Youth Partnership

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YOUTH WORK PRACTICE ARCHITECTURES IN EUROPE REVISITED

Author: Tomi Kiilakoski
Finnish Youth Research Society
European Knowledge Centre for Youth Policy

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Executive summary

This study examines the development of youth work practice architectures across various European countries, building on earlier research conducted in 2018. The perspective of practice architectures emphasises that everything youth workers do is always closely connected to the broader discursive, cultural, material, economic, political and social contexts surrounding youth work.

In November 2023, a survey was conducted among correspondents from the European Knowledge Centre for Youth Policy and members of the Pool of European Youth Researchers, both expert networks co-ordinated by the EU-Council of Europe Youth Partnership. The survey sought to assess the practice architectures of youth work across European countries, focusing on three dimensions: "sayings", "doings" and "relatings". These dimensions, which derive from the theory of practice architectures, help to explain how youth work is structured and supported across different countries and regions. The first dimension, "sayings", includes different ways of describing what youth work is, such as legislation, quality assurance, competency frameworks, occupational profiles or codes of ethics, and research on youth work. The second dimension, "doings", addresses how youth work is supported. It includes university and vocational degree programmes on youth work, publicly-funded training opportunities and sustainable career paths. The third dimension, "relatings", includes associations of youth workers.

Twenty-nine countries and regions were studied. Countries were classified based on 11 different aspects of youth work practice architectures. This study provides a comprehensive analysis of the varying degrees of development in youth work practice architectures across Europe.

Results

Based on the analysis, youth work structures are categorised into four levels of development:

1. **Strong, well-developed practice architectures**: This group includes eight countries – England (UK), Estonia, Finland, France, Luxembourg, Malta, Scotland (UK), and Wales (UK). These countries have well-established youth work education systems, career paths and governance structures that promote youth work stability.

2. **Strong practice architectures with room for development**: This group includes 10 countries – Flemish community (Belgium), French community (Belgium), Czech Republic, Hungary, Ireland, Latvia, Portugal, Serbia, Slovakia and Sweden. These countries have some solid youth work structures but lack certain elements. There is no single pattern in how practice architectures have been developed in these countries.

3. **Partly developed practice architectures**: This group consists of six countries – Bulgaria, Cyprus, Georgia, Moldova, Norway and Romania. These countries have established legislation, some ways of discussing youth work and non-formal learning opportunities. However, with the exception of Norway, there are no educational opportunities for youth workers.

4. **Practice architectures in need of development**: This group includes Albania, Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Montenegro. Many of these nations still face significant gaps in their youth work systems.

Changes from 2018 to 2023

The share of countries in need of development has decreased, indicating that youth work structures have advanced. However, of the countries studied in both 2018 and 2023, only Latvia moved to the group with strong practice architectures (level 2). The pace of development is somewhat slow, underscoring the importance of long-term political and social commitment.

Conclusion

Based on the results of this study, the important European youth policy goal of building sustainable structures and resources for youth work has not yet materialised in all European contexts. The findings emphasise the slow but essential process of developing robust youth work practice architectures, which provide stability and enable sustainable practices. While some countries have made progress, others remain stagnant, highlighting the need for more concerted efforts across Europe to build sustainable structures for youth work.

Introduction

"Practice makes perfect" is an old, almost clichéd slogan. It emphasises the importance of repetition in striving for improvement. However, there is an even deeper meaning involved in the proverb. According to practice theories, what makes us capable of achieving anything profound is our connection to practices. Practices are shared socially and supported by different structures, which can be termed practice architectures (Kemmis and Edward-Groves 2018). These structures enable practitioners to perform their tasks. In the context of youth work, this means that it is easier for youth workers to talk about their work and consequently develop it if there is vocabulary that can be used to communicate the nature, purpose and values of youth work. Additionally, if there are material and economic resources for youth work, such as sustainable career paths, facilities and proper digital devices for digital youth work, more can be achieved. If youth work is part of a range of networks, is respected by other professionals and citizens, and is making a contribution to society, it is likely to be different to situations where youth workers have next to nothing in terms of resources. All three dimensions, "sayings", "doings" and "relatings", contribute to how practitioners are able to perform their tasks. Perfection is possible if there is a community of practice that supports its members. What communities of practice are able to do and to be is constrained, but never determined, by the strength of the practice architectures (Kemmis et al. 2014).

Based on earlier research, we know that European countries and regions differ considerably in how strong their youth work practice architectures are. In 2018, a study on practice architectures of youth work in Europe (Kiilakoski 2020a) was published. The concept of practice architecture was used as a theoretical framework to explain how youth work communities of practice develop and what they are able to do. The perspective of practice architectures emphasises that anything youth workers do is always closely connected to "sayings" and "relatings", that is, to the broader social, material, economic and discursive context surrounding youth work. Consequently, learning to be a youth worker is influenced by the social context as a whole and is dependent on existing practices. Therefore, the emphasis of the analysis is on the national-level structures that support or do not support the provision of youth work.

In the study, three dimensions of practice architectures – "sayings", "doings" and "relatings" – were used to analyse the data on the educational paths of youth work. As a result, four groups of European practice architectures were identified, ranging from strong architectures with legislation, ways of evaluating youth work and sustainable career paths to architectures where even most of the basic building blocks were absent. This enabled a critical evaluation of the state of youth work structures in different European realities and

helped to point out that young people in Europe are unevenly given opportunities to engage in non-formal learning activities provided by youth work.

For this study, the research design of the earlier study is taken as a basis for analysis. There are three reasons why the earlier research is being renewed.

Firstly, the analysis was published in 2018 and reflects the situation at the end of the 2010s. This means that the country-level analysis is no longer up to date. Gathering new information will help in mapping the current situation in Europe. Since the research design stays the same, one can also analyse how youth work policy has shaped the countries and regions.

Secondly, any comparative research needs to meet the challenge of studying different realities, policy frameworks and welfare models. In the earlier study, this challenge was met by adopting a sympathetic perspective on the country information provided by national respondents. Since the analysis was based on dichotomous categories (for example, there is formal education on youth work/there is no education on youth work), there were difficulties in comparing systems, and in some cases this methodological solution left room for criticism on the accuracy of the interpretations. If the practice architecture perspective is seen as a useful tool for analysing different European perspectives, there is a need to come up with more rigorous and transparent ways of comparing different countries. Therefore, some clarifications in the data collection have been made, such as paying attention to education leading to formal degrees, instead of gathering information on all possible training and education offers provided, ranging from single courses to doctoral programmes on youth work.

Thirdly, the earlier study was based on data that could be compared, to map the educational pathways of youth workers. This meant that the analysis was somewhat limited for practical purposes. If new information could be gathered, the number of dimensions studied could be increased. Since the earlier study, the discussion on practice architectures has progressed, but the core of the theory has remained the same. This means that the theoretical framework can still be used, but the results can be made more reliable by gathering new information and explaining the selection criteria in a tighter manner.

The social practice that needs to be recognised: European policy processes on youth work

The European discussion about European youth policy and youth work has been ongoing for over 20 years. The scope of this research does not allow for a nuanced analysis of different developments. However, for the purpose of this study, three aspects of that debate are important. Firstly, the debate has sought to argue that there is a social practice called youth work that is different from social work, formal education and other leisure-time activities. It has also succeeded in creating an understanding that this practice is being carried out in all European countries, although the concepts and structures are vastly different. Secondly, it has sought to influence a European youth policy agenda in recognising youth work and emphasising its usefulness to European societies. And thirdly, it has noted that European realities differ considerably, and there is a need to influence member states so that they enable youth workers to do a proper job. In other words, the debate has sought to argue that youth work is a shared practice with a long history, that this practice needs to be recognised at the European level, and that there is a need to influence the member states. The first two of these missions have been successful, and as the results of this study will show in the final section, there is still work to be done with the third goal.

According to Professor Howard Williamson, many building blocks of youth policy were already in place in the 1990s. They did not form a coherent youth policy and were instead "a fragmented set of initiatives and programmes directed at and developed with young people, between and within the institutions of the European Commission and the Council of Europe" (Williamson 2024: 29-30). In 2001, the White Paper "A new impetus for European youth" marked the emergence of a more systematic approach towards youth policy, and it was an important milestone. Although it mentions youth work or youth workers nine times, it does not offer a systematic or coherent understanding of youth work. However, it notes the existence and societal benefits of youth work briefly but also the lack of recognition of youth work. When describing the recognition of non-formal learning, the paper states that there is a "need for a better understanding and recognition of non-formally acquired skills through youth work" (European Commission 2001). Youth work is recognised as an agent in youth policy, but it is seen as needing more recognition.

Roughly 10 years after the White Paper, the 1st Youth Work Convention held in Ghent, Belgium, in 2010 also stated that youth work is not recognised enough, and there is work to be done. The final declaration of the convention emphasised the diversity and complexity of youth work. It also stated that this complexity might be a source of misunderstandings about youth work. It noted that youth work is a social practice (this sentiment is repeated in a similar manner in the final declaration of the 3rd Youth Work Convention, thereby emphasising the long-lasting importance of arguing that youth work is a praxis which is shared and supported socially). The role of youth work was seen as providing space for association, activity, dialogue and action, and providing support, opportunity and experience for young people as they move from childhood to adulthood. This two-fold mission emphasised the need for youth work to provide young people with opportunities for peer learning in the present but also emphasised the longer future perspective in supporting the growth of young people. The convention identified an existing community of youth work but also emphasised that there are not enough structures supporting youth work. The status of youth work was seen as being relatively weak. The evaluation of the status quo on youth work stated that there "remains a relatively limited understanding and engagement between youth work on the one hand and politics and (youth) policy on the other" (Council of Europe 2010: 3). Many structural limitations were identified, including a thin knowledge basis, lack of resources and quality training for youth work.

The 2nd Youth Work Convention was held five years after the first one, also in Belgium but this time in Brussels. The final declaration succeeded in crystallising the functions of youth work using two metaphors: creating spaces and building bridges. The declaration noted different historical routes in developing youth work, different values and varying structures. It stated, however, that there is a need to come up with common features of youth work so that youth work could be "better defined, its distinctive contribution communicated, and its connections with, and place within, wider policy priorities clarified" (Council of Europe 2015: 4).

In 2017, the Council of Europe adopted a recommendation on youth work. This important document noted that although there is diversity in European youth work realities, there is also a common understanding about the functions of youth work. According to the recommendation, "the primary function of youth work is to motivate and support young people to find and pursue constructive pathways in life, thus contributing to their personal and social development and to society at large" (Committee of Ministers 2017: 3). Emphasising this, it noted that youth work is a social practice that

is societally beneficial, and it invited member states to better ensure that quality youth work can be achieved. The document once again noted that "[y]outh work is quintessentially a social practice, working with young people and the societies in which they live, facilitating young people's active participation and inclusion in their communities and in decision making" (ibid.: 3). At this stage, there was agreement that youth work is a unique social practice. There was also policy recognition that youth work should be promoted by member states.

The 3rd Youth Work Convention was held in December 2020, during the Covid-19 pandemic. This meant that face-to-face meeting was not possible, and the event was held fully online. The final declaration stated that the efforts of recognising youth work had been successful. There was a common understanding about youth work, and about its significance for policy: "youth work is no longer just the means or mechanism for supporting wider youth policy aspirations; it is now a distinctive arena of policy and practice". The tone of the final declaration is markedly different to that of the first convention, held only 10 years earlier. However, one point was similar, emphasising that youth work "is essentially a social practice, both connecting with and challenging the prevailing and changing structures of the societies in which it operates" (Council of Europe 2020: 4). Some of the challenges identified were familiar as well: there was a need to develop and expand the youth work offer, to support the quality development of youth work, to find a common direction within the youth work community, and to increase the recognition of youth work.

The document introduced the concept of the community of practice to highlight the common ground of youth work. This community was seen as consisting of "youth workers and youth leaders, youth work managers, project carriers, accredited and independent youth work organisations, trainers, researchers, educators of youth workers, local communities and municipalities, National Agencies for Erasmus+ Youth and the European Solidarity Corps, youth representations, young people and policy-makers at all levels of governance" (ibid.: 2). The policy goal was to strengthen the connections within and between all levels of the community of practice (ibid.: 19).

The EU Resolution of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States meeting within the Council on the Framework for establishing a European Youth Work Agenda 2020 also included the concept of the community of practice. It noted that although youth work has developed considerably in some member states, there is a need for further development in other member states. The agenda consisted of four elements: political basis, co-operation in the youth work community of practice, the implementation process which aimed at putting the agenda into practice and the funding programmes in the youth field. It noted the need to come up with "sustainable structures and the availability of appropriate resources for quality youth work, so that all young people can have a positive experience of the measures" (2020/C 415/01, section 16). These included youth policy structures, quality education and training opportunities, possibilities for co-operating, and recognising and validating informal and non-formal learning. These goals are common features that have been noted in the European discussions. However, a systematic European Youth Work Agenda was a novel development.

The changed status of youth work is also visible in the current EU strategy. The EU Youth Strategy 2019-2027 includes three basic concepts: engage, connect and empower. When describing in detail how empowering young people can be achieved, the role of youth work is emphasised. It states "a greater need for recognition of non-formal and informal learning through youth work", especially

for young people with few formal qualifications. It invites the member states and European Commission to support "policy development in the field, training for youth workers, the establishment of legal frameworks and sufficient allocation of resources" (The European Union Youth Strategy 2019-2027).

The brief discussion above shows that the youth work community succeeded in creating a common understanding and in influencing the European institutions to recognise youth work as a societally beneficial enterprise. Using the language of the theory of practice architectures, the efforts were successful in developing the "sayings" dimension (defining common ground), the "relatings" dimension (advocating for the value of youth work), and to a certain extent in the "doings" dimension (calling for more resources). However, the developments in the European discussions have not translated in the same way in the different national realities. National developments in the early 2020s are the main focus of the next part of this study.

Practice architectures shape how youth work can be done

As described in the previous section, youth work in the European discussion is seen as a distinct social practice, which is socially beneficial, and which is recognised by both the Council of Europe and European Union. Youth work in Europe is also shaped by different national realities. There are common features within the youth work community, but these features manifest themselves differently depending on the surrounding societies. In this study, these structures that affect how youth workers are able to do their job are defined as practice architectures.

The theory of practice architectures was developed by Stephen Kemmis. According to this theory, what an individual practitioner does and is able to do is shaped by a wide background of discourses, social and political practices, material facilities and available resources. As sandbars, beaches, boulders and cliffs direct the flow of tides and waves meeting the land, different societal and social arrangements direct what practitioners can do. Practice architectures also create practice traditions, which tell practitioners and the wider community how things are done in a certain context (Kemmis 2023: 18-19). When youth workers are carrying out their work, they rely on the tradition of youth work but are also affected by the structures around them – knowledge base, legislation, physical and digital facilities, available resources, multi-professional networks, and so on. These concrete structures shape how youth work is done and enable, or in some cases constrain, how youth work within the given community can be practised.

European discussions have noted that youth work has developed differently in European countries. This is an example of how practices are always rooted in history. Practice is seen as historically formed and structured; it is influenced by local histories. Besides this, practices are also social. They are social because they keep the participants together, and secondly, they are social because they require the co-operation of many people (Nicolini 2013: 168). The community of practice of youth work is social because it has the power to unite different people from different backgrounds. For example, they might be volunteers or paid youth workers. The community of practice also requires the co-operation of different young people, youth workers, youth work managers and policy makers.

Practice is influenced by social relations and interactions. The question is about "what particular people do, in a particular place and time". Social practice "contributes to the formation of their identities as people of a particular kind, and their agency and sense of agency" (Kemmis 2009: 23). According to this theory, if communities of practice are strong enough, it is easier to develop an identity as a youth worker. Therefore, by analysing how different practices are structured, one can pinpoint what learning paths are available for a given individual in a local setting. In this way, a theory of practice architectures can offer useful perspectives on youth work conditions in different European countries and regions.

Practice as a concept is distinct from mere activities since it consists of shared social and material conditions. There are multiple links between the theoretical, practical and relational elements of practice. There is also an inherent moral element inside any practice: it is always value-laden; it aims for the good of individuals and hopefully humankind in general. A practice produces actions that have moral, social and political consequences. A "good" practice forms and transforms both the individuals involved in the practice and the worlds in which practices occur (Kemmis 2009, 2023; Kemmis et al. 2014). Practice has the power to shape how individual practitioners do their work, how they think about it and what types of relations they form with other professions. It is commonplace to emphasise that youth work is a value-based practice (Rannala et al. 2024) relying on democracy, human rights and the active participation of young people. These elements are part of the project of youth work.

Usually, the most visible form of any practice is what the practitioners do. In the case of youth work, one can easily describe, for example, how young people enjoy the company of their peers, participate and spend time in youth clubs; how counselling is offered on the internet; how outreach youth workers seek out and empower young people in sensitive conditions; or how youth workers work with gangs. However, a practice is not about actions or activities alone. According to the practice architecture theory, there are three categories or three sets of conditions that mediate and enable the conduct of practices.

1. **Cultural-discursive arrangements, or "sayings"**: make possible the language in and about these practices. These shared, often taken-for-granted understandings that practitioners draw upon are used to describe, interpret and justify the practice (Kemmis 2009; Kemmis et al. 2014). This dimension is about professional vocabulary, professional recognition and theories of how good practice is organised.

2. **Material-economic arrangements, or "doings"**: refer to physical and economic realities that shape the practice. These resources make possible the activities undertaken during the practice. They also enable the "doings" that are characteristic of the practice (for example, design of youth centres or other arenas of youth work, wages of the youth workers, economic status of youth work organisations, sustainable career paths available or not available in a country or a region).

3. **Social-political arrangements, or "relatings"**: concern social relationships and power. These resources make possible the relationships between non-human objects, people and professional cultures. In the case of youth work, it relates differently to children, social work, different professional cultures and colleagues in the field.

These different sets of practices are interrelated and even interwoven. According to a rather technical but highly illuminating definition by Stephen Kemmis and colleagues: "A practice is a form of socially established co-operative human activity in which characteristic arrangements of actions and activities (doings) are comprehensible in terms of arrangements of relevant ideas in characteristic discourses (sayings), and when the people and objects involved are distributed in characteristic arrangements of relationships (relatings), and when this complex of sayings, doings, and relatings 'hangs together' in a distinctive project. This quality of 'hanging together' in a project is crucial for identifying what makes particular kinds of practices distinctive." (Kemmis et al. 2014: 31) According to this way of thinking, it is important to be able to spell out how different conditions "hang together" in any given situation in any given practice.

When commenting on the outline of the earlier phase of the study on European practice architectures, Professor Howard Williamson advised a reformulation of this rather heavy theoretical framework into simpler and more accessible terms. Following his useful advice, the research questions can be formulated as follows:

1. **"Sayings"/cultural-discursive dimension**: how youth work is recognised, formulated, talked about and debated.
2. **"Doings"/material-economic dimension**: how youth work education is supported and how youth work can be a sustainable career.
3. **"Relatings"/social-political dimension**: how youth work is recognised, supported and organised so that it can relate to young people, the general public, and other professional cultures.

These categories can be seen as prerequisites for successful, quality youth work (Agdur 2017) – there must be ways of talking about the methods and goals of youth work, the material and economic conditions for doing this type of work, and the professional ways of getting organised and relating to young people, the general public, civil society and other professions.

The study design

To analyse the practice architectures of youth work, a survey for correspondents of the European Knowledge Centre for Youth Policy and members of the Pool of European Youth Researchers was launched in November 2023. The correspondents were asked 13 different questions. Five of these questions dealt with the "sayings" dimension. The aim was to understand how youth work can be formulated and understood within different European countries and regions. The topics dealt with legislation or youth strategy, a quality assurance model, competency framework, an occupational profile or ethical code of youth work, and research on youth work. Four of the first elements were also analysed in an earlier study on European practice architectures (Kiilakoski 2020a). In that case, they were chosen because they can be reliably compared. This means that the study design is shaped by the availability of comparable information, not necessarily by what is characteristic of a given national context (cf. Kiilakoski 2020a). In the earlier study, the emphasis was on the structures that enable talking about youth work. The fifth dimension was added to this study to better explain

what the knowledge base is in the country. The correspondents were asked if there is a statistical tool or systematic (not one-time) research on youth work.

The "doings" dimension concentrated on the educational and training paths of youth work. The respondents were asked about the study programmes in universities, universities of applied sciences and vocational education. Training opportunities financed by public authorities in the country were analysed. Also, the question about sustainable career paths in youth work was asked. These five elements were also asked in the earlier study (Kiilakoski 2020a). The earlier study lacked a perspective on the material side of youth work. Therefore, a question about material resources was asked. A previous study that compared youth work communities in nine European countries noted that the easiest comparable statistics were on youth clubs in a country. The study concluded that "youth clubs are the best recognised arenas for doing youth work" (Kiilakoski 2020b: 19). Therefore, a question about youth clubs was added to find out about the material aspects of practice architectures. However, data collection showed that eight countries or regions out of 29 studied in this paper did not have information on this.

The "relatings" category was covered by two questions. Compared to the other dimensions, the number of questions was limited, due to the difficulties identified previously in analysing reliably how youth work relates to wider societal networks. The two questions asked dealt with the associations of youth workers and if youth work was mentioned in policy documents in a field other than youth work. In this way, the questions dealt with how the community of practice of youth work was united and how it related to other fields. Unfortunately, the latter dimension did not provide solid enough data, so it could not be used during the analysis.

The data collection and the questions analysed are summarised in Table 1. The study methodology follows a simple pattern. There are 11 dimensions, divided into three sub-categories of "sayings", "doings" and "relatings" dimensions as formulated by the theory of practice architecture. The analysis is based on a dichotomous analysis, that is, it identifies whether the dimension exists in the country or not. If it does, it gets a value of 1. If not, the value is 0. The question about tertiary education is divided into two categories. Since not all European countries have a dual-sector model in higher education, only 4 points can be gathered from the "doings" section. In total, the maximum number is 10, and the minimum number is 0. Most of the information is not available in English or other languages spoken by the author. Therefore, the methodological stance is to trust the correspondents. To minimise biased answers, the questions have been, to a certain extent, reformulated from an earlier study (Kiilakoski 2020a) and the emphasis is more on the verifiable factors, such as degree programmes instead of university courses. There is a certain room for interpretation on the questions about sustainable youth work careers. The data is based on the period during which it was collected (until November 2024).

Table 1. Dimensions of practice architectures analysed in the study

	"Sayings" (cultural-discursive dimension)	**"Doings"** (material-economic dimension)	**"Relatings"** (social-political dimension)

The question used to analyse different dimensions	1. legislation or youth strategy 2. a quality assurance model 3. competency framework 4. an occupational profile of youth worker or ethical code of youth work 5. systematic research available on youth work	6. youth work degree programme in universities 7. youth work degree programme in universities of applied sciences 8. degree programme of youth work in vocational education 9. training courses available for youth work 10. sustainable career paths in youth work	11. youth worker associations
The questions not used in the analysis		i. the number of youth clubs in the country	ii. is youth work mentioned in policy documents outside the field of youth work

"Sayings": cultural-discursive dimension

The first class of analysis consists of those forms of thought and language that make youth work recognised, understandable, interpretable and communicable both inside and outside the youth work profession. This requires looking at the different ways of recognising youth work at the national policy level, and in professional discourse. The aim is to find out "what people say the practice is, as well as what they say while they are doing it and what they say about what they do"

(Kemmis 2009: 25). The ability of youth workers to describe their work, how a good youth worker performs and what is the societal function of youth work is at least partly based on the discursive resources available.

If youth work is to exist as a distinct social practice, there needs to be a way of communicating what the practice is about and how a youth worker does their job. This is based on a shared tradition of youth work. Youth work, like any other practice is shaped by what youth workers can express. For this they need a professional vocabulary – "a distinctive arrangements of words, ideas and utterances – distinctive discourse" (Kemmis 2009: 25) that is characteristic of youth work.

The analysis uses the following sub-categories: is there legislation on youth? Is there any method for assuring quality? Is there a competency description of youth work? Is there an occupational profile or ethical code of youth work? Is there a statistical tool or systematic research tradition providing information to youth workers? The findings are presented in Table 2. In Belgium, youth policy falls under the remit of communities. In the United Kingdom, England, Scotland and Wales each have their own youth policies. For this reason, the table shows both countries and regions.

Table 2. Cultural-discursive dimension

Name of country or region	**Youth law/ youth strategy**	**National competency-based framework**	**Quality assurance framework or system**	**A national-level statistical tool or other relevant source of information**	**Occupational profile standard or job descriptions or ethical code**	**Total**
Albania	1	0	0	0	0	1
Armenia	0	0	0	0	0	0
Belgium (Flemish community)	1 (regional)	0	0	1	0	2
Belgium (French community)	1	1	1	1	0	4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0	0	0	0	0	0
Bulgaria	1	1	0 (currently under development)	0	0	2

Croatia	1	0	0	0	0	1
Cyprus	1	0 (there is an ongoing project to develop this)	0	1	0	2
Czech Republic	1 (law in preparation; youth topics covered in several documents)	0	1	1	0	3
Estonia	1	1	1	1	1	5
England, UK	1	1	1	1	0 (currently a census)	4
Finland	1	1	1 (produced by Kanuuna)	1	1	5
France	1	1	1	1	1	5
Georgia	1	1	0 (in progress)	1	0 (in progress)	3
Hungary	1	1	0 (in progress)	1	0 (in progress)	3
Ireland	1	0	1 (currently being reviewed and updated)	0	1	3
Latvia	1	1	1	1	1	5
Luxembourg	1	1	1	1	1	5
Malta	1	1	1	0	1	4
Moldova	1	0	0	0	1	2
Montenegro	1	0	0	0	0	1
Norway	0	0	0	1	0	1
Portugal	1	1	0	1	0	3

Romania	1	1	0	0	0	2
Serbia	1	1 (produced by NAPOR)	1 (produced by NAPOR)	1	1 (produced by NAPOR)	5
Scotland, UK	1	1	1	1	0	4
Slovakia	1	1	1	1	1	5
Sweden	1	0	1 (produced by KEKS)	1	0	3
Wales, UK	1	1	1	0	1	4
Total	26	17	15	18	11	87

Of the questions asked, a youth act or youth strategy was the most common discursive resource for youth work, with 26 out of 29 having established one. More than half of the countries and regions also had a national competency-based framework, statistical tool or a quality assurance framework available. Less than half of the countries or regions had or an occupational profile standard or job descriptions or ethical code for youth work. It should be noted that representatives of five countries mentioned that there are ongoing processes to develop some of the dimensions studied.

Seven out of 29 countries and regions had developed all the five dimensions analysed. Of the countries studied, 12 (41%) had four or more alternatives available, and 18 (62%) had three or more. Twelve countries or regions had two or less (41 %). There is considerable variety on how youth work structures are supported.

Most of the structures analysed in this section were developed by public authorities. Interestingly, the role of youth worker organisations in creating the structures was emphasised in three answers. NAPOR in Serbia, KEKS in Sweden and Kanuuna in Finland have been active in developing models that have been used nationally in promoting quality in youth work or describing competences.

Compared to Kiilakoski 2020a, a new dimension was added enquiring if there were statistical tools available or systematic research on youth work. Out of 29 countries studied, 18 had developed statistical tools in analysing youth work or providing youth work with country-level information on young people. This means that 62 per cent of the countries and regions examined had developed a statistical basis which can be used to articulate youth work. The most commonly mentioned example was a regularly conducted statistical survey on young people. In most cases, the ministries or national agencies were responsible for producing information about young people. According to the answers, it is more common to have national statistics on young people which can be used to argue for the value of youth work. Examples about the youth work-related studies include evaluating the number of professional diplomas in socio-cultural studies in France, evaluating youth work by the University of Luxembourg, and establishing national-level statistical bases of youth work in Estonia, Finland and Norway. Besides public authorities, KEKS in Sweden has developed a tool for gathering information on youth work.

"Doings": material-economic dimension

A range of different resources make the activities undertaken in any practice possible. The physical, material and economic conditions affect the characteristics of youth work practice. (Kemmis et al. 2014). The most obvious example of this is that in some countries and regions youth work can be a long-term professional career with possibilities for career advancement, and in others it is mostly done on a voluntary basis due to a lack of long-term funding.

The need to pay attention to the material-economic arrangements has been emphasised by the Council of Europe Committee of Ministers recommendation to member states on youth work (Council of Europe 2017). The recommendation emphasises the need to provide sustainable structures and resources, particularly at the local level. The need to provide youth work education is also underlined.

In the following analysis (Table 3), the emphasis is on the questions of training and education, employability and youth work facilities. Countries and regions are evaluated according to their educational opportunities. Education is divided into three categories: initial vocational education and tertiary/higher education, which was further divided into degree programmes in universities of applied sciences and academic universities. The aim was to shed more light on how youth work is taught in tertiary education. In the dual-sector model, universities and other non-university higher institutions provide higher education programmes independently from each other. Generally, universities of applied sciences have a stronger vocational and professional orientation compared to academic universities. The question about sustainable career paths was left for the national correspondents to articulate. The highest possible number in the final analysis is 4, meaning that there is tertiary education, vocational education, training courses and sustainable career paths.

Table 3. Material-economic dimension

Name of country or region	Higher education	Universities of applied sciences	Vocational education	Training courses available	Sustainable career paths for youth workers	Total
Albania	0	0	0	0	0	0
Armenia	0	0	0	1	0	1
Belgium (Flemish)	0	1	1	1	1	4
Belgium (French)	0	0	0	1	1	2

Bosnia and Herzegovina	0	0	0	1	0	1
Bulgaria	1	0	0	1	1	3
Croatia	0	0	0	1	0	1
Cyprus	0	0	0	1	0	1
Czech Republic	1	0	1	0	1	3
England (UK)	1	0	1	1	1	4
Estonia	1	1	0	1	1	4
Finland	1	1	1	1	1	5
France	1	1	1	1	1	5
Georgia	0	0	0 (in progress)	0	0	0
Hungary	1	0	0	1	1	3
Ireland	1	0	1	1	1	4
Latvia	0	0	0	1	1	2
Luxembourg	1	0	1	1	1	4
Malta	1	0	0	1	1	3
Moldova	0	0	0	1	1	2
Montenegro	0	0	0	1	0	1
Norway	0	0	1	1	1	3
Portugal	0	0	1 (level 3)	1	1	3
Romania	0	0	0	1	0	1
Scotland (UK)	1	0	1	1	1	4
Serbia	0 (ongoing process to establish such a programme	0	0	1	1	2

	in Belgrade)					
Slovakia	0	0	0	1	1	2
Sweden	0	0	1	1	1	3
Wales (UK)	1	0	1	1	1	4
Total	12	4	12	26	21	75

The most common support structure for youth work education was training courses. These existed in 26 countries out of 29. The second most common was sustainable career paths for youth workers, which 21 (72%) countries had. Since the survey did not specify what counts as a sustainable career path, the decision was ultimately left for national correspondents. University education leading to a degree existed in 12 (41%) countries. Out of these 12 countries, Estonia, Finland and France provide degree programmes both in academic universities and in universities of applied sciences. Since Flanders in Belgium has a degree programme in applied sciences, this means that 13 out of 29 (45%) countries and regions studied have tertiary education in youth work. Vocational education existed in 12 countries and regions. Most of the countries (9) that provide tertiary education on youth work also provide vocational education. Norway, Portugal and Sweden have vocational education, but not university education on youth work.

Degree programmes on youth work are described in Appendix 1. It shows that in five countries and regions there are programmes on youth and community work. These countries belong to English-speaking parts of Europe: England, Ireland, Malta, Scotland and Wales. In Hungary there is a programme on community co-ordination and in Finnish universities of applied sciences in community education programmes. Other alternatives include programmes on youth work, social animation (a method of empowering people to participate in the development of their communities), social pedagogy, social work with children and youth or a degree in educational and social sciences.

Number of youth clubs in the country

Compared to an earlier version of the practice architecture study (Kiilakoski 2020a), a new question on the number of youth clubs was added. Since eight of the countries and regions studied could not provide information on the number of youth clubs, the question could not be used to compare countries. However, the answers provided show that the question is relevant for understanding the material side of practice architectures. As with other dimensions of this study, asking about the number of youth clubs reveals considerable differences within Europe. The highest number of youth clubs was reported in Sweden, with 1 000 clubs. However, in terms of the number of inhabitants, Luxembourg and Malta have the greatest share of youth clubs.

Examining the questions reveals two important observations: one regarding the number of youth clubs and another on the available information on youth clubs. For these reasons, the question about youth clubs is relevant in understanding different practice architectures. For example, Sweden and Norway do not have higher-level education on youth work, but they do have a well-established network of youth clubs. This indicates that focusing solely on education does not reveal the true strength of youth work practice architectures and may, in fact, not do justice to countries like Sweden and Norway.

Another interesting feature is that some countries can state an exact number of youth clubs, while others cannot provide any number at all. This discrepancy is not necessarily tied to the strength of youth work structures and may have more to do with how youth work is organised. For example, in northern countries such as Estonia, Finland, Norway and Sweden, youth clubs are usually funded by local governments, and there is information on these. Conversely, England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales do not have statistics on the number of youth clubs, although they otherwise have well-established practice architectures. In some countries, youth work is conducted by youth work organisations, and there is no information on the exact number of youth clubs. As with other dimensions of this study, asking about the number of youth clubs reveals considerable differences within Europe.

Of the 21 countries with information on youth clubs, 10 have fewer than 50 youth clubs. As expected, most of these countries have less developed youth work practice architectures. One country, Cyprus, has 82 youth clubs. Six countries have between 100 and 300 youth clubs, some of which are among the smallest in population. One country, the Czech Republic, has between 300 and 500 youth clubs. Three countries studied have more than 500 youth clubs. All the countries in this group are Scandinavian, namely Finland, Norway and Sweden.

Table 4. Information on the number youth clubs

Name of country or region	**Number of youth clubs**
Albania	no information available
Armenia	9 youth centres
Belgium (Flemish)	200 youth centres and hostels
Belgium (French)	163 youth centres
Bosnia and Herzegovina	30
Bulgaria	8-10
Croatia	4 regional + 12 local
Cyprus	75 regional + 7 local
Czech Republic	330
England	exact number unknown
Estonia	270
Finland	756

France	exact number unknown
Georgia	over 25
Hungary	number not known
Ireland	no information available
Latvia	173
Luxembourg	163 youth organisations
Malta	150
Moldova	23 regional youth centres
Montenegro	"should be 25, there are 11 established, not funded except for administrator"
Norway	more than 600

Portugal	no information available
Romania	35 regional + 15 local, but the exact number is not known
Scotland	no information available
Serbia	42
Slovakia	no information available
Sweden	1 000
Wales, UK	no information available

"Relatings": Social-political arrangements – the organisation of youth work

The third dimension of practice architectures is "relatings", which is interpreted very broadly. According to the theory of practice architectures, this dimension affects how youth workers relate to children and young people, parents and the wider public, but also to other professionals and youth work colleagues. These arrangements influence what type of relations there are. They also create social solidarity. The themes of power and solidarity affect how youth workers relate to other fields (Kemmis et al. 2014; Salamon et al. 2016). This dimension focuses on the question of whether there is a youth workers' association in the country. The survey also asked if youth work is mentioned in the policy document intended for a social field outside youth work, but the information collected does not provide a solid enough basis for analysis.

Table 5. Youth workers' associations

Name of country or region	Association of youth workers
Albania	0
Armenia	0
Belgium (Flemish)	1
Belgium (French)	1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0
Bulgaria	0
Croatia	0
Cyprus	1
Czech Republic	1
Estonia	1
England (UK)	1
Finland	1
France	0 (information missing)
Georgia	1
Hungary	1
Ireland	0
Latvia	0
Luxembourg	1
Malta	1
Moldova	1 (an informal network of youth workers was created in 2020)
Montenegro	0
Norway	0
Portugal	1
Romania	1
Scotland (UK)	1
Serbia	0
Slovakia	0
Sweden	0
Wales (UK)	1

More than half of the countries (N=16 or 55%) studied had developed youth workers' associations. These ranged from informal networks to organised associations hosting many members. The Estonian Association had 300 members, and a Finnish trade union for youth workers and sports professionals had 1 100 members. There have been conscious efforts to support the formation of youth workers' associations. In 2024, the Alliance of Youth Workers Associations was founded in Brussels, reflecting the recognition of organisations for the development of youth work associations. Compared to the situation in 2018, two countries, Moldova and Romania, have developed youth work organisations.

Analysis: practice architectures in Europe

This study aimed to analyse the practice architectures of youth work in Europe. Twenty-nine countries and regions were covered. The study focused on three different dimensions: cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political, covering 10 different elements.

The results of the study are displayed in Table 6 below. The table shows that the variation in the practice architectures of youth work analysed in an earlier study (Kiilakoski 2020a) is still quite evident. Some countries or regions have plenty of supporting structures that most likely produce strong practices, which help youth work to flourish. On the other hand, some countries or regions lack even the basic infrastructure for promoting professional youth work. The countries scoring eight points or above are concentrated in northern Europe, except for Malta. However, if one looks at countries scoring six or seven points, more southern European countries are included in that group.

Table 6. Total scores in the study

Country/region	Cultural-discursive	Material-economic	Social-political	Total
England (UK)	5	4	1	10
Estonia	5	4	1	10
Finland	5	4	1	10
Luxembourg	5	4	1	10
France	5	4	0	9
Scotland (UK)	4	4	1	9
Wales (UK)	4	4	1	9
Malta	4	3	1	8
Belgium (Flemish)	2	4	1	7
Belgium (French)	4	2	1	7
Czech Republic	3	3	1	7
Hungary	3	3	1	7
Ireland	3	4	0	7
Latvia	5	2	0	7
Portugal	3	3	1	7
Serbia	5	2	0	7
Slovakia	5	2	0	7
Sweden	3	3	0	6
Bulgaria	2	3	0	5
Georgia	3	1	1	5
Moldova	2	2	1	5
Cyprus	2	1	1	4
Norway	1	3	0	4
Romania	2	1	1	4
Armenia	1	1	0	2
Croatia	1	1	0	2
Montenegro	1	1	0	2

Bosnia and Herzegovina	0	1	0	1
Albania	1	0	0	1

Figure 2 shows that four countries and regions scored 10 out of 10, and three achieved nine. A score of seven is the mode, that is, the most commonly observed value in the study. Of all the countries studied, 11 received 5 points or less, meaning that more than one-third of the countries and regions examined had half or fewer of the different youth work elements in place.

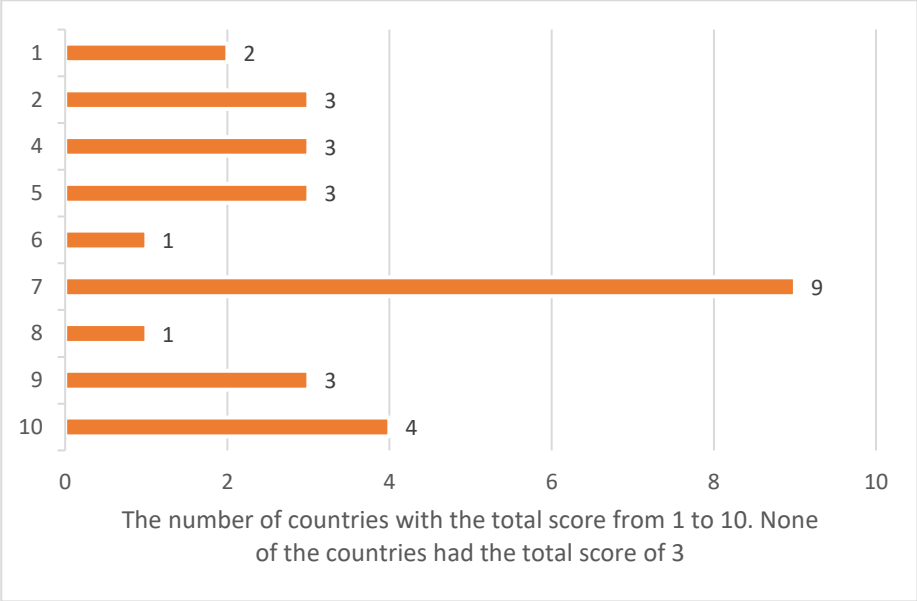

Figure 1. The number of countries by their total score.

Classifying the countries and regions examined

Following the earlier study (Kiilakoski 2020a), countries examined are classified into four categories based on the number of youth work structures analysed. These categories are as follows:

1. Strong practice architectures, well-developed (8-10 points)
2. Strong practice architectures, with room for development (6-7 points)
3. Partly developed practice architectures (3-5 points)
4. Practice architectures in need of development (1-2 points).

There are eight countries and nations in the first group: England (UK), Estonia, Finland, France, Luxembourg, Malta, Scotland (UK) and Wales (UK). They have a well-established youth work education system, sustainable youth work career paths, and besides legislation, there are many

other ways of analysing youth work. Most of them have statistical tools that can be used in youth work policy. These countries have developed structures that affect how youth work can be discussed and governed. This means that there are different ways of explaining what youth work is about and what contribution it offers to society. They also have structures that help youth workers learn their profession, and associations of youth workers that support peer learning.

Compared to an earlier study (Kiilakoski 2020a), seven out of eight countries belonged to the same group. This can be explained by referring to the theory of practice architectures. According to this, there is constancy in the practices because practice architectures change slowly. The well-established systems are slower to change, and although the state of youth work in some countries might have suffered from youth policy changes, the strong architectures also bring about stability. Malta, which received 8 points and could have been categorised into group 2, is the only new country in this group. This is likely to be a result of a more detailed analysis developed for this study.

Studying the group with strong practice architectures shows that once strong youth work structures are created, they provide consistency and stability even when youth work resources might be cut. Stephen Kemmis (2024) reminds us that practice architectures both enable and constrain practices – that is practice architectures make certain “sayings”, “doings” and “relatings” possible, and they constrain how these architectures might develop. Constraining can also be taken to mean that once youth work structures are strong enough, they can have an impact on short-term political changes. The fact that only Malta has been a new addition to the group of countries and regions with strong practice architectures can also mean that developing strong architectures takes years and is the result of a long historical process. In the UK, youth work has had a long tradition both before and after the Second World War. In France, youth work started to professionalise in the 1960s (Loncle 2009), and professional youth work started to develop in the 1970s in Finland and Luxembourg (Schroeder 2014). Estonia created youth work structures at the time of regaining independence in the early 1990s, at the same time that Malta was developing professional youth work (Teuma 2009). It is perhaps noteworthy to point out the long time frame required to establish these structures. Of course, history only tells us what has happened in the past, and it does not mean that youth work practice architectures could not be developed much faster if there is enough political will and commitment.

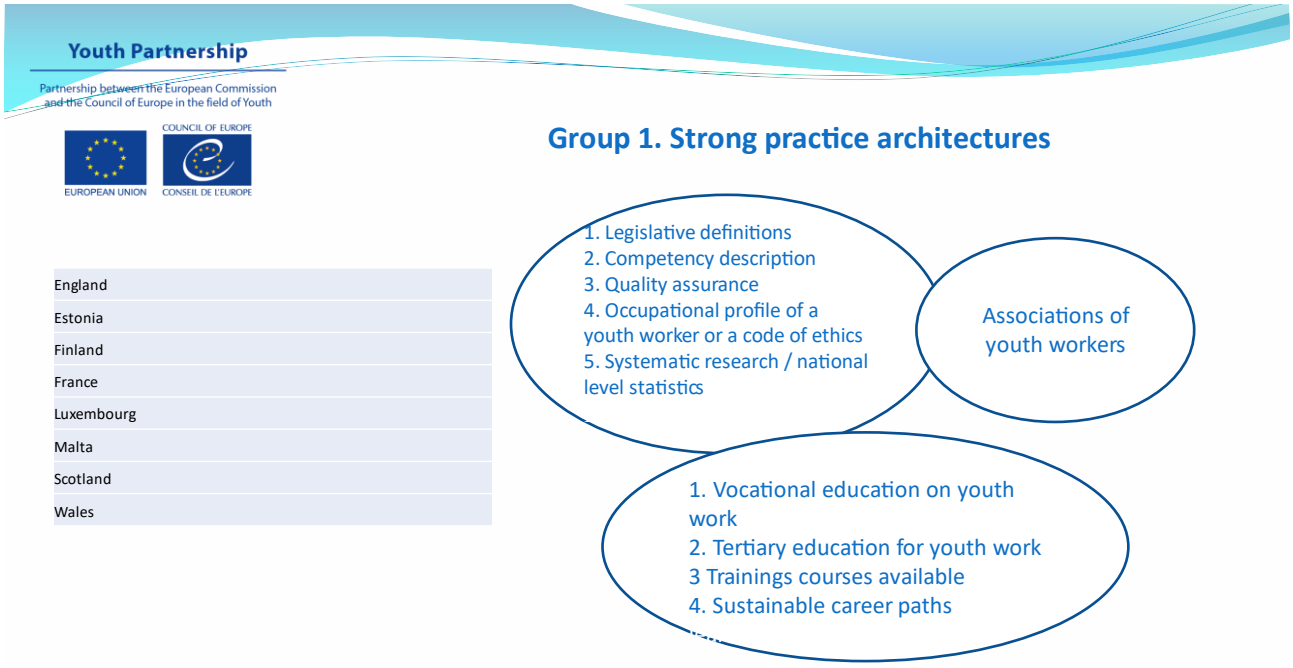

Figure 2. Strong, well-developed practice architectures

There are 10 countries and regions in the second group: Flemish-speaking Belgium, French-speaking Belgium, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Ireland, Latvia, Portugal, Serbia, Slovakia and Sweden. Typically, these countries have well-developed practice architectures but lack some of the features the countries in group 1 have. Interestingly, there is not a single pattern on how practice architectures have been developed in these countries. For example, Slovakia has all the structures studied under the heading of "sayings" but lacks degree programmes on youth work. Ireland has a well-established education system but does not have an association of youth workers, and two dimensions of "sayings" are lacking.

Compared to an earlier study, five out of 10 countries belonged to this group. Due to a more rigorous methodology, the interpretations of French Belgium, Slovakia and Ireland have changed, and they no longer belong to group 1. Latvia was categorised as being in group 3 in an earlier study, making it the sole country moving up to this group. In an earlier study, there was no information on Hungary.

Analysing countries in this group also shows that developed practice architectures bring about stability in youth work. The case of Latvia shows that youth work structures are being developed in different parts of Europe.

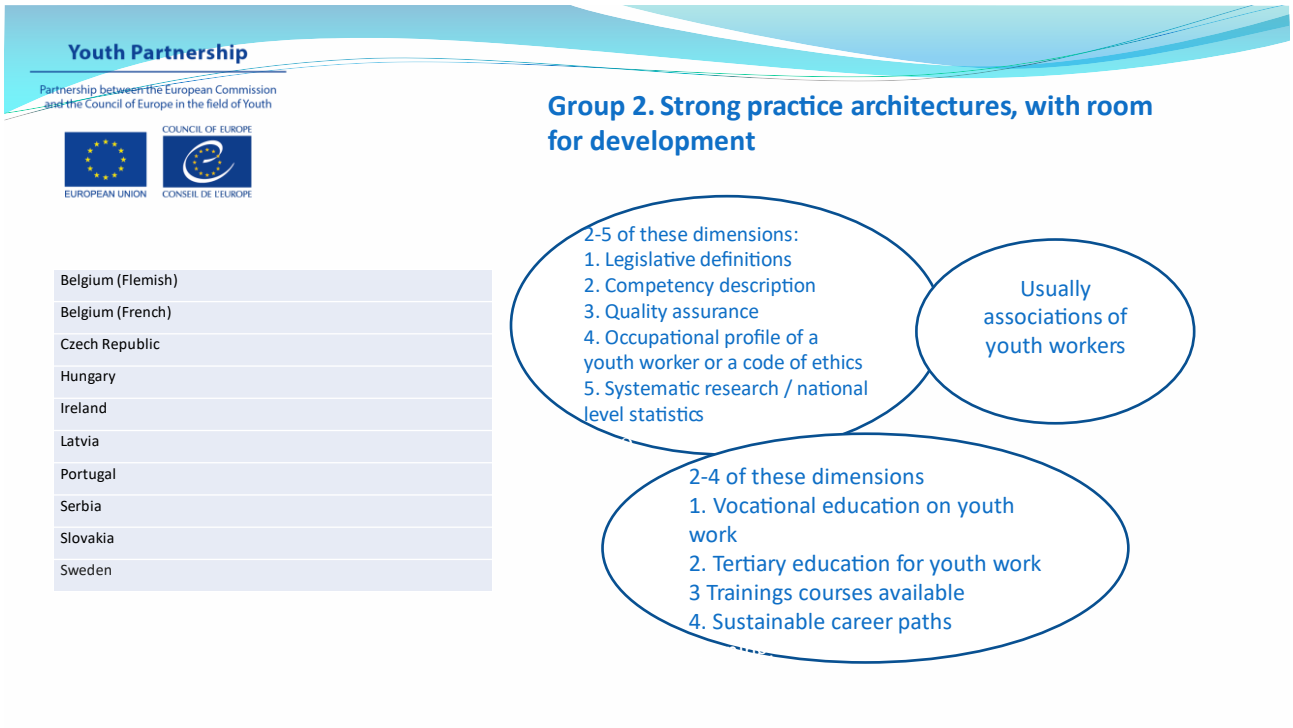

Figure 3. Strong practice architectures with room for development

Six countries belonged to the category of practice architectures in need of development. This group consisted of Bulgaria, Cyprus, Georgia, Moldova, Norway and Romania. These countries have established legislation, some forums for discussing youth work and non-formal learning opportunities. However, Norway is an exception since it offers youth workers sustainable learning paths and vocational education. On the other hand, Norway has opted not to work through legislation or national quality assurance or competency descriptions.

In the earlier study, Bulgaria and Norway belonged to this group. The other four countries belonging to this group were classified as having practice architectures in need of development. Because these five countries have established more youth work support structures, it can be concluded that based on this study, most significant developments in Europe from 2018 to 2023 have happened in countries that have developed their structures and moved upwards to the category of partly developed practice architectures. To refer to an earlier point, development of youth work practice architectures seems to take a considerable time and that the countries in the process of developing their practice architectures build their structures gradually.

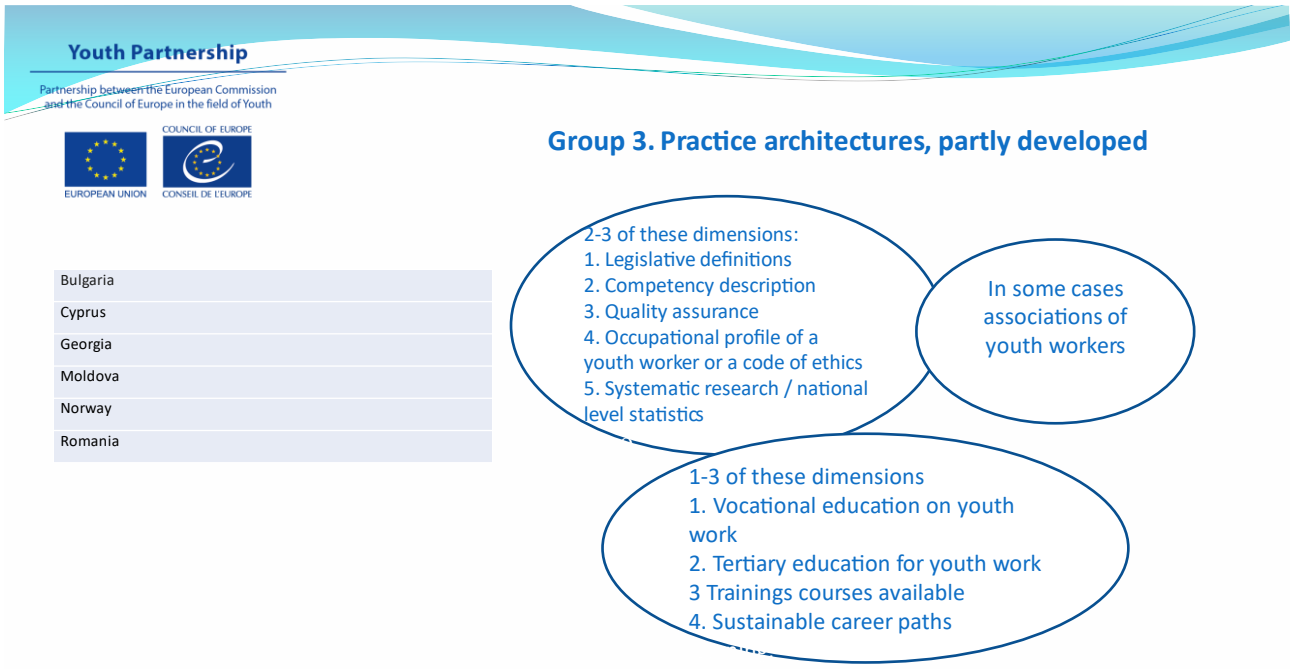

Figure 4. Partly developed practice architectures

Group 4, practice architectures in need of development, consisted of Albania, Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Montenegro. These countries have developed one or two of the dimensions covered. Compared to an earlier study (Kiilakoski 2020a), four of the countries classified in this group have remained in this category. This indicates that these countries have not yet managed to develop their structures. Armenia has moved from group 3 to group 4, perhaps indicating that if the youth work practice architectures are not strong enough, there might be backward steps when the politics changes. Among the countries studied in this paper, it is however more common to develop structures than it is to lose them.

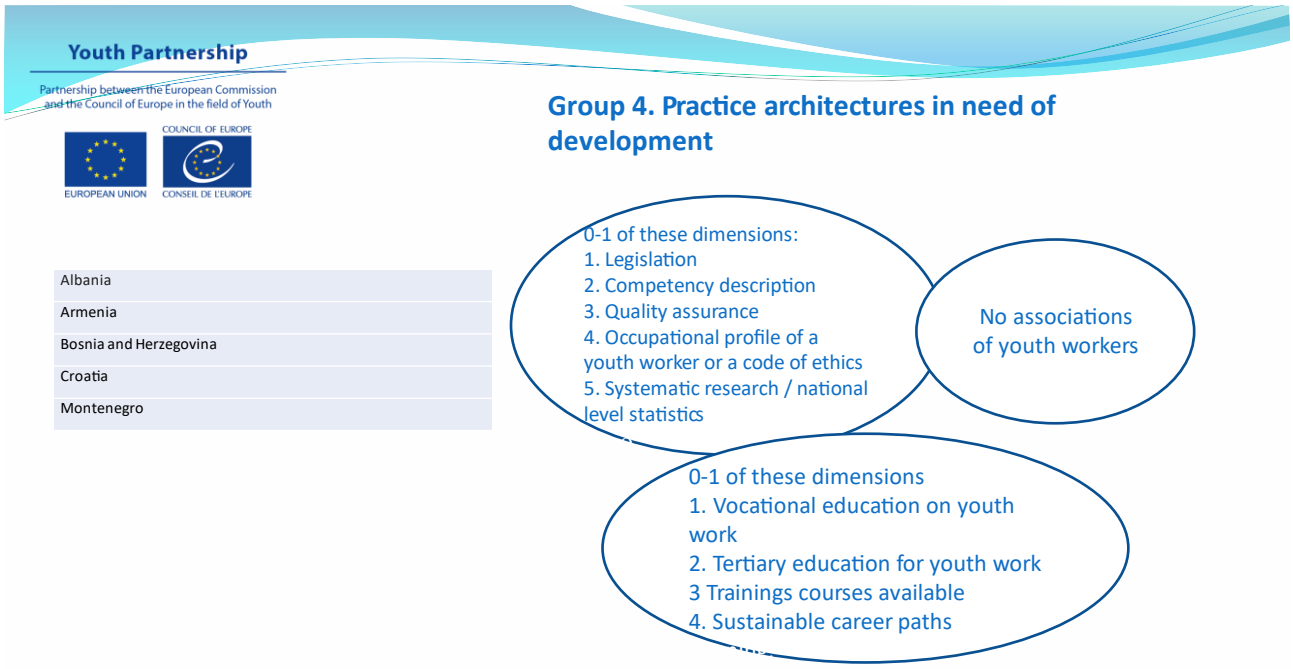

Figure 5. Practice architectures in need of development

Comparing 2018 and 2023: the development of practice architectures

Twenty-nine countries and regions were covered in this study. Twenty-seven of these were also covered in an earlier study, indicating their situation in 2018. The previous study covered 44 countries and regions (Kiilakoski 2020a). Given the difference in sample size, comparison of the numbers does not reveal relevant information. Looking at the percentages, however, provides better information. In Table 7, the percentages in 2023 and in 2018 are shown. The third column shows the situation of the countries and regions analysed in this study in 2018. The fourth column shows the total number in 2018.

Table 7. Comparison of the groups of practice architectures in 2018 and 2023

Groups of practice architectures	**The situation in 2023 (N=29)**	**The situation of countries and regions studied for this paper in 2018 (N=27)**	**The overall situation in 2018 (N=44)**
Strong, well-developed practice architectures	28% (N=8)	33% (N=9)	25% (N=11)
Strong practice architectures with room for development	34% (N=10)	22% (N=6)	27% (N=12)

Partly developed practice architectures	21% (N=6)	15% (N=4)	18% (N=8)
Practice architectures in need of development	17% (N=5)	30% (N=8)	30% (N=13)

Both in 2018 and in 2023, over 50 per cent of the countries and regions belonged to groups 1 and 2, which have strong practice architectures. In 2018, this share in the countries analysed for this paper was 55 per cent, and in 2023, it was 64 per cent. These figures are a bit misleading since there have been relatively few changes. Latvia is the only country that has moved to the group of strong practice architectures with room for development. Hungary and Scotland were not analysed in 2018. Both have strong practice architectures. Also, none of the countries that belonged to the two groups have moved to the third group. The difference in the countries with strong architectures is due to the stricter interpretation of the available data. The difference in the overall share of countries belonging to these two groups is explained partly by the fact that most countries belonging to these groups answered the survey in 2023, and fewer countries belonging to other groups answered.

In 2018, 15 per cent of the countries and regions studied for this paper had partly developed practice architectures, and in 2023 it was 21 per cent. This shows that there is some growth in the share. However, it is important to note that only two of the four countries have stayed in this category. Four of the six countries currently belonging to this group in 2023 have developed their practice architectures and previously belonged to the group of practice architectures in need of development. Latvia, which used to belong to this group, has moved upwards. This shows that considerable advances have been made in some countries, resulting in more advanced practice architectures compared to the earlier study.

Lastly, the share of the practice architectures in need of development has diminished. In 2023, 16 per cent of countries and regions belonged to this category. This share was roughly twice as much (30 per cent) in 2018, indicating that there has been development of youth work practice architectures in Europe in many countries. Of course, the share of countries in need of development is still considerable. At least among the countries studied in 2018 and 2023, there have been changes in developing practice architectures, although moderate development is more common instead of a move towards strong practice architectures.

Conclusion

The analysis of practice architectures in this study is based on examining national macro-level structures. These structures are usually developed by states but may, in some cases, be initiated by civil society such as umbrella organisations of youth work organisations. This type of enquiry can be classified as “zooming out” (Nicolini 2013) and looking at the wider perspectives on how youth work is supported. The argument of this study is that these structures enable youth workers to talk about their youth work activities, present them to other people, help them to learn the tradition of youth

work, work in the youth field for a long time and engage in peer learning. And vice versa, if youth workers lack these structures, the state could do more to support youth work.

The youth work field has been able to convince European youth policy that youth work is a unique social practice that can make a contribution to society. The Council of Europe recommendation on youth work from 2017 invited member states to "provide an enabling environment and conditions for both proven and innovative youth work practices (including for example, sustainable structures and resources)" (Committee of Ministers 2017). Similarly, in the Resolution on the European Youth Work Agenda, one of the aims was to "ensure the presence of sustainable structures and the availability of appropriate resources for quality youth work" (2020/C 415/01). Based on the results of this study, these calls for sustainable structures have not yet materialised in all European realities. The comparison between 2018 and 2023 shows that while some countries have developed their structures, the situation in others is stagnant.

One of the key messages of the practice architectures perspective is an emphasis that practices are socially and historically formed. On the national level, the existing tradition (or in some cases lack of tradition) of youth work can enable and constrain how youth workers are able to practise. If the aim is to strengthen the quality of youth work, developing practice architectures is a slow but necessary process.

Based on the information and interpretations of this study, the following recommendations can be offered:

1. Most of the improvement in practice architectures between 2018 and 2023 has occurred because some countries have moved from needing development in practice architectures to having partly developed practice architectures. This is a positive development. Since some countries still do not have youth work structures, support from European institutions to develop youth work will still be needed.

2. Compared to 2018, there has been relatively little progress in developing strong practice architectures. Only Latvia, of all the countries covered, has developed strong practice architectures. Studying how or if Latvia has benefited from European youth work policy and youth policy may shed light on how sustainable structures for youth work can be created.

3. Despite efforts to analyse how youth work is connected to other policy fields, the available information cannot be used to reliably compare countries. Using the concepts of this study, the relationships between youth work and other policy fields, such as formal education, social work or employment services, are still not well understood. To further study how youth work is recognised in different European countries, efforts should be made to analyse these relationships, including questions such as whether youth workers mainly work in isolation or together with other professions, what type of professional networks are formed, and what role youth work plays in these networks. Additionally, how different theoretical traditions in youth work and welfare policies enable and constrain what youth work is able to achieve should be explored.

4. This study indicates that the material dimensions of youth work shed new light on the available information. For example, Sweden and Norway have extensive networks of youth clubs but lack some other aspects of the practice architectures studied. This indicates that they have created youth work models that support the provision of youth work, but in a way that is harder to identify if attention is only paid to legal structures, quality systems and youth work education. Most practices require material settings, that is, the work is done in a place designed to create favourable conditions for achieving the goals. Youth work, of course, can be done in various settings such as streets, shopping malls or hospitals. However, learning more about the material aspects of youth work in Europe would likely shed light on where, but also on how, youth work is done across Europe.

5. At the policy level, there is still a need to further ensure that youth work policy goals are met. For example, education, training, capacity building and professional development for youth workers are still not available for many youth workers. Further support is needed to ensure that youth workers can learn their practice and improve it by gaining new information.

6. According to this study, 18 of the 29 countries have a national statistical tool or other systematic research that can be used to develop and promote youth work. Further study on how this information is used would likely provide insights into how knowledge-based youth work is conducted in different countries and regions in Europe.

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APPENDIX 1. DEGREE PROGRAMMES ON YOUTH WORK IN THE STUDIED COUNTRIES AND REGIONS

The following table provides information on youth work degree programmes. It shows the institutions that are providing degree programmes (number 1), the level of the programme (number 2), how long the programme lasts (number 3) and the title of the degree or programme (number 4).

Name of country or region	**Higher education**	**Universities of applied sciences**	**Vocational duration**
Belgium (Flemish)		1. Several university colleges in Flanders 2. Professional bachelor's degree 3. 3 years 4. Bachelor in Social-Cultural Work	1. Several university colleges in Flanders 2. Graduate programme in social-cultural work (socio-cultural counselling) 3. 2 years 4. Social-Cultural Work (Socio-cultural counselling)
Bulgaria	1. University of Veliko Tarnovo 2. Master's degree; 3. 2 or 3 semesters; 4. Social-pedagogical work with young people/youth	0	0
Czech Republic	1. Palacký University Olomouc 2. Bachelor's degree 3. 3 years 4. Social work with children and youth (Sociální práce s dětmi a mládeží)	0	Preschool and non-formal pedagogy
England, UK	1. Numerous universities	0	Integrated degree apprenticeships in youth work

	2. Masters and bachelors degrees 3. BA 3 years, master's degree 1-1.5 years 4. For example, Youth and community work, MA		
Estonia	1. Tallinn University and Tartu University 2. Applied Higher Education (equal to BA) 3. Youth Work, 180 ECTS and MA Youth Work Management 120 ECTS	1. Applied Higher Education curricula at Tartu University and Viljandi Cultural Academy 2. Applied Higher Education (equal to BA) 3. 240 ECTS 4. Community Education and Hobby Activity	0
Finland	1. Tampere University, 2. Master's Degree in Social Sciences, 3. 300 ECTS, (180 + 120), 4. Youth Work and Youth Research	1. Humak University of Applied Sciences and South-Eastern Finland University of Applied Sciences 2. Bachelor's degree, 3. 210 ECTS 4. Community Educator	1. 21 different vocational institutions, curriculum given by the National Agency of Education 2. Vocational qualification 3. 180 ECVET competence points 4. Kasvatus- ja ohjausalan perustutkinto, nuoriso- ja yhteisöohjaaja / Counsellor in youth and communities
France	1. State higher diplomas in youth, popular education	1. University bachelors of technology (BUT) offered, for example by l'institut universitaire	1. Professional certificates in youth, popular education and sport (CPJEPS) (Les Certificats professionnels de la

	and sport (DESJEPS) 2. The DESJEPS is the higher level of the DEJEPS (level 6 / bac+3 / 3rd year of the bachelor's degree). 3. The DESJEPS with a specialisation in "social animation"	technologique (IUT) Montaigne de la ville de Bordeaux 2. These are national level 6 higher education diplomas (equivalent to bac+3 / bachelor's degree) 3. (180 ECTS credits) offer a "social and socio-cultural animation" specialisation, such as the university and technological bachelor's degree in social careers. This training can be done full-time ("initial training") or work-study/apprenticeship ("continuing education") 4. BUT: carrières sociales parcours animation sociale et socio-culturelle	jeunesse, de l'éducation populaire et du sport)
Hungary	1. For example. Eötvös Loránd University 2. Bachelor's degree programme 3. 6 semesters, 180 credits 4. The community co-ordinator has a youth community organising specialisation	0	0
Ireland	1. 5 higher education institutions	-	1. (There are FET standards at Level 5 (L4 EQF) on the

	who offer professional programmes of education and training in youth work 2. Bachelors and masters levels 3. Programmes vary between 180 and 225 ECTS at undergraduate level and 60 (UCC H.Dip) and 120 (MU MSocSc) ECTS at post graduate level 4. For example, Bachelor of Social Sciences (Community and Youth Work)		Irish Framework of Qualifications)
Luxembourg	1. University of Luxembourg, 2. bachelor's degree, 3. 6 full semesters or 12 part-time semesters (180 ECTS) 4. Bachelor in educational and social sciences	0	1. Training courses are available at various lycées across the country 2. Diplôme d'aptitude professionnelle 3. 3 years for the initial training, full-time 4. Vocational aptitude diploma for socio-educational/ inclusion officer
Malta	1. University of Malta 2. Bachelors and masters Degrees	0	0

	3. BA 3 years (180 ECTS), master's degree (90 ECTS) 4. BA (Hons) / Master in Youth and Community Studies		
Norway	0	0	1. Vocational institutions 2. Upper secondary VET programme 3. 4 years (2 years in school, 2 years as apprentice) 4. Barne- og ungdomsarbeiderfaget (child and youth work, specialisation in upper secondary school)
Portugal	0	0	1. Diploma that certifies completion of secondary education and a certificate of qualifications, with the QNQ qualification level, the continuation of studies in a professional higher technical course or access to higher education, through compliance with the requirements set out in the law 2. 3 academic years. (1 025 hours of mandatory curricula, and another 100 hours at the choice of the trainee) 3. Técnico de Juventude / Youth technician

Scotland	Degree level programmes in youth work are part of wider Community Learning and Development qualifying programmes and practitioners gain knowledge and practice experience across the three domains of CLD: youth work, adult learning, community development 1. University of Dundee / University of Edinburgh / University of the West of Scotland / University of Glasgow 2. Bachelors and masters degrees 3. Bachelor level: 3 or 4 years 4. Different titles, including Community Education BA (Hons); Community Education Work based route BA; Community Development BA (Hons); Post	0	SCQF Level 6: 1. Scottish Vocational Qualification in Youth Work – work based 2. Modern Apprenticeship in Youth Work – work based 3. National Progression Award in Theory and Approaches to Youth Work (no practice element) 4. Professional Development Award in Youth Work SCQF Level 7: HNC Working with Communities: Offered by a number of colleges across Scotland

	Graduate Diploma/MEd Adult Education, Community Development and Youth Work		
Sweden	0	0	1. Training for youth work is mainly provided by Swedish folk high schools (folkhögskolor) 2. Yrkesutbildning (vocational education) 3. The folk high schools provide a two-year study programme 4. Leisure leaders
Wales, UK	1. Four university-level courses in youth and community work (Glyndwr University; Trinity St Davids; University of South Wales; and Cardiff Metropolitan University) 2. Bachelors and masters degrees 3. For example, Bachelor at Cardiff Metropolitan University 3 years full-time	0	Diploma level studies for "youth support workers"

	4. For example, Youth and Community Work – BA (Hons); MA Working for Children and Young People		
Total	12	4	12

Table 8. Degree programmes on youth work (based on the revised practice architectures study).