Chapter 1

- Social policy is the use of policy measures to promote the welfare of citizens and social well-being.
- It is also the term for the academic study of these measures, having changed its name from ‘social administration’ to reflect a broadening concern with the theory as well as the practice of welfare arrangements.
- The welfare reforms in the UK in the period following the Second World War were critical in establishing the context for subsequent policy development.
- Social policy analysts adopt a range of theoretical perspectives, leading to varying conclusions about the viability and desirability of different measures and interventions.
- Much social policy has been developed by national governments, but the role of international and global agencies has become more important, as have moves to shift policy to local and community levels.

Chapter 2

- Social policy is a research-informed and research-orientated academic subject.
- Research requires rigorous theoretical inquiry and informed empirical data.
- Students of social policy need to have a good understanding of the wide range of approaches and methods in social policy research.
- Social policy draws from the full range of social science research approaches, including quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods.
- The use of research in evidence-based policymaking has become more common in policy planning and delivery, and includes evaluation of policies and practices.

Chapter 3

- An examination of the growth and structure of social welfare provision.
- An identification of some basic definitions of need.
- A review of debates about need, and the way it is used in practice.
- A discussion of ideas about social problems.
- A brief introduction to social problems, needs and well-being.

Chapter 4

- Equality, rights and social justice are all political slogans, endlessly contested, endlessly renewed.
- Equality of opportunity has displaced equality of outcome as the central concern, despite compelling evidence of rapidly increasing inequality of income and life chances.
- Rights have been based on needs, capabilities and deserts. There are questions over how far people should take responsibility for meeting their own needs and whether government should encourage or compel them to do so.
- For justice, the big division is between those who base just allocations on individual contribution and circumstances and those who take social factors into account.
- In a more fluid, flexible, diverse, multi-faith, uncertain and globalised world the claims based on these concepts multiply, while the capacity of governments to respond to them diminishes.
Chapter 5

• Debating human rights and equality involves reflecting on a number of conceptual ideas relating to human dignity, equality and non-discrimination, participation, empowerment and accountability.
• Human rights in the UK comes from the international system of human rights, specifically from the United Nations and the regional European Convention on Human Rights.
• Policies to promote equality in the UK progressed in a piecemeal way, leading to significant variance in the legal protections available to different social groups.
• These strands have now been brought together in a single piece of legislation.
• Approaches to achieving equality vary and are influenced extensively by the values of those with responsibility for implementing policy and practice to promote equality.
• The current political and economic environment calls into question the future direction of legislation and policy activity to promote human rights and equality.

Chapter 6

• Economic analysis begins from the assumption of scarcity – we cannot have everything we want. So people and society must make choices.
• The appropriate cost of these choices to society is the opportunity cost – the resources forgone if the choice is made.
• Economic efficiency means making the most of scarce resources. Economic efficiency occurs when the opportunity cost of using resources in a particular activity is equal to the sum of everyone’s marginal benefits from that activity.
• Efficiency is not the only goal. Other goals include fairness and choice. These goals may clash with efficiency.
• Economists see markets and choice as one way of delivering efficiency and responsiveness in public services.

Chapter 7

• Citizenship is fundamentally concerned with relationships between the individual and the communities that they inhabit.
• Debates about rights and responsibilities and the relationship between them are central to competing visions of citizenship.
• Citizenship implies membership of various forms of community, which in turn opens up linked issues of inclusion and exclusion.
• Liberal and Communitarian traditions of thought offer contrasting conceptions of citizenship and the ideal society.
• A new more conditional and constrained vision of contemporary social citizenship is being mapped out within, and beyond, the UK.

Chapter 8

• Whilst governments have always been implicated in shaping the behaviour of citizens, a more explicit governmental agenda of ‘behaviour change’ has emerged recently.
• Novel insights from behavioural economics, psychology, marketing and design disciplines have been influential in developing this emerging policy agenda.
• Behaviour change policies are founded on a conception of the human subject.
• Policy initiatives and nudges have been developed via experimental trials which have often been centrally organised by special behavioural insight units of national governments.
The behaviour change agenda raises important political and ethical issues.

Chapter 9
- Neo-Liberal ideas pose a significant challenge for supporters of extensive systems of public welfare.
- Neo-Liberalism has its roots in classical Liberal thinking and in the writings of Adam Smith in particular.
- Late-twentieth-century neo-Liberalism is closely associated with the work of Friedman and Hayek, based on ‘negative liberty’ and the role of free market.
- Neo-Liberals want to cut back public welfare systems, to eliminate bureaucratic waste, reduce taxation and allow greater choice through private service provision.
- Neo-Liberal thinking contains critical flaws. The conception of ‘negative liberty’ is unduly restricted and the faith in pure market solutions may be misplaced.

Chapter 10
- Conservatism can be hard to define, having historically been seen as being more about broad beliefs than specific political positions.
- During the 1920s and 1930s a number of Conservative politicians sought to encourage the party to be more supportive of a greater role for the state in the economy and social reform.
- Following their return to government at the 1951 general election, the Conservatives maintained, and in some respects developed, the welfare state.
- By the 1970s, the balance of power within the party shifted to the right, and the Thatcher and Major governments sought to roll back the frontiers of the state.
- From 2005, David Cameron sought to give the party a broader appeal, but the policies of the Coalition and Conservative governments aimed to reduce public expenditure and the size and role of the state.

Chapter 11
- The political doctrine of social democracy originated in northern Europe in the latter part of the nineteenth century.
- There has been ongoing debate about what constitute the defining elements of social democracy.
- In the British context it is more common to refer to the closely related doctrine of democratic socialism rather than social democracy.
- Social democratic welfare states have developed most strongly in Nordic societies such as Sweden.
- Following frequent adaptations, the electoral appeal of social democracy appears to be in decline.

Chapter 12
The socialist perspective on social policy:
- Argues that capitalism as a social and economic system is inimical to human well-being.
- Regards the welfare state as an ambiguous phenomenon that has benefited disadvantaged and working-class people, while also subjecting them to social control in the interests of capitalism.
- Has nonetheless played a role in the development of social policy in capitalist societies.
- Has informed past attempts to establish ‘communist’ social and economic systems with different approaches to welfare provision.
• Represents a significant critique of particular relevance to our understanding of social inequality and the practical development of alternative social policies.

Chapter 13
• The welfare state, its policies and practices construct are simultaneously constructed through gender inequalities.
• Feminists have used women’s experiences to challenge what is understood by welfare to include the cultural and intimate spheres.
• Recent focus on the concept of care has informed the development of a feminist political ethic of care.
• More differentiated approaches to feminist social policy analysis include issues of masculinity and relations of power.
• Feminists interact with mainstream political structures to fight for gender inequality. However, there are complexities and costs in this.

Chapter 14
• Definitions of social movements have shifted over time, but are now understood to encompass conflict with an identified opponent, collective identity and a composition relying on informal networks of people and organisations.
• Social movements can demand recognition for a group in society that was not previously recognised or valued.
• Social movements engage in contentious claims-making, using demonstrations, protests or other attention-grabbing strategies, often combined with media-oriented strategies and advocacy work.
• Social movements do not always secure their short-term goals, but may have more impact over the longer term.
• Recent challenges include how social movements act in an online age and how they have changed in a context of global financial crisis.

Chapter 15
• Post-modernism articulates disillusionment with traditional social and political theories, one which makes room for new approaches and ways of thinking.
• Post-structuralism also departs radically from previous philosophies, though it is more theoretically and methodologically precise, drawing attention to the instabilities of identity and meaning.
• Post-modernism and post-structuralism have become established features of the intellectual landscape, but many have queried their importance or significance.
• They can appear distant from the ‘bread-and-butter’ issues of social policy, yet they articulate the changing social realities with which social policy must get to grips.
• Other social changes include increased attention to the concept of risk and its relevance to contemporary notions of citizenship and well-being.

Chapter 16
• During the nineteenth century, many people sought protection against the risks of poverty and poor health with the aid of their families, friends and communities, through charities and by joining mutual aid associations.
• The main form of statutory provision was the Poor Law. In England and Wales, the Poor Law Acts of 1597 and 1601 gave local parishes the power to introduce a compulsory levy, which was used to ‘set the poor on work’, support those who were unable to work and to provide apprenticeships for pauper children. Scotland
possessed a much more rudimentary system of poor relief, and Ireland lacked any form of poor law before 1838.

- The English and Welsh Poor Laws, and the Scottish Poor Law, experienced significant changes during the nineteenth century. The Poor Law Amendment Act 1834 aimed to deter able-bodied men from seeking poor relief, whilst the Poor Law (Scotland) Act 1845 gave Scottish parishes the right to levy a compulsory rate for the first time. Able-bodied men were excluded altogether from the Scottish poor law system, but a more flexible attitude to welfare provision also became apparent during the final decades of the nineteenth century.

- The nineteenth century witnessed important developments with regard to the improvement of working conditions and the introduction of new housing standards, together with the provision of healthcare. Government grants to educational bodies were introduced in 1833, and school boards assumed responsibility for the provision of elementary schools after 1870. The first Public Health Act was passed in 1848, and local authorities intensified their efforts to improve the standard of public health from the 1870s.

- Despite considerable progress during the final part of the nineteenth century, there was also growing anxiety about the need for further reform, and this contributed to the introduction of the Liberal welfare reforms after 1906.

**Chapter 17**

- In the late nineteenth century, international economic competition and rising pauperism created fears about social degeneration and imperial decline.

- New social scientific and medical analyses created fresh debates on the causes (and prevention) of poverty.

- A more radical organised labour movement threatened the political hegemony of Britain’s two-party system.

- The Liberal governments of 1906–14 introduced extensive, controversial legislation designed to promote the health of the rising generation and to organise urban labour markets.

- While in some respects prescient of the British welfare state of the late 1940s, the impact of this legislation was later undermined by industrial opposition and the mass unemployment of the inter-war years.

**Chapter 18**

- The Second World War proved to be a major factor in the growth of public support for more extensive forms of state welfare provision.

- The first post-war Labour government (1945–50) introduced major welfare reforms in areas such as social security and health. This government is commonly credited with ‘creating’ the modern welfare state.

- The Conservative Party developed a more ‘progressive’ approach towards the welfare state, first in opposition and then during thirteen years in government (1951–64).

- The Labour governments of 1964–70 adopted a revisionist social democratic approach to the welfare state. They found it difficult to emulate the achievements of the earlier Attlee governments not least because of adverse economic conditions.

- The Conservative government of Edward Heath (1970–4) attempted to ‘modernise’ the welfare state along less ‘ideological’, ‘technocratic’ lines.

**Chapter 19**
Neither ‘economic crises’ nor resulting ‘retrenchments’ in social spending are new either in the UK or in other countries. They can change the ideological climate within which policy is formed and can have a lasting impact.

The neo-liberal ideas that took root during the oil crisis of the mid-1970s have had a lasting influence pressed home by powerful private interests. They reasserted the efficacy of markets and the need to reduce the scale of the state. They persuaded governments to change their approach to social policy.

The outcome, in the years under review here, was not to drastically reduce the size of the UK welfare state. Social policy spending continued to grow, albeit at a slower pace. Neo-liberal theorists failed to appreciate that many of the problems which they argued faced state welfare institutions faced their private alternatives to an even greater extent. Rolling back the state was not that simple.

However, these ideas did prompt a major restructuring of welfare institutions worldwide, not least in the UK between 1979 and 1997.

Governments were convinced that it was necessary to limit working age benefits both in scale and duration.

Competition was introduced between state-run providers and new private entrants to welfare markets in the hope of improving welfare state efficiency.

Public service agencies were given output or achievement targets. Failing to reach them was publicised and punished.

Neo-liberal ideas that took root at this time remain a powerful influence on current policy.

Chapter 20


The Third Way can be examined in terms of discourse, values, policy goals and policy mechanisms.

The Third Way in practice shows a wide variety of new policy goals and mechanisms, which increasingly seem to draw upon neo-Liberalism.

In many areas, the rhetoric of the New Labour government was not matched by delivery, and so ‘third order’ or ‘paradigmatic’ change was limited.

The New Labour legacy is probably less than those of the Attlee Labour (1945) and Thatcher Conservative (1979) governments.

Chapter 21

The politics of austerity is related to, but not reducible to, the 2007–8 financial crisis. Disputes over austerity are embedded in competing ideological and political preferences regarding the appropriate relationship between the market, state and society.

In the UK this has manifested in disagreement over whether austerity is necessary at all and/or contestation over the means by which austerity policy should be enacted.

At the core of debates over austerity politics is the question of whether government should emphasise spending cuts or tax rises, and this inevitably raises distributional questions regarding who pays for and who is entitled to access specific welfare state services.

The UK Coalition government (2010–15) developed a simple, but compelling, austerity narrative that cut through competing economic theories and proposals by connecting their preferred policy to ‘everyday’ personal experience of money
management and broader societal norms about individual self-reliance and social obligations.

- The austerity narrative has legitimated a restructuring of the welfare state in line with neo-Liberal preferences, but is potentially threatened by the emergence of movements and political parties who oppose austerity and challenge the discursive narrative of austerity.

**Chapter 22**

- The United Kingdom is a unitary, London-centred state without a uniform system of territorial government that has made a political adjustment to the wishes of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland by devolving powers over many areas of social policy.
- England still dominates in both scale and thinking, retains control over the tax–benefit system, but has not divided itself into regional political entities comparable to the devolved nations.
- The devolved nations have taken some interesting policy initiatives, generally in the direction of a more universalist, more integrated and less privatised welfare state.
- The current arrangements are politically and financially unstable, as evidenced by the Scottish independence referendum of 2014 and subsequent legislative proposals for more devolution.
- Devolution within England is back on the agenda, but focusing on city regions earning the right to take powers on economic and social development.

**Chapter 23**

- Devolution in Northern Ireland, introduced in 1998, followed thirty years of violent conflict and the signing of a peace agreement. It has continued, but with some disruption.
- The Northern Ireland Government is unique in the UK in that it is a mandatory coalition.
- There are examples of divergence and convergence between social policies in Northern Ireland and other parts of the UK.
- The structure of government in Northern Ireland has led to impasse and delays in policymaking. It has been argued that, to a large extent, social policy has been based on pragmatism with little evidence of the values or principles that have been at the centre of debates in Scotland and Wales.
- More critical discussion of some social policy issues and changes to the structure and functioning of government may emerge as Northern Ireland seeks to address significant structural problems and the potential for further devolution.

**Chapter 24**

- Questions about Scottish social policy and devolution have increasingly become entwined.
- The debate around the division of social policy-related powers between the UK and Scottish governments is ongoing following the ‘No’ vote in the 2014 Referendum on Scottish Independence.
- Devolving social policy is not merely an administrative or technical issue – it involves debates about democracy, accountability, social justice and how best to meet welfare needs.
- The devolution process that has been underway since 1998 has produced welfare settlements that are limited, complex, unsustainable and unstable.
Nevertheless, that process has opened up space for some significant Scottish social policy initiatives that mark a divergence from English policy in important ways.

Chapter 25

Devolution in Wales has undergone rapid and profound changes since 1999. Early policies were often minor, symbolic initiatives that lacked an enforcement mechanism.

This has changed with a shift to a parliamentary mode of governing and the National Assembly for Wales’ gaining of primary law-making powers in 2011.

Social policy development in Wales is intimately linked to left party strength and one-party dominance (the Welsh Labour Party). This has seen a general rejection of private sector delivery of welfare and a social democratic, statist-orientation to policy across a breadth of policy areas, including health and education.

Current ‘devolved’ social policymaking in Wales is characterised by three (conflicting) factors: greater scope for taking an original, innovative approach to policy issues following revised powers set out in the 2006 devolution statute; enduring tensions and frustrations as key aspects of welfare (such as social security are, as yet, non-devolved); and remedial action to address under-performance in public services.

Social policymaking has been shaped by a political rhetoric around equity; universalism; equality of provision, access and opportunity; and ‘a new set of citizenship rights’. A key issue is whether, in the face of austerity cuts, present and future governments can maintain this expansive vision of welfare and services whilst rejecting the use of newly gained income tax-raising powers and private sector input to services.

It is clear that in the short to medium term Welsh devolution will see further major change as key issues are addressed, such as the limited policy scrutiny capacity of an under-sized sixty-member National Assembly, the need for a separate Welsh jurisdiction in the face of an increasingly distinct legal system, and potential devolution of further policy areas such as youth justice and policing.

Chapter 26

Changes in the size and composition of the population are the result of the combined effects of changes in mortality, fertility and migration. However, the most important driver behind population ageing is the decline in fertility rates.

The key demographic changes in the UK over the last century include a declining fertility rate, a fluctuating but generally low mortality rate and the shift of the UK from a being country of emigration to country of predominantly inward immigration.

The UK today can be described as an aged society, where the proportion of older people (aged 65 and over) increasingly represents a greater part of the total population.

Changes in mortality, fertility and migration in the UK have been taking place alongside an increasing diversity in the ethnic composition of the population, and changes in family structures and living arrangements.

Understanding demographic changes is a key part of designing and implementing social policies for a constantly changing population.

Chapter 27

The economy and social policy have a symbiotic relationship that has developed in tandem with the development of capitalism.
• We can identify ways in which the needs of the economy and the needs of people combine, but there are also conflicting needs which are managed through the processes of political democracy.
• Economic growth underpins the development and sustainability of social policy, but equally social policy is crucial to the achievement of economic growth.
• Problems arise for the sustainability of social policy when there is a mismatch between the raising of tax revenues, the levels of spending promised by governments, and the extent to which a gap between these is closed through government borrowing.
• Social policy played a key role in mitigating the social and economic effects of the 2008 financial crisis, but is also under threat as governments seek to reduce levels of spending and debt.

Chapter 28
• Since the ‘fossil fuel era’ cannot be maintained indefinitely, the principle of sustainability is becoming more important.
• There is a scientific consensus that climate change is occurring, is human-made and holds significant and urgent challenges to our societies.
• Those challenges are economic (the need for ‘green growth’), political (the global coordination of efforts to reduce greenhouse gas emissions), and moral and cultural (to develop social values and habits that are sustainable).
• Social policies also face fundamental questions. Are our welfare systems able to cope with the new hazards and demands on public expenditure? Can they be adapted to ecological circumstances for which they were not originally designed?
• Efforts to address climate change have been very slow to commence.

Chapter 29
• All world religions, including New Age religions, have teachings on the nature of happiness and well-being as well as selfless service.
• Religious bodies were the first providers of social welfare and remain so in many countries around the world.
• Mainstream accounts of the development of social policy in ‘Western’ societies have varied in the attention paid to the role of religion.
• Religion has a long-standing role in British public life and social policy, and has gained renewed vigour in England especially since the 1980s.
• Religious welfare organisations are becoming more involved in service delivery in the UK, re-opening debate about their relationship to the state.

Chapter 30
• The distribution of resources is central to the provision of welfare, and distribution and redistribution take place through both state, and private and voluntary transfers.
• There is a range of different rationales underpinning the redistribution of resources to promote welfare.
• There are different ways of measuring distribution and its benefits. How it is paid for – and who pays – is very important in this.
• Much of the redistributive effect of welfare is as a sort of ‘savings bank’ transferring resources between different stages of people’s own lives.
• However, redistribution also plays a significant ‘Robin Hood’ role benefiting poorer sections of society most, particularly once one allows for how it is paid for.
Chapter 31
- The study of the social divisions of welfare is concerned with understanding fundamental and enduring differences between social groups in their experiences of welfare provision and the type of outcomes they receive from it.
- Key divisions have been identified as existing between men and women, between disabled and non-disabled people, and between people of different socio-economic classes, ethnic groups, religions, nationalities, ages and sexualities.
- Social divisions can be complex and cross-cutting.
- Some social groups have distinct and identifiable welfare needs that are different from other categories of people.
- Class is an example of a social division that can influence welfare needs, access to resources and well-being outcome.

Chapter 32
- Racialised perceptions and historical experiences of marginalisation inform our understanding of who constitute the UK’s minority ethnic groups.
- Minority groups differ in average age, employment, income, region of settlement.
- Differences within as well across groups are also substantial.
- Social policy can impact ethnic minorities directly through immigration and race relations policies and indirectly through, for example, social security, housing and employment policies.
- Younger age profiles and greater risks of unemployment and poverty mean minority groups are disproportionately affected by policies relating to children, families and poverty reduction.
- Minority groups will constitute a larger proportion of the future population of western countries. Their current welfare therefore has long-run consequences.

Chapter 33
- Poverty has always been a major concern for social policy researchers and policymakers.
- Academics and policymakers disagree about how to define and measure poverty.
- Definition and measurement have been extended to include the problem of social exclusion.
- Poverty and social exclusion are complex multi-dimensional problems, and more sophisticated definitions and measures have been developed to explore them.
- Recent evidence reveals that levels of poverty and social exclusion have remained high in the UK and have been growing in recent years.

Chapter 34
- The role of the state in the provision of welfare grew markedly for much of the twentieth century, yet its extent and form have always been a matter of contention.
- There have been major debates about the balance between public, commercial, voluntary and informal provision and the relationships between and responsibilities of individuals and the state, and these have been reflected in the approaches of governments.
- From the late 1970s, Conservative governments sought to reduce the scope of state provision and make the public sector more similar to the commercial sector in its operation.
- Between 1997 and 2010, Labour were much more accepting of the state’s role in welfare, and public expenditure grew significantly.
• The policies of the Coalition from 2010, and from 2015 the Conservative, government implied major changes in the size and role of the state.

Chapter 35
• Many different kinds of for-profit companies are involved in welfare delivery.
• The extent and type of state welfare activity play a key role in determining the scope for commercial welfare services in advanced welfare states.
• Recent reforms in advanced welfare states have led to a ‘blurring of the boundaries’ between the public and private sectors.
• The more the provision of welfare services relies on markets and non-state providers, the more important regulation of these becomes in the pursuit of social policy goals.

Chapter 36
• Occupational or workplace welfare consists of mandatory and voluntary benefits provided through employment.
• While mandatory benefits are instigated through government/EU laws and regulations, voluntary provision is initiated by individual employers.
• Some voluntary schemes are designed to enhance or replace aspects of UK statutory welfare; others are unilateral arrangements developed by organisations specifically for their employees.
• Throughout the history of occupational welfare, there have been major inequities in the benefits supplied and to whom, both within and between organisations.
• Recent years have seen conflicting revisions to these disparities.

Chapter 37
• ‘Voluntary welfare’ is nurtured and delivered through a plethora of organisations situated between the market and the state.
• The scope, scale, structure and diversity of these organisations have been captured in empirical work and theoretical accounts.
• Deepening interest in social capital has reinforced interest in their role in social, political and economic life.
• Volunteering, typically mediated by voluntary bodies, is increasingly understood as involving a range of motivations and social structures.
• ‘Voluntary organisation’ growing proximity to the state has been hotly debated.

Chapter 38
• Informal or unpaid care is support provided for family members or friends, because of long-term physical/mental ill health or disability, or problems related to old age.
• In the context of demographic ageing, there is increasing emphasis on unpaid care in UK social policy.
• There is gender inequality in unpaid care provision, with women more likely to provide care than men.
• Unpaid care and employment are a key dilemma for policymakers.
• There is evidence of a growing unpaid ‘care gap’, and there may need to be a shift from unpaid care to paid services in future.

Chapter 39
• The welfare state was based on a passive view of welfare, but from the 1970s people increasingly campaigned to play a more active role in welfare services.
• From 1979, successive governments made it easier for people to be active consumers.
• In the era of ‘austerity politics’, this citizen-consumer model is changing to one in which people are expected to play a role as ‘co-producers’, shaping and producing services.
• Many users of welfare services are dissatisfied with the roles that governments expect them to play and demand a more active role based on citizenship.

Chapter 40
• Some of the reasons why we have come to pay for many of the most important things in life through collective state funding lie in the economic theory of market failure.
• Another reason lies in the way needs vary across the life cycle, making welfare in many ways an intergenerational bargain.
• Nevertheless, many basic needs are paid for privately both in the form of money purchases and in time spent by carers and family members.
• Governments are trying to find new ways to respond to the challenge of an ageing population with growing needs.
• There will always be limits to welfare agencies’ budgets, but how those limits are decided and how these resources are and should be rationed are becoming more contentious than ever.

Chapter 41
• Taxation plays an important role in society, with policy driven by multiple and, at times, conflicting aims.
• It is important to distinguish the legal or formal incidence of a tax from its economic or effective incidence.
• Neutrality is a useful benchmark against which to judge tax policy, but is not always desirable.
• A trade-off exists between redistributing resources from better- to less well-off individuals and maintaining incentives for individuals to increase their income.
• Increasing international mobility of tax bases poses a challenge for tax policy.

Chapter 42
• Studying the policy process can add to our understanding of the ways in which policies are made and implemented, the reasons particular policies are or are not adopted and how power is exercised.
• For social policy a consideration of the relationship between power and inequalities is also important.
• A wide range of models and policies can be used to analyse the policy process.
• The approaches taken by different governments to policymaking and implementation can impact upon the types of policies that emerge.
• In recent years there has been a growing awareness of the complexity of the social world and new ways of analysing and understanding the policy process have been developed.

Chapter 43
• There has been a huge change in the way we manage and deliver welfare services since the 1980s.
The emergence of the ‘new public management’ (NPM) saw an increased emphasis on performance management and techniques from private sector management being brought into public management. At the same time as the NPM appeared, the boundaries between public and private sector management were also blurred. In the 2010s ideas that were central to NPM appear to be under question. Looking forward, we need to embrace psychological and other research giving us a richer view of organisational life, while accepting that some form of public management is necessary.

Chapter 44

- Accountability for welfare is about how organisations account for their actions.
- Accountability is about counting, but also about narrating.
- Accountability is a relational term and operates on many levels.
- While it is important that organisations should be accountable for their actions, mechanisms for accountability also carry disadvantages.
- Accountability is not neutral: it is a normative concept, closely related to issues of power and political priorities.

Chapter 45

- The analysis of local provision involves the study of local government and local governance.
- Both are a key element of social policy formation and provision.
- Local government structures are subject to constant reorganisation and there is continuous tension between central and local concerns.
- The development of local government is best considered in terms of five stages, the latest involving major changes in its role and resources.
- These are presenting new challenges and questions about the configuration of local governance.

Chapter 46

- Social policy has been on the European agenda since the founding of the European Economic Community in 1957.
- The social dimension of the European Union (EU) has been primarily concerned with the social protection of workers.
- The EU has progressively extended its social policy competence and has introduced softer and more proactive instruments for policymaking and implementation.
- The relationship between EU and national-level governance is interactive, with national governments retaining responsibility for the content, organisation and delivery of social protection systems.
- In a context of population decline and ageing and the aftermath of economic recession, the EU faces important challenges to its social policy competence.

Chapter 47

- Social security represents just under one-third of all government spending – almost as much as spending on education and health combined. The largest group of benefit recipients are children (with over 12 million receiving child benefit, through their parents) and pensioners (around 13 million receiving state retirement pension).
Definitions of social security vary from broad definitions encompassing all methods of securing an income to narrow definitions focusing on state systems of income maintenance.

Social security systems vary in their aims. The UK system focuses on alleviating poverty, hence considerable reliance on means-tested provision. Continental European systems focus more on insurance-based systems and redistribution from rich to poor.

State benefits are typically divided into contributory benefits, such as the state retirement pension; means-tested benefits, such as Income Support (and also tax credits); and contingent or categorical benefits, such as child benefit.

There has been an emphasis from both Conservative (including Coalition) and Labour governments in the UK on individual responsibility rather than state provision. This is evident in recent reforms of pensions, disability benefit and child support.

Chapter 48
- The UK labour market and society have both changed radically in the post-war era, and paid work has become the key route for the satisfaction of citizenship obligations and the central policy instrument to securing resources and avoiding poverty.
- Key issues within the UK employment landscape from a social policy perspective are persistent structural unemployment (especially of the disabled), prevalence of in-work poverty, employment insecurity and underemployment.
- There is little prospect for radically reducing labour market inequalities and precariousness in the near to medium term, but, rather, a likelihood of continued spread and intensification of these trends.
- Since the 1990s, more stringent conditions have been placed on the unemployed in exchange for the receipt of out-of-work benefits. Work-related obligations have been ratcheted up and stretched to include traditionally ‘inactive’ groups, such as lone parents and disabled people.
- Universal Credit radically extends existing trends in the use of conditionality by extending surveillance and conditions to those in low-paid work for the first time, with significant implications for both the well-being of those in low-paid work and, more broadly, the storying of the ‘deserving’ and ‘undeserving’ poor.

Chapter 49
- Healthcare issues are prominent in most industrialised states. Healthcare takes up a large proportion of the taxpayer’s money and attracts considerable media attention.
- The medical profession remains a powerful influence within the healthcare system, although the perspectives of patients, users and carers are increasingly acknowledged.
- Three main models of healthcare funding exist: tax-based, state insurance and private funding. The UK is largely a tax-based system. Large sums of money have been committed to the NHS in recent years, but financial problems and inequities in funding remain.
- There is increasing competition in health service provision with efforts to encourage the private and voluntary sector into the NHS ‘market’.
- Renewed efforts have been made to encourage partnership working between the NHS, local government, voluntary groups and the private sector.

Chapter 50
Public health has always been an important issue, but has lacked priority compared with treatment services.

Key issues today include obesity, smoking, alcohol misuse and health inequalities.

New Labour sought to prioritise public health and reduce health inequalities; although some targets were met, others were missed.

The Coalition reformed the public health system in England, transferring responsibilities to local government, establishing health and well-being boards, and joint health and well-being strategies.

Coalition policies and reforms faced criticism for not giving sufficient capacity and resources to the public health system, for being over-reliant on corporate responsibility, and failing to address the socio-economic roots of ill health.

Chapter 51

The school systems in the countries of the UK have differing legislative frameworks and policies. School structures, funding, curriculum and assessment vary.

Market-oriented policies and school autonomy have a high profile in England, but not in the rest of the UK.

Across the countries of the UK, there has been a focus on increasing the achievement levels of children from disadvantaged backgrounds. Approaches to tackle the attainment gap vary between countries with additional per pupil funding available for disadvantaged pupils in England and Wales.

Across the UK, there is an entitlement to free part-time education for 3- and 4-year-old children and for disadvantaged 2-year-olds.

Chapter 52

Lifelong learning includes people of all ages learning in a variety of contexts. It is an idea informing post-compulsory education and training policies, prompted by globalisation and labour market changes.

These policies are important for economic growth and the well-being of society, but their economic objectives are prioritised.

Policies focus on improving the skill levels and skills mix of the existing and future workforce so there is a balance in the supply of, and demand for, skilled labour.

Since 1997, governments have tried to increase the supply of skilled workers by expanding post-compulsory education, encouraging greater participation, and getting people to take more and higher qualifications.

The UK Coalition government expanded apprenticeships while at the same time cutting public expenditure on post-compulsory education, especially for adults. They have also shifted more of the costs of learning onto learners so more people have to pay for their learning.

Participation in post-compulsory education remains unequal, with those from disadvantaged backgrounds in greatest need missing out. Educational inequality begets inequality and cumulates across the life cycle.

Chapter 53

Housing policy plays an important role within welfare, but direct state provision is much less important than in health, education or social care.

Between 1919 and 1979, council housing became a significant and desirable housing tenure. After 1979, it became residual, less subsidised and less popular.

Housing tenure mix is changing; home ownership peaked in 2002, but has fallen since. Private renting expanded after 1995, overtaking social housing as the main rental tenure in 2012.
• After 1979, supply-side subsidies (for housing construction) were a key target for public expenditure reductions, but demand-side subsidies (to pay rents) grew significantly.
• Policies on homelessness and access to social housing once provided an important part of the social welfare net. Social protection has since been weakened by conditionality, local discretion, private provision with less security and higher rents not fully covered by benefits.
• Housing faced large public spending reductions after the 2008 global financial crisis.
• Supply-side subsidies fell by over 50 per cent under the Coalition government.
• Demand-side subsidies rose in aggregate due to increased claimants, but individual entitlements reduced.

Chapter 54
• Social care has a complex history, and current practice continues to be influenced in part by historic tensions around whether people are ‘deserving’ or ‘undeserving’ of assistance.
• Current services have struggled to cope with significant financial challenges, on the one hand and rising need and demand, on the other.
• Ongoing challenges include the need to develop a more preventative approach, the importance of integrated care and the need to personalise the care people receive.
• Despite its rhetoric, the Coalition government of 2010–15 arguably made little progress in each of these areas, and major tensions remain.
• While most of this chapter focuses on general themes across the UK, specific policies and organisational names are typically those in England.

Chapter 55
• Traditionally, criminal justice and penal policy have not been greatly studied by social policy scholars; this is now changing markedly.
• The main institutions of our ‘modern’ system of criminal justice came into being during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.
• A profound shift in emphasis away from welfare and rehabilitation occurred in the final three decades of the twentieth century.
• The dominant features of contemporary criminal justice have been punitiveness, politicisation and populism.
• The late twentieth century saw a remarkable growth in the use of imprisonment and other forms of penal surveillance.

Chapter 56
• Unemployment policy relies on welfare conditionality (attaching behavioural conditions to benefits receipt) in efforts to ‘activate’ individuals from ‘welfare’ into ‘work’.
• The UK Conservative government (elected in 2015) has continued to extend and intensify conditionality, with inevitable consequences for those directly affected.
• More research is needed into how conditionality is experienced, but there is evidence that it can cause serious hardship.
• A rhetoric that divides the population around a work/non-work axis can add to the stigma and shame associated with benefits reliance.
• The focus on conditionality can be criticised for its neglect of broader societal barriers to engagement in the paid labour market.

Chapter 57
- There have been significant changes in patterns of family formation and dissolution in the UK in the past half-century. There have also been changes in employment patterns, with most mothers, especially those with older children, now in paid employment.
- Family values and norms about the ‘right thing to do’ have become more complex and dependent on context. But this does not imply a lack of commitment to family, although these commitments are subject to reflection and negotiation.
- Family policy can be defined in relation to policy goals, to areas of activity and to institutional structures. The key areas of activity include the regulation of family behaviour, cash benefits and tax credits or transfers for families, and the provision of services.
- In the UK, family policy has become more explicit in the last two decades, with a range of new policies introduced and existing provisions developed.
- Family policy is at the heart of important debates about the future direction for the welfare state, in particular in relation to the reconciliation of paid work and unpaid care.

**Chapter 58**
- Children are key recipients of welfare services across a wide range of policy areas, and their lives are considerably shaped by the type and quality of welfare systems available.
- Modern childhood is undergoing considerable social and economic change, and children of the twenty-first century live increasingly complex lives in a range of diverse family settings.
- Child welfare policies change over time, and depend on fluid and changing assumptions about the needs and rights of children, the needs and rights of parents, and the role of the state in children’s lives.
- There is increasing recognition in policy that children are social actors and bearers of rights. There is also a trend towards ‘social investment policies’ which focus on children as ‘citizen workers’ of the future.
- The chapter examines a key policy area for children, the issue of child poverty. It explores the rise and fall of the Child Poverty Act and looks at the impact on children of a range of policy initiatives, and the implications for children of changes and continuities in policy when there is a change of government.

**Chapter 59**
- The chapter describes a number of different positions taken by successive governments in five main phases:
  - The first covers the arrival of youth policy in the period 1997–2000, mainly under the influence of the Social Exclusion Unit.
  - The second period (2000–5) saw the birth, life and ‘demise’ of the ‘Connexions Strategy’ described by the Prime Minister at the time as ‘our frontline policy for young people’.
  - During the third period, youth policy became submerged in policy for ‘children and young people’ under the predominant discourses of the 2003 Green Paper, Every Child Matters.
  - Fourth, we describe youth policy under the Coalition government 2010–15, which saw many of the pre-2010 structures for youth policy dismantled.
  - Finally, we draw attention to developments in the European Union, suggesting that this might be a means through which some of the old Labour principles of youth policy can still be defended and promoted.
Chapter 60
- In the UK, people are living longer due to advances in healthcare and living standards (including nutrition and hygiene), and are projected in future to live longer still; at the same time, fertility rates are lower than in the mid-1900s.
- As a result, the old-age dependency ratio is increasing – there are fewer people of working age to provide for those beyond retirement.
- Changes to the old-age dependency ratio have raised concerns about the sustainability of pension and social care provision for increasing numbers of older people.
- ‘Active ageing’ policies and changes to social care funding have been policy responses to an ageing population.
- However, it should be highlighted that what it means to be ‘old’ is a social construct, in part influenced by social policy.

Chapter 61
- Policy interest in disability has grown and changed since the 1970s. Disability should now be viewed as an issue of human rights, citizenship and equality rather than one of care, compensation or rehabilitation.
- The claims of the disabled people’s movement have been important in bringing about this change of view.
- Disabled people have become more active welfare citizens, taking control of resources to manage the support they need in place of traditional services.
- More countries have introduced policies to counter disability discrimination, based on civil and human rights, but legislation is not enough to guarantee full citizenship.
- Transnational governance has become more important through institutions like the European Union (EU) and the United Nations (UN).

Chapter 62
- The UK has a long history of migration and ethnic diversity.
- Contemporary migration is linked to globalisation processes and is characterised by super-diversity.
- People migrate for different reasons, including for employment, study, family reasons and to flee persecution, human rights abuses, war and conflict.
- Migration and asylum policy has been concerned with curbing immigration, and is racialised and gendered.
- Migration and asylum policy has produced a complex classification of migrants that is closely linked to a highly differential system of rights around entry, residency, settlement, family reunion, labour-market access and social welfare entitlements.

Chapter 63
- Comparative analysis is a crucial constituent of social policy.
- Its development reflects shifts in the discipline and national welfare strategies.
- Comparative inquiry raises distinct conceptual and methodological issues.
- Cross-national comparisons can be framed in various ways.
- There are a range of explanations for variations in country welfare mixes.

Chapter 64
- Many social policy challenges faced in the UK are also faced by governments in other countries, providing opportunities to improve policy by learning from the experience of other countries.
Policy learning and transfer can take many different forms. It is often facilitated by international bodies and networks established to encourage the sharing of knowledge and ideas.

There are many barriers to policy transfer in practice. Complete transfers, where a country copies the whole of a policy used somewhere else, are rare.

Cross-national policy learning and transfer are often messy and complex processes in practice, with knowledge developed over many years and policy ideas taken from many places.

Policy learning and transfer are ultimately political processes. Power plays a central role in shaping the content of policies that move around the globe.

Chapter 65

European countries have consistently been the highest spenders on social policy within the economically advanced groups of OECD countries.

European countries provide the most generous benefit levels within the OECD.

Typically European (but not British) is the use of employment protection as a mechanism for securing income for wage earners.

Typically European (but not British) is the involvement of social partners in social policymaking.

Chapter 66

Social policy in the United States is marked by distrust of government, tension between private and public markets, and a lack of comprehensive coverage for citizens.

Most individuals in the US receive insurance coverage through the private sector.

Continued high costs, lack of universal coverage and poor quality of healthcare led to health reform in the US.

Education can be divided between primary and higher education. In both instances, there are concerns about future funding, student outcomes, and the role of private and public institutions of learning.

Income security is highly fragmented; eligibility for programmes is predicated on age, income and gender, leading to a patchwork of programmes and a lack of a universal safety net.

Chapter 67

East Asia is a dynamic and diverse region which contains societies of different sizes, with different political structures and levels of socio-economic, as well as social policy developments.

The strong regulatory role of the state, which was once characterised as the distinctiveness of East Asian welfare approaches, is now shifting towards more market-oriented approaches.

In response to recent financial crises, more differentiated trajectories of social policy developments and reforms have been observed across East Asian societies.

Rapid demographic transitions, such as ageing society and changing families, require East Asian societies to re-examination their existing welfare systems.

There are growing social divisions and inequalities in different sections of society as a result of contemporary social and economic change.

Chapter 68

The BRICS (Brazil, Russian Federation, India, China and South Africa) are a group of rising and influential countries.
• They are distinguished by their fast growing economies and escalating visibility in global social policy affairs.
• They have achieved rapid and unprecedented development and poverty alleviation within their own borders.
• As ‘aid donors’, the BRICS are having a significant impact on the institutions and ideas of western development agencies, as well as on the quantity and types of aid to other developing countries.
• Academics and policymakers disagree about the impact that the BRICS are having on welfare outcomes and debates, and whether the BRICS group is sustainable in the longer term.

Chapter 69
• The study of social policy in the Middle East and North Africa Region (MENA) is in its infancy, but the welfare systems of the region may be broadly categorised as corporatist/residual. The Rentier state concept continues to be a salient paradigm.
• A major challenge facing the formulation of social policy in the region is the lack of government commitment to universal social justice and social welfare issues.
• International organisations exercise a major influence on social policy agendas in MENA. They have begun to advocate a new policy discourse around social protection in the region with cash transfer programmes and the extension of social security coverage as key programmes.
• The events of the ‘Arab Spring’ in 2011 brought a glimmer of positive social change to the region. Four years on, only Tunisia has managed a stable transition, while the rest of the region has fallen prey to new waves of religious extremism and political disintegration.

Chapter 70
• The study of welfare arrangements in less developed societies is a relatively new and expanding domain within mainstream social policy.
• A range of classification systems have been devised to explore and account for these arrangements.
• International institutions and overseas development assistance play a key role in shaping social policy in less developed societies.
• The scope and role of cash transfer programmes in developing countries have expanded in recent years.
• Growing recognition of the need for more predictable and sustainable forms of social protection and expansion of social assistance programmes.

Chapter 71
• Globalisation has brought International Organisations (IOs) to the foreground of social policy.
• There are many different kinds of IO. Some are primarily oriented towards economic objectives and concerns, others towards social objectives.
• IO are key social policy actors; they:
  o shape the (re)distribution of resources within and between countries,
  o finance, regulate and provide welfare goods and services,
  o promulgate ideas about what kinds of social policies are needed, and
  o influence the content of national social policies.
• IOs have a key role to play in bringing about a democratically governed global economy based on social justice for as long as social inequality and poverty exist.
• Thinking globally challenges traditional ways of thinking about social policy concepts such as fairness, choice, reciprocity and obligations.