and populations. MacDonald and Marsh (2005) six features that characterise social exclusion
Shucksmith 2004 – Young People and Social exclusion	EU	Rural youth	Importance of labour market opportunities, educational credentials and family and friends networks in providing information	Literature Review	Social exclusion and inclusion as overlapping spheres of integration: private systems, state systems, voluntary systems, family and friends networks

			Individualisation uneven according to location, class, gender and occupation		
in rural areas					
Sommers 2010 – Urban Youth in Africa	Africa	Urban Youth	Youth migration - cities provide an important area for personal growth Urban youth life separated from rest of society. Underemployed in informal/illegal sector. Marginalisation and exclusion as inability to gain social acceptance as adults. Results in alienation, defiance and despair. Inclusion through religious groups, music and male youth social groups	Empirical literature review (note there is a lack of data on young people and young people in cities)	Need understanding of urban youth and their survival strategies in order to provide effective support and development. Employed-unemployed dichotomy not relevant for youth.
Souto-Otero 2012 – Non-formal education and youth employability	EU		Soft-skills and personalities needed for employment. Youth organisations develop skills e.g. communication, decision making and workplaces value involvement.	Literature Review, existing database analysis, survey of youth organisations (245) and young people (1,301), stakeholder workshop, in-depth interviews with employers	Workplaces and skills required by employers change due to globalisation and technological progress. Employability
Stein 2006 – Yong people leaving care	Global literature review	Care Leavers	Young people leaving care: poorer educational qualifications and participation, more likely to be young parents, unemployed and offend and have mental health problems. Exclusion compounded for specific groups e.g. minority ethnic groups, asylum seekers, disabled and girls. Transitions into adulthood for care-leavers much quicker.	Literature Review	Social exclusion as material disadvantage and marginalisation. Three categories of care-leavers. Those moving on, survivors and victims.
Susinos 2008 – tell me in your	Spain	Poor socio-economic	(Theoretical paper)	Biographical/narrative approach, extensive and	Social exclusion as a socially constructed process linked to specific social conditions.

own words		background, cultural and ethnic minorities, disabled people		intensive	Those who are socially excluded share social barriers. Social exclusion a structural rather than circumstantial phenomenon
Thompson 2011	UK	Not in Education, Employment or Training	Higher risk of becoming NEET if from broken family, living independently, if have experienced trauma and if from lower socio-economic status. Effects are gendered. Educating young people does not result in better jobs but in self-blame for situation.	Literature Review and review of UK government policy on NEET	Social exclusion not ideologically neutral and draws horizontal model of social inequality. Epistemological fallacy – life remains highly structured but people seek solutions on individual level.
Ucembe 2013 – Social Capital and Care Leavers	Kenya	Care Leavers	Young people in care are excluded from external relationships and often abused which reduces their social capital. On leaving care (at an arbitrary stage) they are unequipped with the skills to participate in the community and in employment and face very different lifestyles which can lead to prostitution and forced marriage. They are also stigmatised and discriminated against due to their care background, which in some cases leads to withdrawal from societal interactions.	Life story approach	Social capital and social justice
YEU 2013 Towards a more inclusive society	EU	Disadvantaged youth	Disadvantaged youth excluded due to social class, sexual orientation, ethnicity, gender or living conditions.	Policy Paper	Social exclusion as a process that denies entitlement to resources and services and the right to participate in social relationships

Annex 2 Annotated Bibliography

Alston, M. and Kent, J. 2009. Generation X-pendable: The social exclusion of rural and remote young people. *Journal of Sociology*, *45*(1), pp.89-107.

Uses qualitative interviews and focus groups in rural and remote areas in Australia, with young people, teachers, parents and other stakeholders alongside Reimer's (2004) theory of the social relations underpinning social exclusion. These social relations are market, bureaucratic, associative and communal and an erosion of any or all of these is indicative of escalating social exclusion and systems failure. Social exclusion is hereby defines as the inability to participate in key societal activities through no fault of the individual. On the other hand, social inclusion is dependent on having access to the resources necessary for wellbeing and growth. The article finds that in rural Australia the exclusion of young people is affected by the breakdown of all of Reimer's social relations. This notably includes young people's lessening ability to engage in education and employment and extracurricular and community and activities, due to financial and temporal pressures and a lack of available opportunities. The article further finds that young people are not aware of the policies and structures that impact their experiences and therefore try to deal with collective problems individually and blame themselves for their exclusion.

Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. 2012. Children and young people at risk of social exclusion: links between homelessness, child protection and juvenile justice. Canberra: AIHW

Policy paper analysing the link between homelessness, child protection and juvenile justice and the links to social exclusion. The paper makes a number of key findings. Firstly, young people from one of the three categories are more likely to also be in a second category than the general population. Secondly, young people who had a child protection notification entered juvenile justice supervision at a younger age, between 10-13 years old. Thirdly, young people completing a detention sentence are at greater risk of homelessness after this sentence, and this is twice as likely to be the case for young women. The paper highlights that the findings are limited by a lack of data and therefore data needs to be accumulated over a number of years to allow for more sophisticated analysis.

Barnardo's. 2006. Failed by the system: The views of young care leavers on their educational experiences. London: Barnardo's.

Policy/advocacy paper surveying 66 young people aged between 16-21 who had been in care, and national survey of parents/cares of children not in care. The paper highlights the importance of fully supporting looked after children in maximising their educational potential, because education is crucial to ensure the transition to adulthood is successful. Young people in care consistently underachieve in education in comparison to their peers, but are fully aware of the benefits of education and what a lack of education means for their exclusion in adult life. This underachievement can be put down to a number of factors; young people in care move schools significantly more than their peers, are excluded from school more and rewarded less, are less involved in decisions about their education and feel that they are treated differently and bullied as a result of being in care. In order for young people to achieve in education, the paper highlights the need for teachers to let go of assumptions about young people from care (such as assumptions that they are uninterested or unable or that they are trouble makers) and the need to encourage these

young people, raise their expectations and the expectations of others and provide stability in care placements.

Baumeister, R. Nuss, C. Twenge, J. 2002. Effects of Social Exclusion on Cognitive Processes: Anticipated Aloneness Reduces Intelligent Thought. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 83(4), pp. 817 − 827.
Experimental study examining the effects of messages of social exclusion on cognitive processes and ability. The study finds that if people are told they were likely to end up alone in like, they had a declined ability to carry out cognitive tasks such a logic and reasoning, in terms of both speed and accuracy. Social exclusion was the specific cause here, as other predictions of non-social issues did not affect functioning. It is suggested that the results demonstrate that social exclusion impairs controlled processes due to self-regulation. Social exclusion constitutes a threatening, aversive event but people try to supress their emotional distress resulting in impaired functioning.

Beall, J. Piron, L. 2005. DFID Social Exclusion Review. London: Department of International Development.
Policy review of DFID's experiences working on social exclusion with the aim of supporting a corporate DFID approach to poverty reduction that incorporates a social exclusion framework. Social exclusion is depicted as a tool for analysis that allows a framework focusing attention on the cause and impact of social disadvantage. A social exclusion framework can also be applied operationally in order to meet DFIDs objective. It provides a dynamic perspective. The report highlight challenges in operationalising such a framework especially with governments threatened by such an approach. It is also challenging in that social inclusion will not always be the answer, as the right to remain outside of the mainstream and adhere to a minority culture is important. The report finds that it is necessary to be flexible with a social exclusion framework, but that institutionalising the approach is still important.

Berkman, H. 2007. *Social exclusion and violence in Latin America and the Caribbean, Working paper*. Inter-American Development Bank, Research Department, No. 61.
Working paper examining how social exclusion contributes to violence. Social exclusion is considered to inhibit citizens in a multitude of and can be perpetrated by the state, the community or one's family. It effects youth significantly more than others, who are often used as a scapegoat by the community and who may face violence in their families, leading them to turn elsewhere to find acceptance and guidance. Young people grow to find there are few opportunities available to them and experience obstacles to social mobility and a multitude of inequalities in access. The paper finds that those living in such excluded communities cannot depend on the intuitions that are supposed to protect them or follow conventional methods of obtaining increased social status, higher income and wider influence. This results in violence becoming an instrument to achieve justice, security and financial resource. This is especially the case for street children and youth gang members who are excluded and persecuted by the state and by communities and who then easily fall victim to the cycle of stigmatisation, marginalisation and violence. The result is a vicious circle of interaction between social exclusion and violence which leaves the socially excluded in a hostile environment and blurs the lines between legal and illegal. The paper highlights that the minority of people turn to violence, however those who are excluded and do not result to violence are heavily affected. In

order to combat social exclusion and violence it is important to find a balance between the need for control and the need to refrain from threating human rights and alienating populations. In regards to young people, ere is a need for programs that equip them with job and social skills which will allow them to follow constructive methods of conflict resolution, participate in the labour market and create positive family structures. The importance of education is highlighted here, alongside laws and incentives for education and employment.

Bown, H. Harfflett, N. Gitsham, N. 2014. *Embedding inclusive practices in opportunities for youth social action.* The National Development Team for Inclusion.
This paper focuses on inclusion in youth social action. It defines disadvantaged or excluded young people as those who may not have had access to opportunities to participate. Inclusion is a result of an environment where everyone has the opportunity to fully participate and everyone is valued for their distinctive contributions, skills, experiences and perspectives. This means valuing all individuals and giving equal access and opportunity to all and removing discrimination and other barriers to involvement. It used a scoping review of evidence on inclusive approaches, a call for information and examples of effective approaches for enabling young people's participation in youth social action and a learning exchange meeting to share approaches and test principles and practices. The paper highlights critical success factors for ensuring inclusion, such as engaging the excluded, empowering young people and developing their self-confidence, self-esteem and skills, enabling young people to take control of youth social action and acknowledging contributions and ambitions, allowing young people to take pride in their achievements and understand their impact. It also highlights elements that are essential for supporting excluded young people to participate. This includes finding young people in their own environment, making involvement easier and involving young people in discussions about what is desirable and what is possible and also assisting young people in determining their strengths, and using these alongside their experiences and ideas.

Bynner, J. 2001. Childhood risks and protective factors in social exclusion. Children and Society 15(5), pp. 285 – 301.
Literature review examining the risks of becoming socially excluded. The article uses risk and prevention models to determine physical, educational, psychological and cultural resources or barriers. These risk factors reinforce each other and lead to negative outcomes in adult life and thus social exclusion. Social exclusion therefore has a cumulative, cross-generational and often circular effect. Protection mechanisms can mitigate against these risks and against social exclusion. The risk factors of social exclusion identified in the review are childhood risks (including disability, illness, malnutrition, poor school attendance); economic risks (low household income, overcrowding, poor accommodation, deprived area); family risks (family breakdown, uneducated parents, low aspirations of parents or lack of interest in child's education, absence of parents); social risks (lack of preschool education and socialising). It is found that adult pathways to social exclusion are founded in early experience and shaped by absence of capabilities. In order to protect from social exclusion, there is a need to remove internal and external obstacles to resources to resist exclusion by using protective mechanisms which intervene at all stages, especially early in life, and which include all at risk people rather than just those in certain geographical locations.

Bynner, J. Parsons, S. 2002. Social Exclusion and the Transition from School to Work: The Case of Young People Not in Education, Employment, or Training (NEET). *Journal of Vocational Behaviour* 60(2), pp. 289 - 309.

This is a quantitative analysis of a longitudinal study of young people born in Britain in 1970 who have been followed up subsequently to adult life. The results show that poor educational achievement is a major precedent to NEET, as is living in an inner city housing estate for boys and having parents uninterested in education for girls. The main effect of NEET for men is poor engagement with the labour market. For women it is more significant, also including early marriage, dissatisfaction with life and a sense of lack of control over life.

Chirwa, W. 2002. Social Exclusion and Inclusion: Challenge to Orphan Care in Malawi. *Nordic Journal of African Studies* 11(1), pp. 93 − 113.

Academic article exploring orphan care in Malawi, where the HIV/AIDS pandemic is resulting in a rising number of orphans. The paper states that current authors on the topic argue that there is a breakdown of family networks and support systems, leaving high numbers of destitute orphans. However, the paper argues that in fact, families and support systems are developing adaptive capabilities. The success or failure of these are effected by many elements, including the size of the family in which the orphans are found, the ages and gender of the orphaned children, the number(s) of losses of the family members, and the economic status of the care givers. The article also discusses the notion of ophanhood as having much wider definitions that recognised programmatically. In the Malawian culture, orphanhood is considered to be a social and economic process that goes beyond the death of one or both parents and is not constrained by age. In Malawi orphanhood is characterised not just but loss of parents, but also the rupture of social bonds, a lack of family support, the situation of deprivation and want and a lack of money or means of livelihood. Acknowledging such social definitions of orphanhood allow better design of interventions and mechanisms for orphan care.

Colley, H. 2001. Problems with 'Bridging the Gap': the reversal of structure and agency in addressing social exclusion. *Critical Social Policy* 21(3), pp. 337 − 361.

This paper provides an analysis of the "Bridging the Gap" policy paper by the UK Government. It finds that the Bridging the Gap paper attempts to address deep-seated structural problems through an individualistic agency approach. Bridging the Gap describes those socially excluded as homogenous groups who are disengaged from education/employment and, in doing so, perpetuates a form of victim-blaming and ignores deep-seated and increasing inequalities in class, ethnicity and gender, sexual orientation, disability and place of address. Bridging the Gap assumes that the solution to social exclusion is paid employment, however this idea fails to pay attention to the vast inequalities within the paid workforce which lead to serious social issues. It also ignores work and skills outside of the formal employment system, such as those engaging in informal work and ethnic minorities with under-valued skills. Bridging the Gap also suggests there is a correlation between those without qualifications and those who are socially excluded with poor outcomes including health, involvement in crime. It therefore makes the assumption that increasing qualifications will decrease social exclusion. This ignores the fact that if more young people gain qualifications, jobs will be given to those who are more highly qualified, raising the barrier of social inclusion. It will also

increase the significance of other differentiating factors. The article highlights that the solution of engaging those who have been disaffected in their education by just providing more of the same is unlikely to be successful.

Colley, H. 2003. Engagement mentoring for socially excluded youth: problematising an 'holistic' approach to creating employability through the transformation of habitus. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling* 31(1), pp. 77-100.

Paper examining the emergence of "engagement mentoring" across Europe, a policy seeking to include socially excluded youth in the formal labour market by altering their attitudes values and beliefs. The paper argues that the emergent mentoring model treats habitus (using Bourdieu's theory) as employable dispositions whilst paying no attention to the institutional and structural power. In fact, habitus is very complex with collective aspects which are not easy to transform. Recognising this will result in more holistic approaches to mentoring.

DFID 2005. Reducing poverty by tackling social exclusion. London: DFID.

This is a policy document by DFID. It highlights that social exclusion describes a process by which certain groups are systematically disadvantaged because they are discriminated against on the basis of their ethnicity, race, religion, sexual orientation, caste, descent, gender, age, disability, HIV status, migrant status or where they live. Discrimination occurs in public institutions, such as the legal system or education and health services, as well as social institutions like the household. The paper highlights the link between social exclusion and poverty and the fact that poverty reducing activities are hindered by social exclusion. In order to tackle exclusion which varies according to context, the document highlights that it is necessary to understand the processes by which people are excluded. This can be open and deliberate by the state, such as in discriminatory laws, unofficially perpetrated, such as by officials reflecting their prejudices and institutionalising discrimination, or can be subtle and unintentional, such the exclusion of disabled people through lack of awareness or exclusion of minority groups through language barriers. Social exclusion results in a sense of powerlessness which can rob a person of their self-confidence and aspirations and ability to challenge exclusion. The paper highlights that social exclusion causes poverty at an individual scale and reduces productive capacity and rate of poverty reduction of the whole society. It can also lead to conflict and insecurity and can result in young men who feel alienated and excluded turning to violent crime or joining gangs. This can create urban no-go areas which further exclude residents, as happened in Jamaica. The government, civil society and donors have a role to play in combatting exclusion.

Frimpong Manso, K. 2012. Preparation for Young People Leaving Care: The Case of SOS Children's Village, Ghana. *Child Care in Practice* 18(4), pp. 341 – 356.

Study into the young people leaving an SOS children's village in Ghana. A preliminary literature review finds that young people leaving care are oven under-prepared for adult life. Organisations have developed transitional living programmes to account for this, however these are rarely evaluated. The SOS children's village in Ghana prepares young people leaving their care through the SOS mothers, who teach practical skills from a young age and provide advice and support, and through youth facilities and secondary boarding schools where life skills were learnt making transitions to independence easier. Young people identified their needs from preparation for leaving care to be housing, in terms of living with others and dealing with landlords; managing finances,

which none had received training in and cultural skills, such as knowledge of customs and traditions. Young people identified the barriers to preparation as being a lack of supervision and guidance and a lack of decision making power over their future. The article recommends engaging youth in identifying sources of preparation, formally involving caregivers and communities in the preparation process and having a needs based approach to preparation.

Gaetz, S., 2004. Safe streets for whom? Homeless youth, social exclusion, and criminal victimization. *Canadian Journal of Criminology and Criminal Justice*, *46*(4), pp.423-456.

This article states that social exclusion explores the degree to which the personal histories of individuals intersect with certain social, political, and economic conditions that restrict access to spaces, institutions, and practices that reduce risk. This account begins with a recognition that it is not atypical for marginalized groups and individuals to be socially, economically, and spatially separated from the people and places to which other citizens have access within advanced industrial societies. The article uses surveys and interviews with homeless young people living in Toronto and finds that young people on the streets are very much socially excluded, a process that usually begins before they are homeless. This exclusion includes not having a place to live, not having access to employment, not being able to secure personal safety and not having appropriate social networks. It is exacerbated by structural factors such as the forcibly removing homeless people from one place and therefore making them move to a more dangerous space. Young people on the streets are likely to be victims of crime as a result of this exclusion and continue to be treated as sub-citizens in policy.

Honwana, A. 2014. Waithood, Restricted Futures and Youth Protests in Africa. Presentation at: Symposium on Youth Research and Development 10th April 2014. The Hague.

Young people in Africa are in a period of "waithood", a period of suspension between childhood and adulthood where access to adulthood is delayed or denied and young people are not able to obtain the social marker of adulthood such as earning an income and providing for their relatives, being independent and establishing families. Young Africans therefore face social exclusion, joblessness and restricted futures. However youth are not waiting in waithood and instead are proactively engaging in efforts to change it. This has resulted in young people improvising their livelihoods and conducting their relationships outside of dominant socioeconomic frameworks. It has also resulted in youth protests, which are best understood in the context of a generations struggle for economic, social and political emancipation. Some of these have been successful in overthrowing regimes; however systematic transformation is needed and takes a considerable amount of time. Young people are now struggling to translate their grievances into a broader political agenda but continue to be active in seeking change outside of dominant political structures.

Hook, J. 2010. Employment of Former Foster Youth as Young Adults: Evidence from the Midwest Study. *Chapin Hall, University of Chicago.*

Briefing paper exploring how former foster youth in Illinois, Wisconsin and Iowa are doing in the labour market and what explains the variability in employment outcomes. The paper uses data from longitudinal study of 732 young people from foster care. It finds that Black youth are more likely to be unemployed that white youth and care leavers are more likely to have a lower income. Neglect

results in higher unemployment and lower social support, whereas a traditional foster family results in higher employment. The paper also identifies the correlation between educational attainment and employment.

HM Government 2013. Care Leaver Strategy. A cross-departmental strategy for young people leaving care. London: UK Government.

This is a review of UK government policy on young people leaving care, however highlights that there is a lack of data available on care leavers. The report finds that young people leaving care face much quicker and shorter transitions to adulthood, where they lack the support that their peers have. The first decade of adult life can therefore be disrupted, unstable and troubled. Often, care leavers struggle to cope with this leading to social exclusion, long term unemployment and involvement in crime. Care leavers are less likely to achieve in education and more likely to be unemployed. They often lack the financial support that they need meet the challenges of independent living at an early age. Care leavers are likely to have lower levels of physical and mental health and are less likely to access appropriate services. They are especially vulnerable to poor housing or homelessness and to crime; both in terms of being the perpetrators of crime and the victims, including becoming victims of grooming and exploitation.

International Labour Office. 2013. Enhancing youth employability: The importance of core work skills. Skills for Employment Policy Brief. ILO.

Policy Brief on employability and the skills needed for employability whereby employability skills are defined as the "portable competencies and qualifications" that allow people to make use of their education and secure and retain work. The core skills identified for employability are learning to learn, communication, teamwork and problem-solving skills.

Jackson, S. Cameron, C. 2009. Unemployment, education and social exclusion: the case of young people from public care. London: Institute of Education

This paper is based on a review of literature and surveys of local authorities and child protection agencies. It find that young people who have been in state care are most likely to experience poor outcomes in adult life, including higher levels of homelessness, teenage pregnancy, health problems, depression, substance misuse, domestic violence and criminality. Young people from care are also significantly less likely to engage and succeed in education. Three factors contribute to this poor educational attainment: 1) Structural features such as the organisational division between care and education services and a failure to view young people in care as needing additional educational support and the cut off of support for those over 18. 2) The care system, where young people are not consulted over issues that affect them and therefore feel like they have little control. Placement changes on short notice and irregular school attendance especially in early years are also important here. 3) The attitudes of social workers and teachers who have low expectations and aspirations for children from care (which is also often also shared by children). The paper suggests that higher levels of education and educational attainment will improve the experiences of young people in adult life and enable them to engage in secure and fulfilling employment. It therefore prescribes that young people need reliable and predictable financial support as well as encouragement and emotional support from consistent adult in order to have confidence to pursue education.

Jamet, S. 2007. Combating Poverty and Social Exclusion in France. OECD Economics Department Working Papers, No. 569. OECD Publishing.

Working paper highlighting social exclusion as an important objective for French governments. It highlights that the geographic and demographic concentrations of poverty and social exclusion is one of the most difficult challenges in France, where poverty is concentrated in the south of the county and amongst ethnic minorities and immigrants. To tackle this requires changes in education, the labour market, housing, urban planning as well as anti-discrimination policies, and social services. The paper considers employment to be the main source of social inclusion.

Johnston, L. et al. 2000. Snakes & Ladders. Young people, transitions and social exclusion.

This paper is based on interviews with stakeholders (such as professionals who work with young people), participant observation and interviews with young people. It is also based on social exclusion discourse, which although is criticised for becoming a catch all phrase, is used in the paper as it highlights the interconnected problems faced by young people and explores why some are socially included and others socially excluded. The paper views youth as a life phase when the transition between childhood status and full adult status is made. This includes the transition from education to employment, family of origin to family of destination and moving into one's own home. It finds that despite similar socioeconomic backgrounds, young people exhibit highly diverse transitions to adulthood. These transitions are complex, multiple, non-linear and often disorderly. Contingent factors such as bereavement, the role of a teacher or a particular policy can have significant effects. The only transition which does have linearity is the transition into criminal careers, which follows the path of young people disengaging from school, aged 12 or 13, engaging in substance misuse and petty crime from a young age and later progressing to more serious crime and drug use. The paper finds that early transitions have an effect on later ones, which means that a wider timeframe needs adopting for youth policy and academic study. It is also important for these to consider the structural factors that shape young people's agency in finding their individual path, especially socioeconomic conditions in the locality. The paper advocates for policy interventions which keep young people in schools, provide a flexible and relevant curriculum and provide incentives.

Marrock, C. 2008. Grappling with youth employability in South Africa. Human Sciences Research Council

Paper based on interviews with private companies and NGOS and teachers considering the (minimum) capabilities required to enable youth economic participation and employability. The paper highlights that there is no standard definition of employability and uses the concept of employability as the need for individuals to have capabilities to gain and maintain employment – capabilities that may differ place to place. These capabilities are in technology, teamwork, communication, initiative, self-management, learning, planning and problem solving. Education can be central in securing these capabilities in young people; however there are weaknesses in schools and in programmes in preparing people for work. Findings highlight the need for minimum technical skills, practical experience and the importance of providing effective career planning and guidance. The paper argues that relying on the overburdened education system to provide these skills is not

realistic and this partnerships need to be made between schools and organisations that can provide relevant training.

Minguez, A. 2013. The Employability of Young People in Spain: The Mismatch between Education and Employment. US-China Education Review 3(5), pp. 334 – 344.
Academic article reflecting on the ambiguous nature of the term employability which usually refers to educational capital which enhances the possibilities of being employed. However this usage fails to take into account factors including sex, nationality, social class and systemic flaws. The paper discusses the mismatch between education and employment in Spain which is shown through both high levels of academic failure and the over-qualification of the Spanish population who are working in jobs below their educational level. These also show the difficulties the Spanish education system is having in training and integrating youth into the labour market since the occurrence of the economic crisis. The paper finds that it is necessary to make career and learning pathways more flexible and adapt education to available occupations and diminish the dropout rate.

Morrow, V. 2001. Young people's explanations and experiences of social exclusion: retrieving Bourdieu's concept of social capital. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy* 21, pp.37 – 63.
This paper examines the theories most appropriate to the social exclusion debate. It examines Putnam's social capital but opts for using Bourdieu's social capital and cultural capital approach. Cultural capital can be institutional cultural capital (academic qualifications); embodied cultural capital, (particular styles, modes of presentation, including use of language, confidence and self-assurance); and objectified cultural capital (material goods such as writings, paintings etc.). Social capital has two elements: social networks and connections and sociability (how networks are sustained). Symbolic capital is also important. The paper finds that young people's relationships are important to their sense of belonging and their identity formation. Putnam's social capital approach can be useful in examining this, however it does not consider the fact that geographical communities are not of central importance, that capital differs according to gender, ethnicity and age and doesn't pay enough attention to the processes and practices of everyday life. Bourdieu's theory can account for these gaps.

Okojie, C. et al. 2003. Employment Creation for Youth in Africa: The Gender Dimension. Expert Group Meeting on Jobs for Youth: National Strategies for Employment Promotion, 15-16 January, 2003, Geneva, Switzerland.
Unemployment is the core of problems in Africa and the World Summit for Social Development emphasised the need to promote productive employment in the region and reduce unemployment. However employment creation is challenging and employment creation for youth is especially necessary. This paper examines gender issues in employment in Africa, finding that statistics show in every country, employment rates are lower for women than for men; however these often do not take into account rural women's economic activities for facility consumption and unpaid family labour. Formal wage employment is heavily dominated by men and in urban areas, women tend to be (self)employed in the informal sector. Women face numerous structural constraints to their economic participation, notably customary laws and norms, gender bias in access to human resource development services and time poverty, arising from women's competing reproductive and

productive responsibilities. The paper also focuses in in youth unemployment in Africa, finding that the continent has the largest proportion of young people, yet unemployment is high, especially for females and especially for Muslim females. The majority of youth are engaged in the informal sector, with only a very small proportion in the formal sector. Youth unemployment is caused by both demand and supply factors, such as general high levels of unemployment, population growth, rural-urban migration and poor education. For young women, one of the primary causes of unemployment is early marriage. The consequences of youth unemployment include idleness, gangsterism, disaffection and the feminisation of poverty.

Paolini, G. 2013. *Youth Exclusion and Lessons from Youth Work.* Brussels: European Commission

This paper is based on existing literature and surveys, noting that it is difficult to access data on some socially excluded young people, especially homeless people or those with no legal status or residency. The paper first draws and analytical differentiation between aspects of social exclusion and the determinants of social exclusion. The aspects of social exclusion describe the social, political and economic deprivation suffered by marginalised individuals. The determinants include the economic and social processes and the effect of these. This definition is flexible enough to include various at-risk groups, and its focus on the process-oriented nature of exclusion reduces the risk of stigmatising people. The document highlights four determinants: 1) Discrimination. Objective discrimination leads to worse health and living and health conditions and the subjective feeling of being discriminated against affect young people's quality of life, health and motivation to participate in political and cultural life. Actual or perceived unequal treatment result in barriers to accessing services and can affect the sense of belonging to the social and political community. 2) Lack of residency, legal status or permanent address. These elements are preconditions for enjoying basic economic and social rights. Non-EU young people, stateless children and those with no home or registration are at risk of being homeless and therefore prevented from accessing support services. This group of people also lack awareness of their social and economic rights, are less likely to obtain health and psychological behaviour and may engage in risky behaviours such as survival sex. 3) Low levels of education and exclusion. Education failure and drop out can result in lower employment rates, lower wages, worse health status and lower life satisfaction. Education also affects the capacity and motivation of young people to exercise their political rights and participate in society. 4) Poverty and unemployment. This deprives young people of the material resources needed to take care of their health and can jeopardise young people's self-esteem and social confidence. Unemployed young people have insufficient medical care and poor housing conditions. Poverty from unemployment or poor working conditions is frequently transmitted through generations. Poverty also affects young people's social and political participation. The paper highlights that more than one determinant tends to produce aspects of social exclusion and each overlap.

Partos 2015. Leave no one behind! Inspirational guide on the inclusion of ultra-poor and marginalised people in economic development. Leiden: Partos

Policy paper which examines the correlation between social exclusion and poverty. Social exclusion and poverty go hand in hand, with the ultra-poor consistently being excluded from society. Exclusion occurs as a result of infrastructural, institutional and attitudinal barriers and stigmatisation (which can be externally or self-imposed). People can be excluded because of their ethnicity, gender or

health status. Often they are disadvantaged due to the discrimination they face in in the education system, service areas or employment opportunities which means they also become economically marginalised. Because of this, inclusion needs to be part of all elements of NGO programming, and including excluded groups requires time and attention into identifying these groups. In order for sustainable inclusion, systems need to be changed to adjust attitudes and create inclusive societies. This requires mainstreaming inclusion and creating specific policies.

Raffo, C. Reeves, M. 2000 Youth Transitions and Social Exclusion: Developments in Social Capital Theory. Journal of Youth Studies 3(2), pp. 147 - 166.

This article identifies that individualised systems of social capital are a "dynamic, social, spatially, culturally, temporally and economically embedded group, network, or constellation of social relations, which has the young person at the core of the constellation and which provides authentic opportunities for everyday learning". This perspective recognizes that such systems of social relations both support and constrain individual actions and outcomes. Through qualitative interviews it is found that four broad types of individualised systems of social capital exist: 1) Weak – a small network with few chances for learning and where agency and choice heavily constrained. 2) Strong - a concentration of opportunities for developing informal and practical knowledge and understanding. Survival strategies for structural barriers but not methods to overcome them. 3) Changing – as a result of building new relationships and networks. 4) Fluid – wide range of relationships developed across a number of contexts resulting in dynamism, flexibility and adaptability in response to changing circumstances.

Savelsberg, H.J. Martin-Giles, B. 2008. Young people on the margins: Australian studies of social exclusion. Journal of Youth Studies 11(1), pp. 17 - 31.

Journal article which defines social exclusion as an emergent phenomenon, whereby interpreting relationships and interactions among and between excluded and included groups and communities is pivotal in understanding social exclusion. The article uses MacDonald and Marsh's (2005) six features that characterise social exclusion: extending the analysis beyond poverty, the inter-relatedness of the aspects of the phenomena, widening the focus beyond the individual to include individuals and neighbourhoods, and examining 'who, or what, is doing the excluding. Through qualitative data collected from four research projects based in and around Adelaide, Australia, three dimensions of exclusion are identified. 1) Economic dimensions – not only poverty but exclusion from the labour market due to severe poverty, homelessness, economic exclusion and unstable social circumstances. 2) Social Dimensions – including disrupted familial relationships, breakdown of traditional households, homelessness, crime and disaffected youth. Young people, especially homeless, depend on peer networks but these can be negative and introduce, reinforce and normalise behaviour which contribute to social exclusion. A lack of resources can also lead to survival crime, as well as stealing material goods in order to fit into society and feel the same as others or crime in order to express resentment. 3) Individual dimensions, including drug use as a coping mechanism for marginalisation and despair and the breakdown in physical and mental health as a result of homelessness or extreme poverty. The article argues that policies in Australia mean that the most disadvantaged and vulnerable are also the most neglected and most likely to be subject to punitive interventions.

Shucksmith, M. 2014 .Young People and Social Exclusion in Rural Areas. *Rural Sociology* 44(1), pp. 43 – 59.

This paper sees social exclusion and inclusion as overlapping spheres of integration comprised of private systems, state systems, voluntary systems, family and friends networks. It examines social exclusion in terms of the systems through which resources are allocated in society and through which youth exert their agency and capabilities to act. This means that labour market opportunities for young people are important and in order to gain these opportunities, educational achievement is crucial as is the role of friends and family networks in providing information and advice. Individualisation in this sphere is highly uneven and depended on location, class, gender and occupation. What more youth pathways are increasingly unlinear, especially for the least advantaged young people. The means that flexibility in education systems to meet diverse needs and young people need guidance to manoeuvre these paths.

Sommers, M. 2010. Urban Youth in Africa. *Environment and Urbanisation* 22(2), pp. 317 – 332. 4

This paper highlights the lack of attention paid to urban Africa, despite the fact that youth urban migration is a great and increasing phenomenon as cities provide an important area for personal freedom, growth and stimulation for young people. Within cities, the life or urban youth tends to be separated from the rest of society, where, for example, they tend to be underemployed or employed in the informal or illegal sector. It is highlighted therefore that the employed-unemployed dichotomy is irrelevant for young people. Urban youth also face marginalisation and exclusion as they are unable to gain social acceptance as adults in cities. This results in alienation, defiance, and despair. However urban youth seek for inclusion, which they achieve through involvement in religious groups, males youth social groups and (rap) music. The article argues that there is the need to understand urban youth and their survival strategies in order to provide effective support and development.

Souto-Otero, M. et al. 2012 Study on the impact of Non-Formal Education in youth organisations on young people's employability. University of Bath.

Outcomes of a research project exploring the impact of non-formal education in youth organisations on young people's employability through the development of soft skills. The study found that important skills include communication skills, organisational/planning skills, decision-making skills, team working skills, confidence/autonomy and numeracy, as well as certain personality traits such as drive and initiative. Youth organisations play an active role in developing many of these skills and those who engage in youth organisations report higher level of skills development. Employers also tend to consider involvement with youth organisations to be a positive experience, especially when certificates of achievement are provided.

Stein, M. 2006. Research review: young people leaving care. *Child and Family Social Work* 11(3), pp. 273 -279.

Literature review defining social exclusion as material disadvantage and marginalisation and focusing on the transition from care to independence. For most young people this is a fragmented process, aided by practical, financial and emotional support from the family and achieved with space for freedom, identify building and risk taking. Those in care however are forced to make the transition

extremely quickly, concurrently leaving care, leaving education and find a new home. This is done without the same support and time and space experienced by other young people. On top of this, Young people leaving care have poorer educational qualifications, lower levels of post-16 education participation, are more likely to be young parents, unemployed and offend and have mental health problems. Specific groups have further problems which compound there exclusion. Black and minority ethnic care leavers can face identity problems and can experience racism and discrimination. Asylum seekers are likely to receive poorer quality care, disabled people can ace difficulties in their transition from care and female are leavers are more likely to become teenage parents. Research into follow up care is limited as it only considers short follow up periods, it only covers limited dimensions of young people's lives and it is not readily available. However it does show that after care support can prevent homelessness and assist young people with life skills. The article identifies three categories of care-leavers have been identified; those moving on, survivors and victims. The latter group, who experience the most damaging pre-care family life and have disrupted placements are more likely to be unemployed and homeless and are the most socially excluded of care-leavers.

Susinos, T. 2008. 'Tell me in your own words': disabling barriers and social exclusion in young persons. *Disability and Society* 22(2), pp. 117 - 127.

Article discussing the methodologies used in a study into social exclusion. Here, exclusion is considered as a socially constructed process (and not a condition) whereby those who are socially excluded share social barriers (this means that analysis into social exclusion needs to be trans disciplinary). The process of exclusion is linked to specific social conditions that act as barriers for certain people and which eventually determine their own personal biographies, leading to the isolation of certain groups and individuals who are marginalised by organisations and institutions. The article describes its biographical/narrative approach with young people disadvantaged socio-economically, young people from cultural and ethnic minorities and disabled young people. The first part of the study is extensive, using self-introduction, a biographical interview, picture technique and a biogram. The second half is intensive, gaining more in-depth knowledge with young people creating a graphical testimony and conducting interviews with people they believed to be relevant to their lives.

Thompson, R. 2011. Individualisation and social exclusion: the case of young people not in education, employment or training. *Oxford Review of Education* 37(6), pp. 785 - 802.

A literature review and review of the UK government policy on NEET. The article highlights that social exclusion not ideologically neutral and draws a horizontal model of social inequality, in which the powerful and privileged disappear within an included majority, whilst the poverty and disadvantage of the excluded are positioned outside society. It also highlights the epistemological fallacy that whereby people seek solutions on the individual level, when in fact life remains highly structured. It argues that reflexive modernisation has not freed young people from predictable social paths; rather, by weakening collectivist traditions and intensifying individualism, it has obscured the role of social structures in shaping life chances. The paper discusses that in UK, participation is conceived as increasing individual employability by developing work-related skills, attributes and dispositions. Conversely, factors which increase the risk of disengagement from learning and employment, such as low attainment, restricted aspirations, and negative attitudes and behaviours are essentialised, regarded as properties of young people, families and communities, rather than as

consequences of structural inequality. For young people, being NEET (which is more likely if young people are from broken family, living independently, have experienced trauma and especially if from lower socio-economic status) is attributed to inability to compete in education labour markets due to low academic ability, lack of experience and low confidence. The solution is therefore seen to be increased training for lower attainers, but this currently does not result in better labour market outcomes. In fact, The existence of the middle class poses barriers for social mobility as working-class young people who have achieved higher levels of education than their parents' generation are squeezed out of good jobs and elite higher education by corresponding improvements in middleclass achievement. In turn, these young people compete with the lowest achievers for those jobs which remain; in periods of chronic job shortages, this effectively excludes some young people from employment or consigns them to poor quality jobs for extended periods.

Ucembe, S. 2013. Exploring the Nexus between Social Capital and Individual Biographies of "Care leavers" in Nairobi, Kenya: A Life Course Perspective. Masters Thesis, The Hague: Netherlands.

Masters thesis exploring how social capital influences the lives of care leavers before, during and after institutional care. It finds that social capital amongst care leavers is usually limited by institutionalisation. Institutionalising young people reinforces "othering" and excludes them from family and community interactions, which reduces young people's social capital. Relationships within institutions are often neglectful, abusive and exploitative. The definitions of an appropriate time to leave care are inappropriate and fail to take into account young people's wellbeing. After care, young people are considered to be adults, however find the sudden transition overwhelming. This is especially because whilst in care, young people have very few interactions beyond the institution and know little about how to interact within communities and with adults. They also lack life skills and practical skills needed for independent living and the educational levels needed for employment. Furthermore it is extremely difficult for young people to maintain the lifestyle that they had whilst in care, which led to young women being introduced into prostitution or forced into marriage. Young people from care can also be rejected by communities, due to the fact they are from care. This results in victimisation and discrimination which either leads young people to exclude themselves from society, or to attempt to conceal their institutional care.

Youth for Exchange and Understanding. 2013 Towards a more inclusive society: what youth organisations can do (Policy paper).

This policy paper finds that social exclusion s a process that is characterised by the denial of entitlement to resources and services and the denial of the right to participate on equal terms in social relationships in economic, social, cultural or political areas. The process occurs when a particular group is excluded by mainstream society. Social exclusion places young people outside the world of opportunities. It especially effects disadvantaged youth who may be excluded due to their social class, sexual orientation, ethnicity, gender or living conditions. Social inclusion is needed to tackle this. This requires developing and implementing activities which work on social inclusion of young people from minority and/or marginalised groups, including fostering mutual understanding, developing self-confidence, creating common spaces, empowering young people to participate in society and informing young people of their rights. It also requires improved dialogue and cooperation between stakeholders in the development and implementation of actions targeting social inclusion.

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