

Contents

<i>Acknowledgements</i>	ix
Introduction: locating groupwork	1
1 Practice and potential	5
Introduction	5
Mapping groupwork	5
Realising groupwork's potential	10
Groupwork's effectiveness	14
The modernisation agenda	16
Mapping need	19
Practising groupwork	23
2 Practising groupwork values	27
Introduction	27
Towards an anti-oppressive values frame	29
Application of values to practice	30
Values informing group process	35
Values informing group content	37
Mandates for anti-oppressive practice	39
Conclusion	40
3 Types and purposes of groups	45
Introduction	45
What is a group?	45
Types of groups	50
Aims, purposes and uses of groupwork	57
Theoretical frameworks, styles of work and leadership	63
Conclusion	67

4 Planning the group	69
Introduction	69
Group membership	71
5 Planning group operation	89
Introduction	89
Setting	89
Duration and frequency	89
Contact between sessions	92
Recording	93
Methods	98
Leadership styles and roles	101
Factors external to the group	105
6 Preparing to facilitate or lead groups	109
Introduction	109
Co-leadership	110
Selecting a co-worker	114
Presenting co-work to the group	118
Preparing to work together	118
Conclusion	123
7 Working with groups	125
Introduction	125
The first meeting	125
Work within and between sessions	130
Stages in groups	135
Understanding interactions	140
Skills and roles	146
Conclusion	150
8 Supervision	151
Introduction	151
Supervision and consultation	151
Why supervision?	152
Choice of supervisor	157
The focus and content of supervision	160
Learning organisations	167
Conclusion	168

9 Evaluating and researching groupwork practice	171
Introduction	171
The mandates for evaluation	171
The evidence of effectiveness	173
Researching practice	174
Barriers	177
A framework for evaluating practice	181
Methods	183
Conclusion	186
10 Integrating groupwork into practice	187
Transforming experience through groupwork	187
Thinking groupwork	188
<i>Bibliography</i>	195
<i>Author index</i>	207
<i>Subject index</i>	211

1 | Practice and potential

Introduction

This chapter will map groupwork practice in social work and social care. It will survey current practice and identify groupwork's potential as an intervention, a strategy to effect change. This will include drawing upon research that provides evidence of groupwork's effectiveness. The contribution of groupwork to the modernisation agenda (DH, 1998) will be discussed.

Mapping groupwork

Groupwork continues to occupy a variable position within social work, sometimes central, sometimes peripheral, increasingly invisible. Within probation this has allowed Caddick (1991) to report that groupwork is well-established, while Senior (1991) has concluded that it has struggled to be located in the mainstream, partly because of managerial ambivalence about innovative practice.

For some practitioners groupwork represents a method of working effectively with a wide range of groups, a different approach to the challenges that confront them, and an antidote to casework's limitations in meeting people's needs. Its attractiveness lies in the value position it can enhance, a means of expressing and enhancing people's common humanity, and a commitment to social justice. It formalises a conviction that people can be understood and helped only when considered alongside the networks and systems in which they live, and that human services should connect and use the identification of people's strengths to address not just individual needs but also social divisions and structural inequalities.

For other practitioners, however, groupwork remains a peripheral or extracurricular activity on the fringe of social (care) work, something difficult to incorporate into overstretched workloads or to integrate within the traditional approach to the organisation of social services. Indeed, while it is difficult to establish the exact

6 | Effective groupwork

extent of groupwork practice (Doel and Sawdon, 2001), concern has been long-standing about the declining prospects for undertaking groupwork in many agencies (Smith, 1988) and about the disappearance of groupwork skills (Doel and Sawdon, 1999a). Ward (2002) asks where groupwork has gone.

One reason for this variable position, and perhaps decline, is that more often than not groupwork is another demanding responsibility placed on top of an already substantial workload and undertaken without supervision or amidst managerial scepticism. Jones (2001) has argued indeed that social workers are unsupported, overburdened and depleted physically and emotionally. Habermann (1993), offering a similar international perspective, implicates poor working conditions and large caseloads. It requires, therefore, a high degree of commitment and enthusiasm for any practitioner to contemplate groupwork and to establish a continuity of experience that allows the development of their skills and knowledge as groupworkers.

Both Ward (2002) and Doel and Sawdon (1999a) implicate managerialism and the growth of procedural rather than professional practice. Indeed, policy for practice emphasises conformity to regulations, management of precisely framed and time-limited tasks and achievement of prescribed performance targets and outcomes over relationships and informed use of methods and skills as part of a process. In their research, Marsh and Triseliotis (1996) found that students and newly qualified practitioners emphasised skilled process and interpersonal work in contrast to the pragmatic expectations of employers. Hardly surprising then that supervision should be criticised for being unconcerned with personal and professional needs or with theory (Preston-Shoot and Agass, 1990). Moreover, the impact of this practice change has been insidious. Barnes (2002), bemoaning alleged deficits in social workers' skills and methods and reporting that carers expect a mix of specialist and generic approaches, found social work preoccupied with risk assessment, objective-setting and monitoring rather than methods of intervention. The evidence, then, points to a demethoding and deskilling of social work, which allows other disciplines and professions to expand their use of groups (Kurland and Salmon, 1993).

Thus, groupwork is out of kilter in a disciplinary climate of preset objectives and audited outcomes (Ward, 2002) because, as Papell (1999) and Manor (1989) have also observed, groups have

a life of their own and may pose problems for agencies. Groupworkers cannot completely control them or determine the direction of change that develops. Indeed, they would perhaps wish to support people's right to express different meanings in the spirit of open inquiry, to validate the excitement of difference (Lordan, 1996). A commitment to anti-oppressive practice would certainly entail encouragement of recognition of different elements within a particular situation. However, by contrast, Brown (1996) notes that many workers are creating and facilitating groups when they are being oppressed rather than empowered by their employing agencies. This suggests other factors at play, and that groupwork retains a potential powerful enough to attract practitioners operating otherwise in a climate where social work has lost considerable control of the ends to which it is put and the means of achieving them.

Certainly unhelpful is the brief acknowledgement given to groupwork in qualifying courses and in-service training, which historically has meant practitioners feeling ill-equipped for the task (Davies, 1984). That policy surrounding social work education has all too often been ahistorical is demonstrated by the recurring theme of limited academic preparation as one reason for groupwork's decline (Reid, 1988). Marsh and Triseliotis (1996) found that groupwork was omitted from social work training for some students and that, while nearly three-quarters of their respondents spent some or a lot of time working with or in groups, only two-thirds felt adequately or well prepared for this task. Groupwork featured well behind family work, counselling and task-centred methods in the frequency of approaches and theoretical perspectives influencing practice.

Similarly, Mathias-Williams and Thomas (2002) found that final-year social work students gave groupwork far less prominence than conducting assessments, providing support and counselling, complying with legislation or providing information, when identifying their most important tasks. Barnes (2002) reports that students want their training to provide a greater understanding of methods of intervention. Arguing that social workers lack basic skills and that training must pay greater attention to their development, she reports that service users expect practitioners to have skills in and an ability to offer therapy work. Education and training, she suggests, should provide a deeper grounding in social work theory, methods of intervention and their practice application. However,

8 | Effective groupwork

when arguing for students needing to learn about and to practise skills, Barnes refers to cases. This betrays another constraint on groupwork's development, namely social work's casework inheritance – its focus on individual work and remedial or therapeutic problem-solving – which has meant that the development of groupwork skills and programmes has been a low priority for social workers (Heap, 1992). Some commentators (Papell, 1992; Habermann, 1993; Kurland and Salmon, 1993) implicate a continuing preoccupation with the individual and with intra-psyche rather than interpersonal issues. Brown (1996) sees primacy having been given to the individual rather than the collective, to the market rather than to justice. Perhaps reflecting its loss of confidence in attempting macro change, social work has retreated to privatising personal issues.

Nor does this appear to be a uniquely United Kingdom phenomenon. Both Habermann (1993) and Kurland and Salmon (1993) provide an international comparative perspective. Here too social groupwork is omitted from practice and from curricula, or is deemphasised, meaning that students never achieve learning beyond an introduction to the method. The outcome is a vicious circle: the less training practitioners receive, the less groupwork is practised, the less training is then identified as being required. Alternatively, the less training is provided, the more students and practitioners are likely to feel not yet competent and the less likely then groupwork is to be envisaged as an intervention.

Another obstacle lies in the interaction between workers and their employing agencies. Practitioners may feel that to practise professionally requires clarity and specificity concerning the aims of the proposed group and the formulation of a proposal according to the assessment of the workers. However, to obtain acceptance of the proposal to lead a group and to enlist the cooperation of colleagues, practitioners may feel constrained to devise a group that is acceptable to their agency and to refrain from being too specific. Indeed, ambivalent agency commitment features in the literature. For example, Mistry (1989) clearly describes the difficulties faced by workers in acquiring funding and in establishing groupwork as a credible different approach to familiar challenges. Lumley and Marchant (1989) noted the isolation of many groupworkers.

A further obstacle may lie in a deep personal ambivalence about groups. Groups are central to everyone's lived experience but that

experience may be mixed. If, as already implied, practitioners are concerned about their need for support and their lack of confidence, and anxious about what they perceive to be their limited skills and competence, they may also be ambivalent, even fearful about groups. Common fears include concern about a group's potential for destructiveness, about losing control or encountering unmanageable situations.

envisaging groupwork

Identify your feelings about groups and groupwork, namely:

1. What positive experiences have you had as a group member?
2. What negative experiences have you had as a group member?
3. What positive experiences have you had as a group leader or facilitator?
4. What negative experiences have you had as a group leader or facilitator?
5. What is the best and worst thing that could happen to you in a group?
6. What do you find easy in groups and what do you find particularly challenging?
7. What images of groups and groupwork have these experiences left you with?
8. To what degree, and why, have these experiences made it more or less likely that you will join groups or work with groups?

What is experienced, perhaps, is a series of push–pull factors. What drives people towards groups, such as the search for intimacy and connection, may also evoke anxiety. What keeps people away, such as a fear of rejection or a desire for autonomy and self-determination, may also evoke envy of the collective support apparently enjoyed by others. Pictures can graphically illustrate what might concern potential groupworkers: one individual speaking while other group members sleep; a groupworker acting as a go-between between two hostile subgroups; group members acting out 'difficult' behaviours while a groupworker looks lost; the power of the group that makes it difficult for an individual to raise an item or to voice a different opinion.

10 | Effective groupwork

Actual personal experiences in groups of competitiveness, conflict and (ab)use of power create representational models that are then transferred into new situations which are seen as if similar or identical to the original encounters. Sharing personal experiences of groups, and being open to unlearning and new learning in training and supervision, is a necessary preliminary.

Realising groupwork's potential

If one challenge resides in personal ambivalence about groups and groupwork, another is located in professional recognition of the coexistence of opposites. Groupwork can be a source of empowerment but also a site of social inequality to people's detriment (McLeod, 2003). This tension is captured vividly by the group sequences in the film *One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest*. People can find empowerment and liberation through group membership. They can, however, experience being seen as difficult and destructive.

putting into practice: mapping groupwork

Survey your present work experience and the available literature, to identify:

1. The advantages that groupwork offers.
2. The disadvantages that groupwork might involve.
3. Ways of maximising the advantages and minimising the disadvantages.

Breton (1991) points to the powerful dynamic and benefit of mutual aid, and groupwork's ability to engage marginalised populations. Empowerment can be derived from awakening and/or affirming people's capacity to help themselves and others, and from realising that socio-economic and political forces have shaped their difficulties. Shulman (1988) refers to the potential that can be derived from:

- Strength in numbers, giving service users power over behaviour, the helping process and the environment.
- The healing power of being in the same situation.

- Using group process to reach into difficult areas or deeper themes.

Kurland and Salmon (1993) refer to groupwork's unique potential to help members learn and benefit from diversity, difference and commonality, to overcome the impact of stereotypes and to experience group process as a powerful dynamic for change. These advantages are akin to Yalom's (1995) curative factors. Groupwork offers possibilities of cathartic release and interpersonal learning, of the installation of hope and creation of universality from the realisation of having problems and identities in common. Group cohesion and altruism may be derived from identity and support. Thus, using both the above exercises with students commonly elicits such positives as experiencing support, strength in numbers, learning and sharing. Groups can be liberating and empowering, not least because they can link the personal with the political.

However, negatives or disadvantages also commonly emerge. Groups are seen as vulnerable to subgroups and to domination and oppression by more powerful individuals. They can threaten individual identity, involve loss of autonomy and prove destructive. Groups may fail to develop or may lose a shared focus, or they may be locations for conformity and powerlessness that group pressure can engender. While a possible site for support, for developing people's resources and for learning from feedback and modelling, they can equally reinforce stigma and labelling.

These personal expressions are echoed in the literature, which reports anxiety and lack of confidence, fears and fantasies, linked to a perceived loss of power and control and to encountering powerful emotional dynamics (Reid, 1988; Habermann, 1993; Ward, 1993). These images may make it difficult to trust that group process and dynamics will produce positive benefits, and may make workers reluctant to abrogate their centrality as *the* helping person in the group. Kurland and Salmon (1993), moreover, refer to the possibility that group process can be used by those with power to enhance conformity. One particular aspect of this phenomenon is *groupthink* (Janis, 1972). Beneath apparent unanimity reside pressure to conform and intolerance of difference. These phenomena are reflected in routinised practice, an absence of criticism or fresh ideas, and a lack of questioning of goals or reflection on possible alternatives.

12 | Effective groupwork

Thus, leaders, facilitators and members hold groupwork's potential on scales. As Ward (2002) comments: groupwork can prove a source of different perspectives, support, power, information exchange, hope, belonging, role models and feedback. It can provide opportunities to learn and test skills, to help and be helped. It can break down isolation and be a place to experience power. Groups can empower, for instance when rooted in values of anti-oppressive practice which link private and public spheres and self-determined action. However, groupwork can be characterised by one-to-one treatment with onlookers or by a focus on individuals rather than on oppressive social conditions. Groups can compound disadvantage and discrimination if provision is not conducive to cultural needs. Brown (1996) adds that the increasing use of off-the-shelf groupwork packages can mean that members are fitted into preset parameters rather than a group shaped by interaction between people in a manner responsive to their needs. Such highly task-oriented groups often give minimum attention to group process and dynamics. They may provide a sense of security for groupworkers but need to be used flexibly and creatively if the benefits of working with people in a group are to be maximised.

Commonality, as a feature of groups, can also work both ways. Hill (2001) observes that members may experience relief when they find others with similar experiences, feelings and understanding. Groups can then prove a setting for hope, for learning and growth, for giving as well as receiving. However, Cohen and Mullender (2003) argue that the degree of commonality between people and their goals, and the extent to which people move towards progress, can be exaggerated. Pease (2003) goes even further, in another echo of groupthink, suggesting that commonality can lead to collusion.

How the scales tip will depend on groupworkers' values and knowledge, both in espoused theory and as theory-in-use. Nonetheless, groupwork's positive potential is now embedded in the national occupational standards for social work (TOPSS, 2002). Social workers must in future be prepared for and capable of working in groups to assess their circumstances and needs. They must be able to manage risk to groups and to plan, carry out, review and evaluate practice with groups. The standards further require them to:

- Help groups to make informed decisions.
- Sustain support networks.
- Advocate with groups.
- Assist people to become involved in settings where decisions are made.
- Help groups achieve planned outcomes for members and evaluate their work.
- Work with groups to promote individual growth, development and independence.
- Identify opportunities to form and support groups.

Values for such practice include demonstrating respect for and promoting the dignity and privacy of groups and communities; recognising and respecting diversity, expertise and experiences in groups and communities; and maintaining trust and confidence.

Nor can social (care) practitioners work as members of organisations without groupwork knowledge and skills for managing practice and working in teams. Thus, graduating social workers must not only be competent in helping people to gain, regain and/or maintain control of their own lives, and to understand and challenge inequality and discrimination, in which groupwork may be purposeful. They must also be knowledgeable about factors that facilitate effective interdisciplinary, interprofessional, inter-agency collaboration and partnership, and skilled in interacting within this context (QAA, 2000). This reinforces an earlier observation (Marchant, 1988) that learning to be a worker in a group is insufficient. Practitioners also need to be competent members of groups. This involves understanding processes operating in groups and skills in negotiating group and intergroup relationships in order to attain desired goals. The relevance, then, of groupwork should be obvious when considering that social work's key purpose (IASSW, 2001) is to promote social change, to solve problems in human relationships, and to enable empowerment and liberation of people to enhance their well-being. This is a transformative agenda of change in people's intrapersonal, interpersonal and social worlds. It is an agenda wherein groupwork knowledge, values and skills can be useful in all three major strands of social work (Payne, 1997):

- Reflexive-therapeutic – working for the well-being of individuals, groups and communities, by promoting growth

14 | Effective groupwork

and self-fulfilment and enabling a fuller understanding of self and person-in-relationship with others.

- Socialist collective – using cooperation and mutual support to empower, to challenge oppression and to seek social justice.
- Individualist–reformist – using services to meet people’s needs, to help them cope with their lives.

Perhaps, indeed, the possibilities for using groups are bounded only by the levels of awareness, imagination and groupwork skills possessed by staff, and by the support or advisory structures available to groupworkers (Mullender, 1990).

Groupwork’s effectiveness

Evidence-based practice in pursuit of effective social work is now emphasised by government and professions alike. Humphreys *et al.* (2003) conceive of a triangle of research, practitioner and service user perspectives to inform practice. Journals and book chapters certainly provide substantial evidence of practitioner evaluations of groupwork’s effectiveness. To varying degrees they also give voice to service user perspectives. However, some writers (Matzat, 1993; Hopmeyer and Werk, 1993, for example) note a lack of research and an urgent need for comparative studies to maximise the beneficial aspects of groupwork and to collect data for theory-building.

The nature of the research evidence is variable in support of claims of effectiveness. Sometimes the evidence appears anecdotal, even aspirational in tone, because evaluations summarise beneficial outcomes. More rare is where group episodes are identified to illustrate change, or where members articulate the difference a group has made for them. Rarer still is an evaluation of outcome by means of establishing a baseline with group members and then repeating the measures at intervals during and after the group’s conclusion. Evaluative research on outcomes of groupwork practice and its conceptual base is scarce, making it difficult to advance groupwork as the intervention of choice or to distinguish between the merits of different options when planning and facilitating groups (Preston-Shoot, 2004). Locating the evidence for groupwork’s relevance and value must be an imperative if it is to capture the space opened up by the social policy concern with effectiveness and quality, and to respond fully to the requirement (DH, 1998) that services should be evidence-based.

Claims are made for groupwork's powerful potential for individual and social change (Papell, 1992). On balance the evidence for individual change appears stronger than that for social change, perhaps because social (care) work is more likely to focus there. However, DeLois (2003) provides a groupwork account where members and facilitator owned inequalities, identified commonalities, focused on strengths and built a language of power and possibility, in so doing changing the nature of their interrelationships within and beyond the group. Mullender and Ward (1991) offer examples of self-directed groupwork making a difference in how agencies responded to group members. They and Ni Chorcora *et al.* (1994) demonstrate that groupworkers can develop partnerships with service users while working from state social work agencies, and can change existing power relations in the direction of promoting real dialogue and collaboration.

Nonetheless, if groupwork does make a difference to outcomes (Cohen and Mullender, 2003), then it is more often in the realm of intrapersonal and interpersonal change. Thus, bereavement groups (Hopmeyer and Werk, 1993) enable members to gain friends, voice feelings, share hopes and strengths, and find connection and support. They can find new ideas and understanding, and information on additional sources of help. The benefits are those of commonality, normalisation, solidarity, reciprocity and control.

Similarly, Hill (2001) provides evidence of the vital role of peer support in a group focusing on sexual abuse. It provided a safe and non-judgemental forum in which powerful emotions could be expressed and addressed, which often members had been unable individually to share with social workers. Once again, commonality with others, the hope and experience of moving on and the opportunity to talk through issues and difficulties, appear to change thinking and to be genuinely therapeutic and empowering.

Kohli (1993), working with deaf people, sees groupwork reducing the negative impact of attitudes and enabling increased insight into personal difficulties. The outcome is an opportunity to voice demands for social change and also an improvement in interpersonal functioning. Garrett (1995), working in a closed institution, found that groupwork could be humanising, could change behavioural norms and could reduce trauma. In a prison it could provide a community of enquiry based on listening and a deepening of respect, and provide learning that was experienced rather than taught.

Both self-help groups and worker-led or facilitated groups (Bodinham and Weinstein, 1991; Matzat, 1993; McKernan McKay *et al.*, 1996) can secure changes in self-perception and in how problems or issues are conceptualised. This is because group experience boosts self-esteem and growth, enabling people to feel stronger and more confident. It increases people's networks and contacts, reducing their isolation, and it increases their skills in resolving intra- and interpersonal conflicts. Group experience enables members to review their own situation – finding commonality, helping others, watching and listening to others (the influence of modelling) provide a different context through which to view one's own position. Group experience enables members to become agents of change for each other – providing support and challenge, (re)discovering resilience and strengths. It introduces people to different ideas and to the powerful potential of a collective. Finally, it can link private troubles with public policy and social issues.

The modernisation agenda

Social (care) work is being reconfigured by a whole raft of policy initiatives which stem from a White Paper (DH, 1998). Particular emphasis is being given to the provision of needs-led services that offer consistent quality and ensure that clients are safeguarded from poor practice. The promotion of people's independence is one clear aim; another is inclusion and involvement in service planning and development; a third is the promotion of choice in what services are selected. Targets for change include energising partnership working between organisations and service sectors, and with clients and their carers, and raising the status of social work. Evidence of the latter may be seen in the introduction of the three-year degree as the route to a licence to practise, registration, and acceptance of an expansive IASSW definition (2001) of social work's role and tasks.

Yet there is a contradiction. The policy context for practice is also characterised by exclusion, anxiety and control, especially concerning asylum seekers, people with mental distress and young offenders. Insecurity and fear, amplified by media and political comment, about the location and level of risk, mean that these groups are marginalised, perceived as dangerous, and/or demonised and dehumanised. With such groups social work is increasingly given a narrow role of risk assessment, surveillance and resource

rationing. More generally, social work is increasingly being governed ideologically and technically (Lymbery, 2001) through the imposition of targets, regulations and standards, with best practice arguably distorted by the need to meet imposed indicators of effective performance (Preston-Shoot, 2001).

To this complex and contested landscape, where service users may also be sceptical of the policy language that offers choice and needs-led services, may be added the tension between practitioners and managers, at least in terms of what they prioritise. Research (Marsh and Triseliotis, 1996; Barnes, 2002) continues to highlight that practitioners emphasise process, interpersonal skills, knowledge from empirical research and methods of intervention. Managers emphasise procedural and instrumental skills, knowledge of the law and performance of agency procedures. Clients and carers, also, value process and relationships. However, mindfulness of the affective component of social work, including groupwork, fits ill with the new managerialism that values command and control, output measures and agency-defined tasks, even sometimes at the expense of ethical and/or lawful practice (Preston-Shoot, 2000).

The modernisation agenda could render groupwork's place in state social work agencies more fragile, or at least restrict its ability to embrace social change goals. Thus, agencies may only be prepared to support groups that address government-imposed standards or service objectives. In relation to work with offenders, this is highly likely to mean groups that aim to prevent reoffending, that focus on an individual's needs and behaviours (Caddick, 1991). What is lost here is the dual perspective – individual and society, or individual-in-situation – which acknowledges and seeks to address the impact of the socio-economic context on people's needs and behaviour. A policy agenda of individual responsibility does not fit easily alongside social work's advocacy that understanding people's behaviour and needs must include attention to the impact of a lack of power and conditions of disadvantage. Groupworkers, to counter a narrowing of envisaged roles for social (care) workers and for groupwork, will have to seek those spaces (Preston-Shoot, 2003a) through which a plurality of focus can be maintained, the voices of service users heard, and the personal and political connected. One space may be found in partnership with service users and carers, building on their reported experiences. Another resides in the evidence-based practice agenda, enabling practitioners to

18 | Effective groupwork

restate how research should inform practice and to challenge how policy and services are configured and delivered. A third space is found, therefore, in the research literature, in empirical and conceptual accounts of practice, and in evaluation methodologies.

Nonetheless, the picture is not entirely bleak. Accountability is one clear theme within the modernisation agenda. Here groupwork can make an important contribution, particularly through a commitment to anti-oppressive practice. Thus, the codes of practice for social (care) workers (GSCC, 2002) refer, *inter alia*, to protecting the rights of service users and carers, to promoting their interests, and to supporting them to control their lives and make informed decisions. From the previous discussion of the positive outcomes of groupwork practice, it will be clear how, for example, groupworkers can facilitate self-directed groups to secure goals that members value. The power that comes from harnessing a group's resources might enable members, with or without the assistance of groupworkers, to advocate for their rights and interests. The requirement in the codes to maintain the trust and confidence of service users and carers may, for example, be achieved by the use of protocols concerning confidentiality and the use of positional or statutory authority, by shared recording, and by clear contractual agreements about values and roles.

Indeed, the Association for the Advancement of Social Work with Groups (AASWG, 1999) has produced a set of standards for groupwork practice. While it assumes a traditional groupwork model rather than also embracing self-directed or other models where groupworkers are facilitators rather than leaders, it is nonetheless a welcome statement because it identifies groupworker tasks at different group phases. It also sees the group as the primary source of change, using helping relationships, and considers mutual aid to be central to groupwork practice. The groupworker's role is to help members achieve the goals *they* have established for themselves. There is an emphasis on empowerment, on group goals emphasising both individual growth and social change, with the groupworker promoting individual and group autonomy. Groupworker–member relationships are to be characterised by egalitarianism and reciprocity.

In other respects, too, groupwork may have an important contribution to make to the modernisation agenda, as Table 1.1 illustrates.

Table 1.1 Connecting groupwork with modernisation

<i>Key principles from Modernising Social Services (DH, 1998)</i>	<i>Examples of how groupwork may contribute to the realisation of principles</i>
Services should promote people's independence and respect their dignity	Values, knowledge and skills that aim to realize groupwork's beneficial outcomes – promoting resilience, strengths, resources, capacity and power
Services should meet people's specific needs	Manage problem-solving, manage transitions and change processes
People should have a voice in services that are provided and how	Values of, and practice using, self-directed groupwork; theories explaining group and organisational behaviour, adaptation and change
Services should be underpinned by clear and acceptable standards that are enforceable	Standards for groupwork practice; methods of intervention, including knowledge of factors guiding choice and evaluation of them
Coordination between agencies and professional groupings	Knowledge and skills for forming learning organisations and new working partnerships and interprofessional teams. Understanding what promotes cooperation within and between teams, groups and organisations
Flexibility and responsiveness	User and carer involvement; promotion of self-directed and self-help groups. Developing relationships and partnerships that facilitate change. Attention to themes from group process and dynamics
Quality	Researching and evaluating outputs and outcomes
Role clarity	Standards for groupwork practice

Mapping need

The modernisation proposals (DH, 1998) are based on a ministerial conclusion that many social services departments were not identifying trends in need or demand, and were unable to adequately

20 | Effective groupwork

assess and prioritise need. Systems of support for children and families and for vulnerable people such as those fleeing domestic oppression, survivors of mental distress, homeless people, and adults requiring support to maintain life in the community (for example, older people and learning disabled people) were not needs-led. Additionally there were gaps in provision.

Other researchers have also found that most agencies did not understand the pattern of need and were struggling to quantify volume and type of services required. Government inspections have also concluded that local authorities continue to have significant gaps in information and that their track record on involving other agencies is poor (SSI, 1999). They struggle to survey and identify at-risk or vulnerable groups, or to systematically analyse unmet need.

Subsequently, planning and the assessment of need have become core features of the modernisation agenda – to secure better services, to obtain better outcomes for service users, to focus service development, and to facilitate community and individual capacity-building and social inclusion. Local authorities have been charged with profiling need and reviewing provision. They must identify groups for whom provision is missing or inadequate, prioritising the meeting of needs of groups at risk of harm or presenting the possibility of risk of harm.

However, assessment of needs is complicated by uncertainty about what should be measured and by the difficulty of knowing how to ‘capture’ it. Further challenges arise from the likelihood that actual and potential service users, carers, and health and welfare practitioners and managers will hold divergent perspectives. Various stakeholders’ definitions of need will represent different but interacting ways of thinking about need and of determining approaches to outcomes (Godfrey and Callaghan, 2000). Nonetheless, identifying and responding to need have always been a core component for effective groupwork and there are various methodologies that can be employed to research needs in order to inform service development. These include:

- Community needs profiling (Green, 2000) – focusing on issues such as poverty, housing and unemployment, to provide information on micro and macro levels. Data collected may challenge established views of particular localities or groups.

They can inform practice by, for instance, highlighting where groupwork and other service developments can strengthen existing networks or create new provision.

- Social audit (Percy-Smith, 1992) – an approach to policy formation and evaluation, assessing the extent to which objectives have been achieved. It provides information, including measures of shortfall between need and resources. It can pinpoint formal and informal assets in communities, thereby contributing to assessing their actual and latent capacity to promote people's well-being (LASSL (2000)).
- Needs assessment (Percy-Smith, 1996) – provides data on the relationship of need to social problems and on outcomes, for example by comparing and contrasting the perspectives of service users, their carers and the professionals involved with them. It can generate data on the effectiveness of current means being employed to secure desired outcomes.
- Service take-up data (Hare *et al.*, 2002) – identifying people known to agencies and considered vulnerable, at risk or in need. Combined with community profiling, it can highlight geographic areas where there are high levels of need and/or service take-up, and where more input appears indicated.

If these methodologies can be employed to identify the range and level of need, from which to devise targets and objectives, how can groupworkers map need? Green (2000) lists a number of methods, namely interviews, surveys, focus groups, observation and use of secondary data (statistics, census information, service take-up rates). A population profile, using primary research and secondary sources, may not be possible for most groupworkers because of questions of cost. Equally, for some service user groups at least, it may not be appropriate because the incidence of need is likely to be low and, therefore, a random sample is likely to produce a lot of redundant information. Response rates may prove problematic and there is a limit to the volume of data that can be collected by questionnaires. However, groupworkers can research professional judgements about people who may be 'in need' and can triangulate these data with those obtained from interviews with actual service users and from a picture of referrals to different agencies.

Focus groups can prove a more efficient way of collecting information than individual interviews (Raynes *et al.*, 2001).

22 | Effective groupwork

Considerable information can be collected in a short time frame while enabling respondents to be part of a support system when discussing issues that could prove sensitive or difficult (Walton, 1996). They facilitate exploration of experiences and access views, for example of services and gaps in provision, and how these might be remedied, from marginalised populations whose voices can be silenced, obscured or misrepresented in surveys. They enable experts by experience to feel more comfortable in responding than might be the case in individual interviews, where the power imbalance between worker and respondent is starker, and allow them to offer creative insights into attitudes, feelings and experience. Such rich qualitative data can enhance policy and practice development.

putting into practice: auditing needs

What questions might you want to research about the needs of a client group with which you work? To answer these questions, what groups exist with which you might interact to gain additional perspectives? What focus groups might you create for the purpose of answering your research questions?

Focus groups are a structured and disciplined method of promoting voice and engaging people in sharing expertise and experience (Swift, 1996) and in compiling and analysing data (Ward, 1996). However, focus groups do require active facilitation to overcome any problems with dominant individuals and to keep participants focused on specific topics and questions (Home, 1996).

Need, however, is a slippery concept since it involves distinguishing between normative need (defined by experts), felt and expressed need (an individual's personal assessment) and comparative need (defined against a standard) (Bradshaw, 1972). The more sources from which information can be gathered, the more needs can be triangulated, that is, mapped against these different distinctions (Percy-Smith, 1992). This will help to ensure that definitions of need do not lapse into a service-led or professional-led approach, and an expert-led model of service development (Everitt *et al.*,

1992) where how questions to be asked are formulated and how issues are constructed are quite likely to reflect dominant power structures (Fisher, 2002). Incorporating a service user perspective locates clients and communities as 'knowers', thereby aligning research with emancipatory and anti-oppressive practice, concerned with the redistribution of power.

So, how do groupworkers know that a problem or need exists? How do they know that it is *this* problem or need that should be prioritised? How does their research lend empirical support to identified need (Kolbo *et al.*, 1997/98), and what does the research reveal about sources of support or resistance to their proposed approach? In other words, how do they know that the need for their proposed group is real (Doel and Sawdon, 2001)? It is to this and other practice questions that the focus now turns.

Practising groupwork

The next eight chapters will take the reader through planning, leading or facilitating, and managing groups. They will contain evidence from research and from groupworkers' own accounts to cement the links between theory and practice.

The term 'groupwork' complicates the situation since it is an all-encompassing description of activities which vary from group therapy and social groupwork to social action, self-help and consciousness-raising. Some groups are problem-centred, others are not. The intention may be to alleviate social isolation, to prepare people for new experiences, to resolve or prevent problems, or to provide some form of learning opportunity. There are a variety of theoretical frameworks and leadership styles so that it can be difficult to identify which knowledge base is the most appropriate. Some approaches emphasise individual-centred aims and focus on the needs and reactions of individuals. Others stress the importance of group-centred aims or social change goals. These groups may concentrate on attempting to change social attitudes towards group members or to tap members' capabilities, which are overshadowed in other social work methods that emphasise individual needs. The result is that groupwork can appear a daunting enterprise.

Numerous practice-related questions confront practitioners wishing to explore groupwork:

24 | Effective groupwork

- Which clients might benefit from which types of groups?
- How might the group be presented to potential members so as to engage them?
- How should members be selected and the length of the group determined?
- What guidelines are available on forming a group?
- What should be a group's focus and how might groupwork become an economical use of resources?
- How can groupworkers include all the group's members and keep to the format of the group?
- How might groupworkers enable a group to become self-supporting and hand back the leadership role to members?
- How might groups mirror social divisions, for example those of 'race' and gender, and how might groupworkers practise anti-oppressively?

Immediately, however, how these questions are formulated betrays assumptions, for example that groups are formed by social (care) workers who select members. Other questions, perhaps, hint at roles for both members and groupworkers in planning and facilitating the group's focus. The presumption here is that there is no one groupwork theory or practice. Rather, the challenge for groupworkers is to find their own theory of practice, and to (re)discover their own groupwork voice. Models, such as those offered in this section, describe what *might* happen, not what *should* happen (Schiller, 2003). In that sense, complexity has replaced simplicity in groupwork theory-building, which should not be interpreted as necessarily either unidirectional or neatly segmented from inspiration to conclusion. There is no one size fits all (Williams, 2003).

Indeed, Mullender and Ward (1989) deliberately set out to challenge familiar assumptions through their advocacy of self-directed groupwork. Here the emphasis is on facilitation rather than leadership by groupworkers. How the group is conducted – issues of frequency, location, focus and timing of meetings – is negotiated. Members are not selected but are more generally part of already existing groups, or are approached.

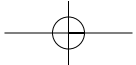
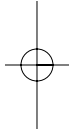
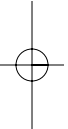
Theory is essential for informed practice, while practice should evaluate and inform theory, a circular process of making sense of experience. Every practitioner carries around theories and belief systems which determine what is looked for and the sense made of

experiences. These beliefs are shaped by gender, 'race', culture, socialisation and training. If not acknowledged and critically appraised, they can box in a practitioner. In place of curiosity, a dialogue with oneself and with others, there is a bias that can result in the dismissal of possibilities.

putting into practice: personal reflection

- What do you believe about groups?
- Who or what has helped shape these beliefs?
- To which groups have you previously belonged? What has this membership 'taught' you about groups? How do you carry this experience into those groups of which you are a part today?
- What knowledge, values and understanding characterise your approach to groupwork practice?
- What experiences have contributed to your particular formulation of groupwork practice?

Theory, then, should be less a forced march and more a map of walkways, offering different standpoints from which to understand complex terrain. This book, therefore, aims to set out some basic questions and to attempt some answers; it also aims to enhance the reader's awareness of the issues and sense of the feasibility of groupwork. It offers a practice guide for social (care) workers either involved or interested in groupwork. With its emphasis on promoting skills in the preparation for and leadership or facilitation of groups, on what promotes effective planning and evaluation of groupwork, the book aims to equip groupworkers with a structure for practice and to bring some sense to a complex process. Each chapter that follows will outline key practice issues and offer some guidelines. There will generally be no differentiation between social (care) work settings, types of groups, or 'client' groups since the skills and tasks involved are substantially the same and the framework applicable whatever the setting or type of group envisaged. Rather, the stages and processes of groupwork will be described.



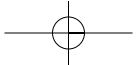
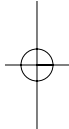
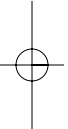
Author index

- Adams, R. 39
 Arnstein, S. 37
 Association for the Advancement of
 Social Work with Groups 18,
 174, 183
 Audit Commission 3
- Barnes, B. *et al.* 176, 178
 Barnes, J. 6, 7, 8, 17, 40, 180
 Barnett, S. *et al.* 184
 Behroozi, C. 84, 85, 136
 Bensted, J. *et al.* 62, 91, 98, 127,
 148, 151, 168
 Berger, R. 183
 Bion, W. 63, 146
 Blacklock, N. 98, 112, 113, 119
 Bodinham, H. and Weinstein, J. 16,
 133, 139
 Bradshaw, J. 22
 Braye, S. and Preston-Shoot, M. 31,
 37, 39, 40, 104, 126, 127, 132,
 147, 149, 172, 187, 189
 Breton, M. 10, 61, 70, 75, 89, 90,
 105, 106, 130, 141, 149
 Brown, A. 1, 3, 7, 12, 28, 30, 46, 64,
 81, 98, 106, 147, 173, 180, 187
 Brown, A. *et al.* 28, 49, 62, 66
 Burgess, H. and Taylor, I. 189
- Caddick, B. 5, 17, 28, 59, 62, 90
 Carpenter, J. 181, 188
 Clarke, J. *et al.* 3
 Clarke, P. and Aimable, A. 177
 Cohen, M. 36, 55, 80, 81
 Cohen, M. and Mullender, A. 12, 15,
 39, 65
 Cowburn, M. 172
 Craig, E. 185
 Craig, R. 183
- Davies, M. 7
 DeLois, K. 15, 173
- Department of Health 1, 3, 5, 14, 16,
 19, 39, 40, 93, 171
 Dixon, G. and Phillips, M. 184
 Doel, M. 167, 188
 Doel, M. and Sawdon, C. 6, 23, 47,
 49, 59, 67, 69, 84, 85, 91, 98,
 104, 105, 106, 109, 110, 126,
 145, 147, 149, 167, 176, 184, 188
 Donnellan, P. 122
 Douglas, T. 98, 101, 102, 105, 109,
 126, 127, 128, 135, 136, 140,
 145, 150, 176
 Dowling, E. 103
- Everitt, A. *et al.* 22
- Fatout, M. 66, 130, 187
 Fisher, M. 1, 23, 174
 Fitzsimmons, J. and Levy, R. 77, 150,
 155
- Garrett, P. 15, 173
 General Social Care Council 3, 18,
 39, 151, 174
 Gobat, H. 154
 Godfrey, M. and Callaghan, G. 20
 Gordon, K. 175, 179
 Green, R. 20, 21
 Grindley, G. 101, 183
 Groves, P. and Schondel, C. 33, 38,
 65, 79, 91, 99, 112, 148
 Gutierrez, L. 35, 39
- Habermann, U. 6, 8, 11, 55, 58, 131,
 147, 178
 Hadlow, J. 183, 185
 Hare, P. *et al.* 21
 Harry, R. *et al.* 175, 185
 Hartford, M. 50
 Hayden, A. *et al.* 84, 98, 99, 100,
 106, 127
 Heap, K. 4, 8, 39, 106, 173, 188

208 | Author index

- Henchman, D. and Walton, S. 151, 186
- Henry, M. 75, 135, 136
- Hill, A. 12, 15, 55, 132, 134, 147, 173
- Hodge, J. 67, 80, 94, 113, 114, 115, 116, 118, 119, 120, 127, 134, 135, 137, 164
- Home, A. 22
- Hopmeyer, E. and Werk, A. 14, 15, 75, 79, 82, 105, 112, 149, 173, 184
- Humphreys, C. *et al.* 14, 179, 180, 186
- Hunt, G. 2
- International Association of Schools of Social Work 3, 13, 16, 39
- James, A. 3
- Janis, I. 11
- Johnson, P. *et al.* 175, 179
- Jones, C. 6
- Kohli, K. 15, 80, 173
- Kolbo, J. *et al.* 23, 106, 180, 184
- Kurland, R. and Salmon, R. 6, 8, 11, 47, 173, 178
- Laming, H. 2
- LASSL (Local Authority Social Services Letter) 21
- Lebacqz, M. and Shah, Z. 58, 61, 69, 79, 105, 112, 119, 153, 157, 159, 183
- Lee, J. 30, 35, 37, 38, 39, 61, 65, 173
- Lizzio, A. and Wilson, K. 125, 126, 127, 130, 147, 149
- Loosley, S. and Mullender, A. 117
- Lordan, N. 7, 28, 98, 100, 113, 146, 148, 168
- Lumley, J. and Marchant, H. 8, 28, 142, 143
- Lymbery, M. 17
- Maggs-Rapport, E. 174, 179
- Malekoff, A. 130, 149, 153, 156, 166
- Manor, O. 6, 84, 86, 88, 165, 177, 182
- Marchant, H. 13
- Marsh, P. and Triseliotis, J. 6, 7, 17, 110, 177, 180
- Masson, H. and Erooga, M. 184
- Mathias-Williams, R. and Thomas, N. 7, 177
- Matzat, J. 14, 16, 55, 131, 173
- Mayer, J. and Timms, N. 94
- McLeod, E. 10, 67
- McKernan McKay, M. *et al.* 16, 56
- Mistry, T. 8, 28, 62, 65, 79, 89, 106, 119, 130, 147, 154, 183
- Mistry, T. and Brown, A. 112, 114, 116, 117, 118, 119, 151
- Muir, L. and Notta, H. 184
- Mullender, A. 4, 14, 61, 62, 66, 74, 152, 154, 172, 183, 184, 185, 187
- Mullender, A. and Ward, D. 15, 24, 28, 29, 39, 49, 56, 71, 75, 79, 102, 131, 137, 139, 148, 151, 154, 166, 168, 173
- Mulvie, C. 172
- Ni Chorcora, M. *et al.* 15, 38, 173, 174, 184
- Nosko, A. and Breton, M. 29, 66, 70, 120, 131, 153
- O'Connor, I. 178
- Otway, O. and Peake, A. 179, 181, 184
- Papell, C. 6, 8, 15, 127, 147, 150
- Papell, C. and Rothman, B. 50
- Pawson, R. *et al.* 174
- Payne, M. 13
- Peake, A. ad Otway, O. 175
- Pease, B. 12, 38, 81, 154, 167
- Pennells, M. 178, 180
- Percy-Smith, J. 21, 22
- Phillips, J. 176
- Pollio, D. 4, 171, 181
- Preston-Shoot, M. 2, 3, 4, 14, 17, 27, 31, 40, 48, 73, 74, 87, 93, 94, 106, 107, 112, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 133, 152, 175, 176, 182, 183
- Preston-Shoot, M. and Agass, D. 6, 169
- Pugh, G. and De'Ath, E. 37
- Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education 13, 178
- Raynes, N. *et al.* 21
- Read, J. and Clements, L. 189

- Read, S. *et al.* 184
 Reder, P. and Duncan, S. 2
 Reder, P. *et al.* 2
 Reid, K. 7, 11, 47, 152, 177
 Reynolds, J. and Shackman, J. 114,
 119, 151
 Rhule, C. 174
 Rice, S. and Goodman, C. 81
 Ross, S. 139, 167, 183
- Schiller, L. 24, 33, 136, 154
 Schneewind, E. 55, 74, 75, 89, 137,
 139, 148, 179
 Senior, P. 5, 28, 36, 106
 Sheppard, D. 2
 Shulman, L. 4, 10, 85
 Smith, P. 6
 Springer, D. *et al.* 69, 147, 173
 SSI (Social Services Inspectorate) 20
 Stratton, P. *et al.* 100, 102, 142
 Sunderland, C. 90, 100
 Swift, P. 22
 Szmagalski, J. 183
- Taylor, J. *et al.* 185
 Thiara, R. 81
 Towl, G. and Dexter, P. 171, 179, 182
- Training Organisation for the Personal
 Social Services 12, 93, 178
 Tribe, R. 74, 154, 156, 161
 Tribe, R. and Shackman, J. 177
 Tuckman, B. 136
 Turkie, A. 133, 141, 150
- Vernelle, B. 140, 141, 147, 154, 156,
 168, 189
- Walter, I. *et al.* 3
 Walton, P. 22
 Ward, A. 4, 11, 167, 187
 Ward, D. 2, 6, 12, 22, 47, 59
 Ward, D. and Mullender, A. 66,
 149
 Waterhouse, R. 2
 Weinstein, J. 79, 100, 102
 Weisen, R. 184
 Whitaker, D. 48, 52, 63, 81, 111,
 113, 115, 117, 177, 180
 Whitaker, D. and Archer, L. 180
 Williams, M. 110, 166
 Williams, O. 24
 Wintram, C. *et al.* 174
- Yalom, I. 11, 77, 112, 113, 161



Subject index

- accountability 3, 18, 93, 128, 156,
164, 165, 171
 agency context 49
 anti-oppressive practice 1, 7, 12, 18,
23, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 35, 38, 40,
43, 65, 70, 73, 152
 attendance 95, 105, 175, 185
 authority 18, 33, 34, 41, 42, 69, 107,
111, 112, 117, 118, 127, 128, 132,
133, 135, 137, 142, 148, 160, 187

 balance 70, 117, 147, 190
 behavioural groupwork 64
 bereavement groups 15, 82, 105, 181

 Care Standards Act 2000 2
 central, edge position 39, 55, 125,
134, 138, 146, 147, 148
 Children Act 1989 40
 Children Act 2004 2, 40
 circular questioning 100, 101, 143, 144
 codes of conduct, practice 3, 18, 34,
39, 151, 174
 collusion 81, 117, 118, 119, 153,
154, 163
 communication 39, 64, 88, 98, 100,
112, 117, 122, 126, 127, 132,
137, 141, 149, 157, 191
 compulsion 48, 85, 136
 confidentiality 18, 78, 83, 94, 105,
127, 130, 164, 165
 conflict 43, 131, 134, 146, 163, 166,
191
 consolidation 91
 consultation 123, 131, 151, 152,
157, 159, 164, 167, 194
 contracts 18, 48, 82, 87, 88, 106,
129, 136, 158, 160, 185
 co-work 86, 97, 99, 110, 111, 112,
113, 115, 123, 125, 131, 133,
134, 135, 140, 153, 156, 158,
162, 163, 166

 Crime and Disorder Act 1998 1
 curiosity 102, 133, 136, 149, 176

 Data Protection Act 1998 93
 dependency 145, 146
 domestic oppression 20, 62, 154
 domination 144
 duration 46, 57, 138, 164

 empowerment 1, 10, 12, 13, 18, 29,
30, 31, 32, 34, 35, 36, 38, 39, 42,
43, 61, 67, 70, 74, 106, 127, 131,
132, 138, 152
 ending 139, 140, 172, 173
 evaluation 12, 14, 18, 19, 43, 82, 94,
104, 105, 107, 129, 138, 139,
140, 161, 165, 167, 171, 172,
173, 175, 176, 178, 192
 evidence 3, 14, 15, 17, 93, 107, 171,
172, 173, 174, 180

 facilitation 24, 29, 32, 35, 36, 37,
56, 101, 102, 131, 133, 145, 148,
152, 154, 169, 190
 fears 9, 11, 110, 121, 152, 159, 162,
166
 feminism 65, 154
 focus groups 21, 22, 128, 129
 follow-up 173, 176, 178, 182, 183,
185, 189

 games 64, 98, 185
 gender 24, 25, 27, 28, 36, 40, 43, 72,
79, 80, 81, 112, 117, 119
 goals 47, 48, 52, 56, 63, 87, 155
 ground rules 127
 group size 4
 group stages 4, 91, 131, 135, 159,
160, 161, 162, 164, 167, 188,
190
 groupthink 11, 12
 groupwork 4, 174, 175, 176

212 | Subject index

- Health Act 1999 1
 Health and Social Care Act 2001 1
 Human Rights Act 1998 40, 93
- illuminative paradigm 175, 179
 inquiries 2, 174
 institutional racism and sexism 49, 71
 internalized oppression 29, 38, 58,
 70, 85, 99, 133
- joining 85, 105, 125, 126, 129, 136
- leadership 122, 139, 190, 192
 legislation 7, 40, 132
 location 89
- managerialism 4, 6, 17, 186
 metaphor 100
 modernization agenda 3, 5, 16, 17,
 18, 19, 20, 171, 172, 180, 193
- national occupational standards 12,
 178
 need 20, 21, 22, 49, 164, 167
 neutrality 92, 101, 102
- observation 21, 148, 150, 167, 176,
 179, 184
 off-the-shelf packages 12, 90, 98, 130
 offenders 3, 16, 17, 28, 31, 32, 48,
 54, 59, 60, 62, 65, 81, 98, 114,
 147, 151
 offering groupwork 45, 57, 84, 86,
 87, 105
 open groups 45, 55, 57, 74, 75, 136,
 137, 179
- partnership 1, 13, 15, 16, 17, 30, 36,
 37, 40, 42, 43, 70, 72, 83, 93, 94,
 102, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118,
 119, 128, 131, 132, 135, 138,
 152, 173, 193, 194
 patience 133, 150
 personal profiles 86, 87, 120, 159
 planning 1, 20, 153, 155, 163, 172,
 178
 preparation 109, 114, 123, 130, 159
 prevention 59, 60
 probation 5, 36, 59, 106, 171
 protection 94, 133
 Protection of Children Act 1999 2
 psychodynamic theory 63, 64, 66
- quality 3, 14, 16, 19, 156, 172, 174,
 180, 188, 193
- 'race' 24, 25, 28, 36, 40, 43, 72, 79,
 119, 151
 rating scales 95
 recording 18, 89, 93, 96, 130, 164,
 175, 178, 179, 182
 referrals 82, 83, 86, 164
 reflection 25, 36, 73, 109, 133, 134,
 135, 145, 155, 156, 161, 163,
 167, 169, 178, 186
 reports 97, 164, 179, 183, 184, 186
 residential care 61, 64, 75, 79, 168, 187
 review 12, 70, 88, 114, 130, 131,
 134, 135, 138, 140, 143, 155,
 159, 165, 177, 182, 184, 191
 role play 64, 99
 roles 97, 101, 103, 109, 125, 131,
 135, 137, 148, 158, 160, 190, 191
- scapegoats 97, 142
 sculpting 99, 100, 133
 security operations 153, 161, 166
 selection criteria 74, 81, 82
 self-directed groupwork 15, 18, 19, 24,
 29, 45, 56, 66, 131, 148, 151, 154
 self-disclosure 127, 134, 147
 self-help groups 16, 19, 23, 55, 56,
 58, 61, 80, 131, 139, 173, 174
 sentence completion 96, 121, 126,
 183, 186
 service users 1, 7, 14, 17, 23, 27, 30,
 36, 40, 104, 107, 152, 162, 171,
 174, 180, 184, 193
 silence 85, 125, 141, 143, 152
 size 57, 76, 77
 social action 23, 45, 55, 56, 60, 80,
 90, 106, 129, 130
 Social Care Institute for Excellence 3
 social skills groupwork 64
 social work education 1, 4, 7, 175,
 189, 190, 193
 sociograms 95, 184
 standardized instruments 96, 182, 184
 stereotypes 81, 112, 118, 132, 188
 sub-groups 11, 77, 97, 111, 112,
 142, 145
 supervision 6, 10, 41, 94, 106, 113,
 123, 134, 140, 151, 153, 154,
 167, 168, 178, 185, 188, 189, 193
 systems theory 64, 65, 132
- teams 13, 19, 47, 126, 168, 188,
 189, 192
 termination 91, 136, 155, 161, 167, 183
 training 7, 8, 162, 177, 188, 189, 193
 youth justice 1, 171