

An Exploration of (Area-based) Social Inclusion and Community Development Training Programmes in Ireland

Seamus McGuinness, Adele Bergin and
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Acronyms

ALMP	Active labour market policy
ATE	Attitudes towards enterprise
BTEA	Back to Education Allowance
CEA	Cost-effectiveness acceptability
DLR	Dun Laoghaire / Rathdown
DSP	Department of Social Protection
ECBI	Eyberg Child Behaviour Inventory
ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages
FLNP	Family Links Nurturing Programme
GATE	Growing America Through Entrepreneurship
HP	Haase and Pratschke (Deprivation Index)
IRIS	Integrated Reporting and Information System
IT	Information technology
JSA	Job Search Assistance
KPI	Key performance indicator
LCDC	Local and Community Development Committee
LCDP	Local and Community Development Programme
LDC	Local Development Companies
MORS	Mothers' Object Relations Scales
NEAP	National Employment Action Plan
PCPS	Parent–Child Psychological Support Program
PI	Programme implementers
PSM	Propensity score matching
QQI	Quality and Qualifications Ireland
QNHS	Quarterly National Household Survey
RAM	Resource Allocation Model
SICAP	Social Inclusion and Community Activation Programme

Executive Summary

The Social Inclusion and Community Activation Programme (SICAP) represents a major component of Ireland's community development strategy, led by the Department of Housing, Planning, Community and Local Government. This study attempts to provide a rigorous analysis of training provision in 2014, within a unified framework, that relates training courses to organisational goals and considers the links between provision and social deprivation, geography and cost. SICAP is the successor programme to the Local and Community Development Programme (LCDP). While the data for the study relate to 2014 and the LCDP, the absence of major structural change in training programmes provision under the transition from LCDP to SICAP means that broadly speaking the overall conclusions drawn from the data will be applicable to SICAP. Total funding to programme implementers (PIs) over a nine-month period in 2015¹ was approximately €28 million.² The programme is also co-financed under an allocation from the European Social Fund and includes a special allocation under the Youth Employment Initiative. The vast majority of the funding, approximately 85 per cent, was directed towards community-based initiatives. The remainder of spending was directed at individual-level training programmes aimed at improving the outcomes of participants across a range of goals. The current study will focus specifically on the training component of LCDP provision and is not designed to provide a complete assessment of all interventions.

The study's five key objectives are to:

- 1) examine the extent to which training provision delivered under LCDP/SICAP varies across programme areas and the extent of accreditation;
- 2) estimate how training expenditure and the duration of training courses are distributed across programme types;³
- 3) analyse how the distribution of provision relates to the SICAP goals;
- 4) measure the geographical variation in the distribution of provision by population, deprivation index, programme objectives and costs;

¹ See

<https://www.pobal.ie/Publications/Documents/SICAP%20Award%20notice,%20budgets%20and%20targets%20website.xlsx>. We could not locate comparable figures for 2014.

² This implies an approximate annual expenditure of €35million.

³ Pobal were asked to classify the training provision into 'course types' that captured the bulk of LCDP places, such as enterprise, personal development, business, etc.

- 5) assess the extent to which the provision delivered under the programme could and should be subject to evaluation in terms of both individual-level outcomes and community-level impacts.

KEY ISSUES AND FINDINGS

- Due to its concentration in disadvantaged areas and the inclusion of specific target groups, training participants may be more heavily exposed to a range of significant barriers to inclusion, such as stigmatisation, low self-esteem, household joblessness, early school leaving, low educational attainment and substance misuse. The existence of these barriers, information on many of which is now collected by Pobal, constitute a central rationale for programmes like LCDP/SICAP, which offers easier access to more intensive provision compared to the alternatives available from mainstream agencies.
- Activities under LCDP can be aligned under the following three goals: (i) social inclusion and capacity building, (ii) lifelong learning and (iii) employment. We find that, on average, 16 per cent of total expenditure of PIs is directed towards training activities and, while no clear pattern is discernible, there is evidence to suggest that shares tend to be higher in some of the least deprived areas. Data from the Integrated Reporting and Information System (IRIS) for 2014 also show that two-thirds of training places are in employment programmes (goal 3), with less than 20% of places in each of the other two goals. The distribution of activity across goals is unsurprising given that the rate of unemployment was still very high during the period in question.
- It is clear from the data that there are significant differences across the PIs in terms of the concentration of training places across goals, with no clear discernible pattern emerging with respect to social and economic deprivation levels.
- Current SICAP guidelines suggest that spending should be equally distributed across the three goals, with minor flexibility provided on this point. This seems to run contrary to one of the underlying principles of community development: that resources are allocated according to need. A more practical approach to oversight, one that enables community organisations to concentrate their activities around the specific problems faced by their client base, is required. Guidelines may be necessary to ensure that individual-level interventions, particularly those related to employment, are most heavily concentrated in areas of high social deprivation.
- We find that, in terms of distribution, training resources are generally focused towards geographical areas with the highest levels of

deprivation. However, there is evidence of an inverse relationship between area deprivation and average cost per place, indicating a higher level of resources per participant in less deprived areas. The results imply that resources may be too thinly spread across more deprived populations. Therefore, while the relative distribution of resources is broadly appropriate, there may be grounds for some further reallocation of funds towards the most deprived areas. This could be achieved by setting appropriate targets related to the minimum share of expenditure that PIs can direct towards individual-level initiatives (those that involve one-to-one support, rather than group-based initiatives).

- While many of the SICAP training programmes could certainly be subject to rigorous evaluation, the more disadvantaged nature of the client base implies that costlier mixed-method approaches to programme measurement are required. We estimate the total expenditure on individual training programmes to be in the region of €6 million per annum; however, this spending is spread over numerous programmes, most of which are relatively small. The relatively small scale and low cost of specific initiatives suggests that only the largest initiatives could ever be subject to formal evaluation and, even then, only on a highly intermittent basis. For the vast majority of SICAP initiatives, counterfactual approaches to evaluation are not economically feasible. Instead the emphasis should be on monitoring changes in key outcome variables, preferably relative to some pre-programme baseline measure.
- With respect to the evaluation of community-level impacts, in contrast to programmes targeted at individuals, the objectives of community development initiatives are often wide ranging and without clearly defined targets. This context, as well as the fact that the impacts of such programmes are likely to be multifaceted, makes it very difficult to develop an evaluation framework to fully capture both direct and spillover effects of such interventions. Internationally, there is little or no evidence of any systematic attempts or methodologies associated with the measuring of community-level impacts. It is highly likely that the paucity of such research stems, again, from a lack of reliable and centralised data on community-based activities and outcomes. However, the scale of expenditures in community-level interventions across all providers would justify significant investments in data infrastructure to ensure effective monitoring and occasional evaluation. We estimate that expenditures on community-level interventions exceed €20 million per annum.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Within the international literature, relatively little is known about the total pattern of spending on community development activities within a particular country. Neither are the impacts of such programmes on individual outcomes typically measured. The lack of such research presumably stems from the nature of community development itself; – decentralised, with data collection typically undertaken in a generally uncoordinated manner that does not easily facilitate any national level analysis. However, a large proportion of community development activity in Ireland is co-ordinated by a single body, Pobal, on behalf of the Department of the Housing, Planning, Community and Local Government. Organisations in receipt of funding under the Social Inclusion and Community Activation Programme (SICAP) must record their activities within a single database, the Integrated Reporting and Information System (IRIS). The IRIS database thus provides a unique opportunity to address a number of key questions regarding community development spending, which will help inform policy both in Ireland and elsewhere.

SICAP aims to tackle poverty, social exclusion and long-term unemployment through local engagement and partnerships between disadvantaged individuals, community organisations and public sector agencies. It is led nationally by the Department of Housing, Planning, Community and Local Government. This national programme was rolled out on 1 April 2015 and will run until December 2017. It is the successor programme to the Local and Community Development Programme (LCDP) and is led in each county by a Local and Community Development Committee (LCDC). Following a public procurement process, contracts for the implementation of the new programme have been awarded by LCDCs to 45 programme implementers (PIs) covering 50 geographic areas (or Lots).

SICAP is intended to be more focused and streamlined than LCDP; changes include:

- a reduced number of target groups (18 to 11);
- a reduced number of goals (four to three);

- spending across the three goals annually being split evenly, with a five per cent leeway (28 to 38 per cent) (previously, the goal spend share ranged from five to 15 per cent and 34 to 45 per cent);
- an additional requirement that 15 per cent of all educational attainment (provided under goal 2) must be accredited;
- improved data capture in IRIS;
- a requirement to target and prioritise delivery of services to disadvantaged communities and people with a rate set for each Lot based on the Pobal Haase and Pratschke (HP) Deprivation Index;⁴
- a greater emphasis on engaging young people (15–24 years);
- mandatory development of a personal action plan following registration with the PI;
- an additional requirement for PIs to meet the beneficiary at least twice following registration before that support can be counted towards the key performance indicator (KPI);
- maximum amount of PIs' total budget that can be outsourced set at only 15 per cent; and
- an increased number of targets set for PIs, with possible sanctions from their managing bodies – the LCDCs.

The data for the current study relates to 2014 and therefore is related to LCDP. However, given the high level of similarity that remains between the two programmes, any conclusions drawn from the data also generally relate to SICAP. Furthermore, it is important to note that the current study concentrates exclusively on direct training interventions, such as education and training programmes, personal development courses and labour market activation initiatives. These activities account for, on average, 16 per cent of total programme implementer spending. Nevertheless, we estimate that the training interventions considered here amount to a cost of approximately €4.45 million. For 2014, we have information on approximately 21,000 individuals receiving such interventions. However, LCDP, and its successor SICAP, also effects change through group initiatives aimed at empowering community groups. The current study will focus specifically on the training component of LCDP provision and will not provide a complete assessment of all LCDP interventions.

SICAP represents a central component of Ireland's funding for community development. To our knowledge, this study is the first attempt to provide

⁴ Deprivation is measured by an index that takes into account a number of disadvantage measure, such as joblessness, income poverty, lone parenthood, discrimination and financial difficulty, as well as factoring in urban / rural measures such as migration.

a rigorous analysis of the training provision component within a unified framework. We attempt to use the data to relate initiatives to SICAP goals and map provision according to social deprivation, geography and cost. The study also considers the extent to which the general requirement to demonstrate value for money in the public finances could and/or should be extended into the community development realm.⁵ The analysis relies heavily on the IRIS database, developed and maintained by Pobal, which is designed to capture all interventions and outcomes associated with SICAP.

1.2 STUDY OBJECTIVES

The study's five key objectives are to:

- 1) examine the extent to which training provision delivered under SICAP varies across programme areas and the extent of accreditation;
- 2) estimate how training expenditure and the duration of training courses are distributed across programme areas;
- 3) analyse how the distribution of provision relates to the SICAP goals;
- 4) measure the geographical variation in the distribution of provision by population, deprivation index, programme objectives and costs; and
- 5) assess the extent to which the provision delivered under the programme could and should be subject to evaluation in terms of both individual-level outcomes and community-level impacts.

⁵ Despite an extensive international literature search, we could not find any studies providing formal counterfactual evaluations of community development interventions, administered through community bodies delivered in a bottom-up approach, such as the ones considered in this report.

Chapter 2

Distribution of LCDP Funding

In 2014, a total of €39,769,139 was distributed to Local Development Companies (LDCs) under the Local and Community Development Programme (LCDP) (Pobal, 2015). The distribution of funds under LCDP and its successor the Social Inclusion and Community Activation Programme (SICAP) are partially determined by the Local Development Company's Resource Allocation Model (LDC-RAM), which was developed for Pobal based on the Pobal Haase and Pratschke (HP) Deprivation Index. The LDC-RAM distributes resources across 18,448 small areas. The LDC-RAM is a spatial tool that is designed to allocate resources to LDCs based on three key criteria: the relative size of the target population, its demographic profile, and the relative deprivation index of the population. The model effectively skews the distribution of resources towards areas with a greater concentration of need. The extent of targeting is essentially a policy choice and four model options are available. Under model 1, resources are distributed according to population share. Under model 2, resources are targeted at the bottom 48 per cent of the most disadvantaged population. Model 3 targets the bottom 22 per cent, while model 4 targets the bottom seven per cent. Based on the available documentation it would seem that the entire allocation is distributed on the medium deprivation model (model 3) alone – the model that targets the bottom 22 per cent of the most disadvantaged population represents normal practice.

It is clear that this model will generate higher rates of total expenditure per head of population in more deprived areas.⁶ However, this spending includes activities targeted at both group and individual levels. Given that spending on individual-level interventions, accounts for, on average, just 16% of expenditure, it is uncertain the extent to which national patterns are evident in regarding individual-level interventions. A key objective of this study is to assess the extent to which the distribution of training activities is more heavily concentrated in areas of high deprivation. It is possible that in areas of higher need, resources may be more heavily concentrated on group interventions, leading to a lower intensity of individual-level assistance. This is a far from trivial matter, given that many

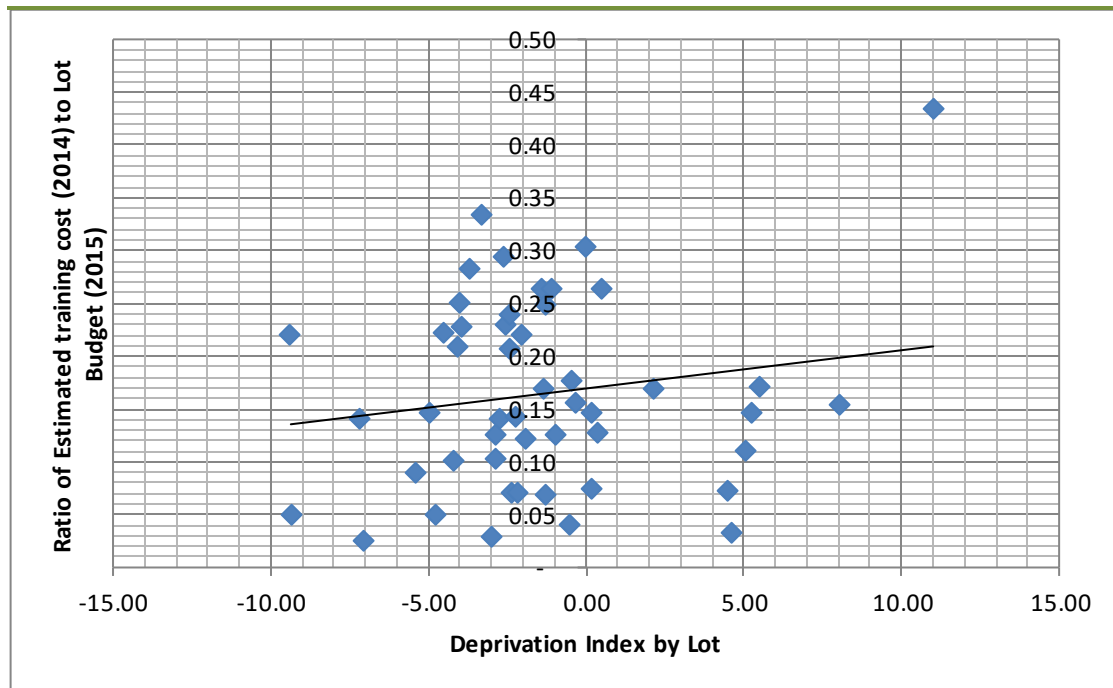
⁶ We had information available of total expenditure by 51 Lot areas and our analysis confirmed a positive relationship between the level of deprivation and the Lot expenditure per head of population (2015).

of the individual-level programmes are designed to re-integrate and assist highly disadvantaged jobseekers into the labour market. It is important to ensure that individual-level interventions, particularly those related to helping people back into the labour market and employment, are more heavily concentrated in areas of high social deprivation. In addition, under LCDP and SICAP rules spending must be roughly evenly spread across goals 2 and 3 – the goals that interface with individuals seeking to improve their lifelong learning and employment options. However, it would appear that this restriction applies to total spend; thus our analysis is limited to examining the degree to which the pattern of spending deviates with respect to individual-level interventions.

In order to get a sense of the extent to which programme implementers (PIs) focus on group interventions, as opposed to individual-level ones, Figure 2.1 plots the share of PI expenditure on individual-level training programmes in 2014 against the total Lot budgets for nine months of 2015. This calculation involves dividing 80 per cent of training expenditure for 2014 into 75 per cent of the total budgets for 2015, in order to assess the extent to which training expenditure varies by PI.⁷ While far from perfect, we believe that this provides a reliable estimate of the variation in spending patterns under LCDP. The average share targeted towards training ranges from just three per cent in Northeast and West Kerry, South and East Cork and Inishowen, to 43 per cent in Dun Laoghaire/Rathdown. Such wide variations leave open the possibility that individual-level interventions may be most intense in areas of low unemployment and social deprivation. We find that, on average, 16 per cent of total expenditure of PIs is directed towards training activities and, while no clear pattern is discernible, there is evidence to suggest that shares tend to be higher in some of the least deprived areas (Figure 2.1). This preliminary analysis strengthens the argument for our basic research question regarding the degree of heterogeneity and progressivity in the distribution of individual-level training interventions undertaken under the LCDP programme.

⁷ Within the data, we had information on 21,019 programme participants which represents 80 per cent of all LCDP places accessed in 2014.

Figure 2.1 How does the Ratio of Estimated Training Cost (2014) to Lot Budget (2015) Match the Deprivation Index Across Lots?



Note: This regression line is not statistically significant; there is no clear pattern.

Chapter 3

IRIS Dataset

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The Integrated Reporting and Information System (IRIS) dataset contains information on individuals participating in Local and Community Development Programme (LCDP) programmes. As noted, the Social Inclusion and Community Activation Programme (SICAP) was launched in 2015 as a successor to the LCDP and while there was some change in emphasis, initiatives remain broadly comparable. The LCDP goals can be fully related to those of SICAP and, for the purposes of this study, our analysis is related to the more recent SICAP goals. IRIS holds individual-level registration information on characteristics such as age, gender, education, principal economic status. It also contains training provision information (recorded as outcomes), such as course title, duration, whether it is accredited, level of accreditation, awarding bodies and whether a course is completed.

To assist the research, Pobal were asked to classify the training provision across the areas that captured the bulk of LCDP places. They subsequently provided us with 30 data files, one for each of the identified course types. These data included information on 21,019 programme participants, representing 81 per cent of all LCDP places accessed in 2014.^{8,9,10} Given the similarity of the two programmes it is likely that any conclusions drawn from the LCDP data will apply generally to the current SICAP programme.

Table 3.1 shows that approximately one-third of individuals assisted under LCDP are educated to below the upper-secondary level. Just under one half are educated to upper-secondary level, with the remaining 20 per cent holding third level qualifications. The SICAP distribution compares with

⁸ All data were provided to the ESRI in an anonymised format.

⁹ Individuals can access more than one programme simultaneously.

¹⁰ The remainder 19 per cent of individuals were assisted under programme areas that were sufficiently small as to exclude them for the purposes of this study.

population averages of 25 per cent for below upper-secondary level (NFQ<5), 25 per cent for upper-secondary level and 50 per cent for third level (NFQ>6).¹¹

Table 3.1 Prior Education Levels of Participants Across Programme Types (%)

Course Type	NFQ<4	NFQ 4&5	NFQ>5	Total
Art, craft and design	5	3	2	3
Bookkeeping	2	3	6	3
Business	2	6	9	5
Business planning	2	2	5	3
Care and health	6	4	2	4
Community capacity	1	2	2	1
Construction and trades	2	1	1	1
Cooking	1	0	0	1
Driving (forklift and driving)	1	1	0	1
ESOL*	1	1	1	1
English	3	4	5	4
Enterprise	5	12	11	9
First aid	2	2	2	2
Food	4	4	2	3
Hair and beauty	0	0	0	0
Health and safety	2	1	1	1
Hospitality and catering	1	1	0	1
Information technology	14	9	4	10
Job seeking	9	12	8	10
Kickstart pre-employment	1	1	0	1
Languages	0	0	0	0
Manual handling	4	2	1	3
Parenting	3	4	5	4
Personal development	14	11	7	11
Start your own business	3	4	12	5
Safe-pass	6	3	3	4
Security	1	1	0	1
Self-employment	3	4	7	4
Sports, leisure and tourism	2	1	1	2
Steps pre-employment	2	1	1	1
Total	100	100	100	100
#	7,012	9,951	4,037	21,000**

Notes: * ESOL: English for Speakers of Other Languages; ** Missing data for 19 cases from the total sample

Table 3.1 also shows the principal training programmes offered under LCDP by education level of participants. Programmes generally span three

¹¹ Information from Q2 of the 2014 Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS) supplemental table; the data refer to adults aged 15–64 years.

areas: lifelong learning, labour market activation and personal development. Some patterns are evident with respect to the level of educational attainment of participants, across training programmes. For example, individuals with less than an upper-secondary level education are heavily concentrated in information technology (IT) and personal development courses. Clients with an upper-secondary level education are relatively more likely to be in job-seeking and enterprise programmes. Participants with a third level education are concentrated in enterprise and entrepreneurship assistance.

Table 3.2 Age of Individuals Across Programme Types

Course Type	16–18	18–25	26–35	36–45	46–55	Over 55	Total
	(%)						
Art, craft and design	2	2	2	2	4	8	3
Bookkeeping	0	1	4	4	3	2	3
Business	0	2	7	6	6	4	5
Business planning	0	1	4	3	3	1	3
Care and health	3	5	3	4	4	7	4
Community capacity	0	1	1	1	1	2	1
Construction and trades	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
Cooking	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
Driving (forklift and driving)	6	2	1	1	0	0	1
ESOL*	0	0	2	2	1	1	1
English	2	3	5	4	3	2	4
Enterprise	1	3	13	12	11	4	9
First Aid	3	4	2	2	2	1	2
Food	4	4	3	3	4	4	3
Hair and beauty	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Health and safety	2	2	1	1	1	2	1
Hospitality and catering	0	3	0	1	0	0	1
Information technology	7	9	4	7	10	25	10
Job seeking	33	16	9	9	10	5	10
Kickstart pre-employment	1	3	0	0	1	0	1
Languages	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Manual handling	2	4	3	3	2	1	3
Parenting	0	1	7	5	2	1	4
Personal development	25	16	7	9	12	17	11
Start your own business	0	3	7	7	5	2	5
Safe-pass	1	4	4	4	4	2	4
Security	2	1	1	1	1	0	1
Self-employment	0	2	5	5	4	2	4
Sports, leisure and tourism	4	2	1	1	1	3	2
Steps pre-employment	1	2	1	1	1	0	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
#	240	3,270	5,354	5,435	3,980	2,721	21,000

Note: * ESOL: English for Speakers of Other Languages.

The distribution of participants by age category is given in Table 3.2. Sixteen per cent of training participants are in the 18–25 years age bracket, 25 per cent are aged 26–45 years, with the remaining 13 per cent aged 56 years and over. Participants aged 16–25 years are most heavily concentrated in the job-seeking and personal development programmes. ‘Prime age’ individuals (26–45 years) are most likely to be undertaking enterprise courses, while those aged 46 years and over are more heavily concentrated in IT and personal development initiatives.

3.2 CONCENTRATION OF RESOURCES ACROSS LCDP TRAINING INITIATIVES

LCDP had four underlying goal objectives, which were then reduced to three goals under SICAP. This process was relatively straightforward: two LCDP goals relating to community development (LCDP’s goal 1) and social disadvantage (LCDP’s goal 4) were amalgamated (SICAP’s goal 1). The other two goals, relating to education and employment, remained unchanged. Our data relate to LCDP; however, as the training programmes will remain relatively static, this analysis focuses on the current SICAP goals, which are more relevant from a policy perspective.

SICAP’s three key goals, which centre on empowering disadvantaged communities, lifelong learning and employment, are to:

1. support and resource disadvantaged communities and marginalised target groups to engage with relevant local and national stakeholders in identifying and addressing social exclusion and equality issues;
2. support individuals and marginalised target groups experiencing educational disadvantage so they can participate, engage with and progress through lifelong learning opportunities through the use of community development approaches;
3. engage with marginalised target groups and individuals and residents of disadvantaged communities who are unemployed but who do not fall within mainstream employment service provision, or who are referred to SICAP, to move them closer to the labour market and improve work readiness, and support them in accessing employment and self-employment and creating social enterprise opportunities.

The SICAP programme is managed by Pobal and administered through Local and Community Development Committee (LCDCs). LCDCs have been established in each local authority area and are mandated with bringing a more joined-up coherent approach to the management of public funded

programmes in the areas of economic, social and community development. LCDCs are responsible for the implementation of SICAP. The allocation of spending across the areas is partly determined by a technical Resource Allocation Model in the Department of Housing, Planning, Community and Local Government. This model takes account of a range of factors, including deprivation levels and other available funding sources .

In order to obtain funding, programme implementers (PIs) must submit a range of planned activities consistent with all of the SICAP goals. The SICAP documentation states that direct costs should be apportioned equally across the SICAP goals, with a leeway of five per cent either side (Pobal, 2015). PIs must maintain those funding thresholds across the goals and in the administration percentage indicated in their winning tender; essentially, administration spending cannot be more than 25 per cent of the total Lot budget. Funding of actions to individuals on a one-to-one basis should largely be concentrated around goals 2 and 3; furthermore, PIs should ensure a balance of resource allocation annually. However, the data suggest some variation across PIs regarding priorities and focus on particular goal areas over given periods of time. The objective of this section of the report is to establish exactly how the LCDP/SICAP resources are distributed across the various goals and to identify patterns with respect to both the distribution of population share and level of social deprivation.

Table 3.3 details the distribution of training places across programme areas. These courses have been grouped in categories defined by Pobal. The six most common course types account for 50 per cent of total places. Of the six largest course types, four are in the field of entrepreneurship/labour market activation, one – IT – is in lifelong learning and one is in personal development. Outside of these six course types, participation across other areas appears to be highly dispersed, with participation rates ranging between 68 to 1,000 individuals, across the entire country. According to the data presented in Table 3.3, on average just 40 per cent of training places are accredited and, of this, less than half are accredited through the national FETAC (now Quality and Qualifications Ireland, or QQI) system. Low accreditation levels make the monitoring, and possibly the evaluation, of courses difficult. This issue suggests that the adoption of alternative indicators may be necessary to ensure that programmes are meeting SICAP goals. Accreditation levels vary by programme area and tend to be highest for lifelong learning in areas such

as hospitality and catering, first aid, security and healthcare.¹² Accreditation levels tend to be lowest in areas related to labour market activation, such as enterprise programmes, business planning and pre-employment courses. English language courses are virtually all unaccredited; however, it is likely they are targeted at individuals with poor English, such as non-Irish nationals and those with low literacy levels.

¹² Within community-based education, it is not surprising that high proportions of training are unaccredited given that many are targeted at individuals with very low levels of educational attainment and are designed to act as a pathway into more formal accredited programmes, as well as contribute to other objectives such as personal development, wellbeing and broader community development (Aontas, 2010).

Table 3.3 Distribution of Places by Main Subject Area and Accreditation

#	Course Type	Places	Places (%)	Accredited (% of total)	FETAC (% of total)	Other (% of total)
1	Personal development	2,344	11	29	14	16
2	Job seeking/Job preparation	2,130	10	20	7	14
3	IT	2,046	10	47	35	12
4	Enterprise	1,994	9	7	0	7
5	Start your own business	1,095	5	.	.	.
6	Business	1,076	5	63	12	51
7	Care and health	935	4	59	32	27
8	Self-employment	845	4	12	7	5
9	Safe-pass	832	4	78	5	73
10	Parenting	823	4	37	4	33
11	English	753	4	3	0	3
12	Food	717	3	62	34	29
13	Art, craft and design	694	3	16	15	2
14	Bookkeeping	632	3	34	7	28
15	Business planning	561	3	0	0	0
16	Manual handling	555	3	32	0	32
17	First aid	418	2	90	61	28
18	Sport, leisure and tourism	319	2	40	25	2
19	Community capacity	285	1	30	5	25
20	Health and safety	277	1	57	21	36
21	Construction and trades	265	1	60	33	26
22	ESOL*	251	1	67	34	33
23	Steps pre-employment	227	1	22	3	19
24	Driving (forklift and driving)	180	1	39	0	39
25	Kickstart pre-employment	178	1	8	0	8
26	Hospitality and catering	171	1	80	10	6
27	Security	162	1	98	90	7
28	Cooking	105	0	13	13	0
29	Languages	81	0	30	6	23
30	Hair and beauty	68	0	50	26	24
	Averages	701	3	41	17	21
	Totals	21,019	100			

Note: * ESOL: English for Speakers of Other Languages.

Providers were asked to give information on both the duration and cost of training programmes. The requisite information was obtained for around 50 per cent of total course provision. In order to provide an estimate of the total spend by programme area, we used the information provided to generate average estimates, for both course duration and cost per place by course type, and substituted this information for courses for which no such detail had been provided. We then aggregated the data to provide an estimated average cost per hour and average duration for each programme type. Average 'cost per person' hours and number of hours

per course, for each programme type, was then used to calculate the average cost per place by programme. For a very small number of courses, such as English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), we did not receive any information from providers on either course duration or cost; in those cases, expenditure was taken as the product of average cost per hour by average number of hours across all programmes.

Table 3.4 provides the distribution of training activities by expenditure. We estimate a total training expenditure of €4.45 million for the 21,000 training places in our data. However, it is important to note that not all of this funding will have come through LCDP, as around one-third of courses were only partially funded by the programme. Again, while the six largest programme areas accounted for over 50 per cent of resource allocation, here the relative ranking of programmes emerges somewhat differently to Table 3.3. For example, business programmes account for the largest single share of spending (16 per cent) while accounting for only five per cent of places. Parenting courses enter the six largest categories, accounting for eight per cent of expenditure but only four per cent of places. The change in the relative position of both business and parenting programmes is due to a marginally higher-than-average cost per hour and a substantially higher course duration. Conversely, enterprise and IT courses become relatively less important due to lower-than-average duration and costs. On average, delivered training programmes, presented in Table 3.4, have a duration of 38 hours and thus have relatively low intensity.¹³ There are some notable exceptions, like Kickstart pre-employment courses and hospitality and catering courses in general, which have an average duration of approximately 200 hours. The average cost per hour in training programmes is €9; however, again there were some notable deviations from the average, such as forklift driving (€29.49), security (€17.11) and enterprise (€3.21).

¹³ In the further education and training sector, the average full-time course duration is 800 hours (McGuinness et al., 2014).

Table 3.4 Estimates of Expenditure and Duration of Interventions across Programme Areas

#	Programme Type	Places	Places (%)	Average Hours per Course	Average Cost per Person per Hour (€)	Average Cost per Place (€)	Total Est. Costs (€)	Total Est. Costs (%)
6	Business	1,076	5	51	12.70	648	696,925	16
2	Job seeking/Job preparation	2,130	10	34	7.14	243	517,079	12
1	Personal development	2,344	11	22	7.90	174	407,387	9
10	Parenting	823	4	28	14.92	418	343,816	8
7	Care and health	935	4	42	7.97	335	312,982	7
3	IT	2,046	10	23	5.48	126	257,878	6
25	Kickstart pre-Employment	178	1	218	5.11	1,114	198,288	4
4	Enterprise	1,994	9	26	3.21	83	166,419	4
11	English	753	4	45	4.26	192	144,350	3
24	Driving (forklift and driving)	180	1	26	29.49	767	138,013	3
21	Construction and trades	265	1	33	14.40	475	125,928	3
12	Food	717	3	18	9.64	174	124,414	3
13	Art, craft and design	694	3	29	5.91	171	118,945	3
8	Self-employment	845	4	15	7.12	107	90,246	2
22	ESOL*	251	1	38	9.28	353	88,513	2
26	Hospitality and catering	171	1	193	2.45	473	80,857	2
23	Steps pre-employment	227	1	38	9.28	353	80,049	2
18	Sport, leisure and tourism	319	2	30	8.30	249	79,431	2
9	Safe-pass	832	4	8	11.23	90	74,747	2
27	Security	162	1	26	17.11	445	72,067	2
5	Start your own business	1,095	5	12	5.17	62	67,934	2
14	Bookkeeping	632	3	14	7.50	105	66,360	1
17	First aid	418	2	11	12.14	134	55,820	1
16	Manual handling	555	3	6	11.53	69	38,395	1
20	Health and safety	277	1	10	11.11	111	30,775	1
19	Community capacity	285	1	18	5.66	102	29,036	1
30	Hair and beauty	68	0	34	7.79	265	18,010	0
15	Business planning	561	3	2	9.28	19	10,412	0
28	Cooking	105	0	16	6.07	97	10,198	0
29	Languages	81	0	12	9.28	111	9,020	0
	Totals	21,019	100				4,454,295	100
	Averages	701	3	38	9	269	148,476	3

Note: * ESOL: English for Speakers of Other Languages. The number of places by programme type was provided to us from Pobal. Course duration and cost per person was collected for 50% of all programmes. Using this information, we calculated an average per person cost per hour for each course. The average cost per place is the average cost per person per hour multiplied by the average number of hours per course across that programme type. The total estimated costs for each programme type is the cost per place multiplied by the number of places included in that programme type. For some courses we did not receive information on course duration and/or course costs per person, for example, courses in the ESOL programme. In these cases, we estimated the missing data (in red) using the average across all courses.

3.3 DISTRIBUTION OF RESOURCES BY POPULATION AND SOCIAL DEPRIVATION

We next consider the extent to which resources measured in terms of expenditure are distributed by both population and deprivation at a more disaggregated spatial level. At a NUTS 3 level, a ratio of population-to-training places of one indicates a proportionate distribution, and generally the distribution looks to be broadly in line with population share (Figure 3.1). There are some anomalies, with some under-representation in the South-West and Mid-East regions, while the South-East and Border regions were found to have a larger than expected share, based on their population. However, it is undeniable that variation exists in levels of deprivation within NUTS 3 areas. As this information is available at the PI level, which relates to 50 Lot areas and which allows for a sub-county level assessment, the analysis is conducted at this level accounting for deprivation (see Table 3.5). We consider the following expenditure indicators:

- the share of total expenditure in the 50 Lot areas as a ratio of the share of the population, with a value of above/below one indicating a disproportionately higher/lower than expected share of expenditure relative to population;
- the Pobal Haase and Pratschke (HP) Deprivation Index which is more positive for affluent areas; and
- the average cost per place.¹⁴

Generally, the patterns show that Lot areas with relatively higher levels of deprivation tend to have proportionately more expenditure relative to population share. In other words, the most deprived areas have an expenditure-to-population ratio of above one (Table 3.5). Conversely, more affluent areas tend to have on average expenditure ratios of below one. We can see that this general inverse relationship holds when the information in Table 3.5 is plotted; Figures 3.2 and 3.3 plot the relative deprivation against the relative expenditure share and training places. There are however some Lot areas that do not appear to fit this pattern. Donegal has three Lot areas that rank among the most deprived in the country but which have a training expenditure level of less than half the expected amount based on population share (Table 3.5). Furthermore,

¹⁴ The Pobal Haase and Pratschke (HP) Deprivation Index is a method of measuring the relative affluence or disadvantage of a particular geographical area using data compiled from various censuses. A scoring is given to the area based on a national average of zero and ranging from approximately -35 (being the most disadvantaged) to +35 (being the most affluent). In addition to this, percentage data for the area are given under the following categories: population change; age dependency ratio; lone parent ratio; primary education only; third level education; unemployment rate (male and female); and proportion living in local authority rented housing.

Donegal has a much lower-than-average cost per place, suggesting that these limited resources are spread more thinly relative to less deprived areas. An explanation for this pattern is that, based on the methodology applied to Figure 2.1 (chapter 2), PIs operating in the three Donegal areas have an average expenditure share for individual-level training of just four per cent, which lies well below the general PI average figure of 16 per cent. This analysis suggests that in order to ensure that individual-level interventions remain fully in line with levels of social deprivation, Pobal should consider implementing guidelines on the minimum share of total expenditure that PIs should direct towards individual-level programmes. Conversely, the training expenditure level for Dun Laoghaire–Rathdown, which ranks as the least deprived area, was 43 per cent, more than 50 per cent higher than the level expected, based on population share. This finding may also suggest that Pobal might also consider imposing a maximum share on individual-level interventions to ensure that group-based community development is not compromised. Figure 3.4 demonstrates a positive relationship between the deprivation index and the average cost per place, indicating a higher intensity of training resources per participant in more affluent areas. Again, this is likely to relate to an above-average expenditure share on individual-level interventions in more affluent areas.

Figure 3.1 Spatial Analysis at Nuts Level III

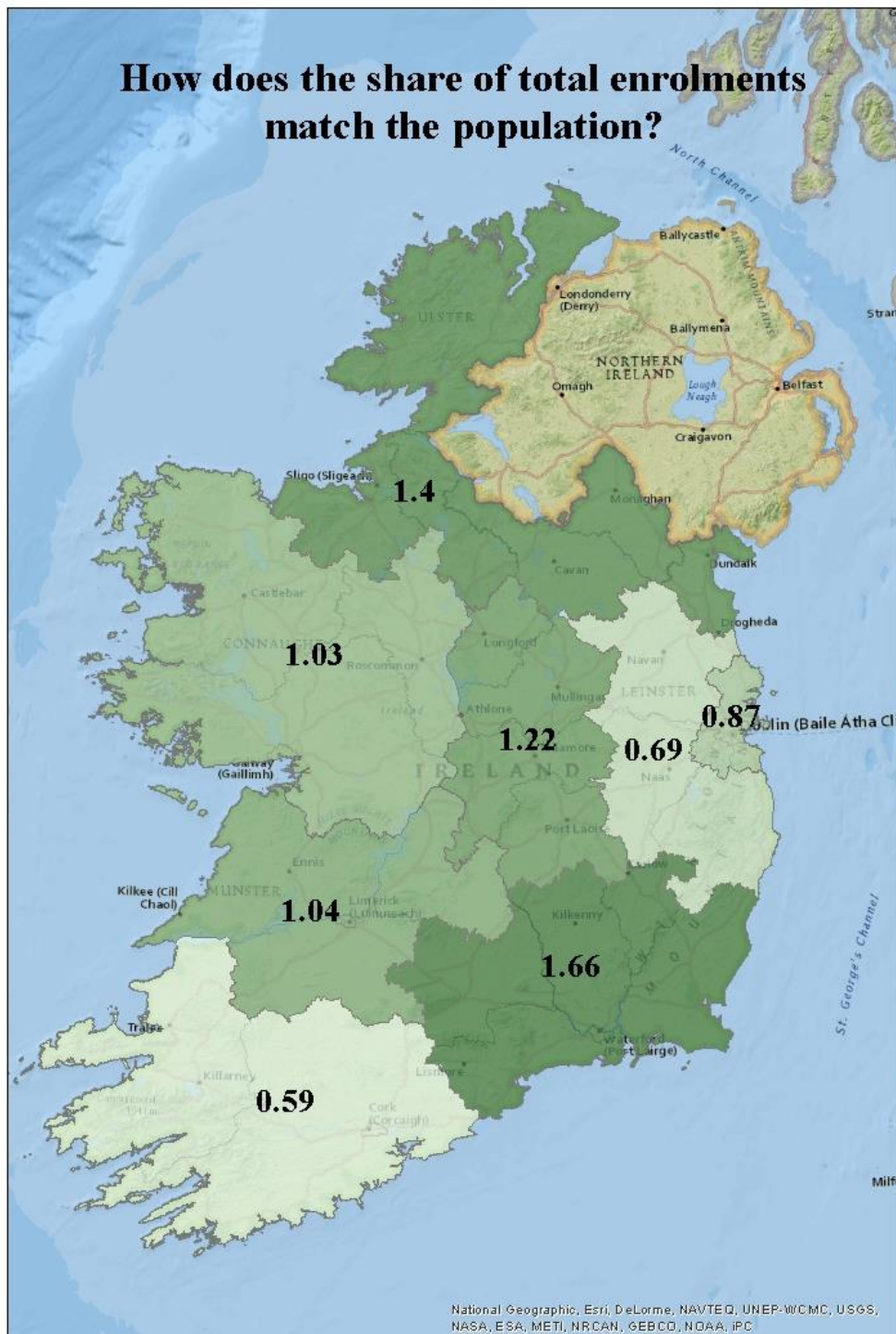


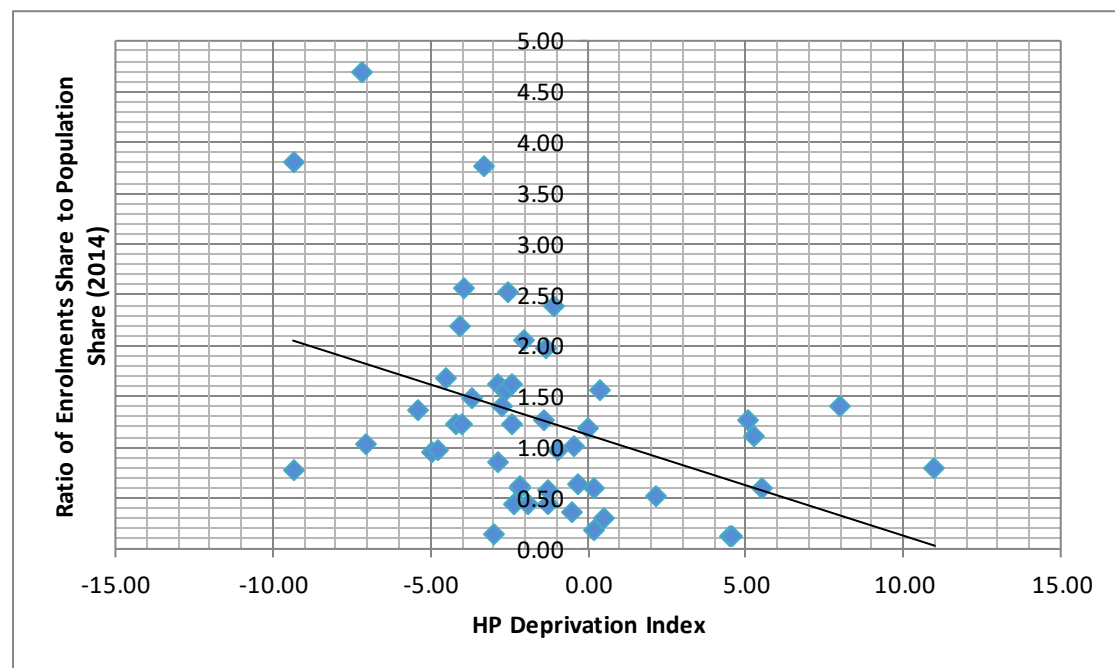
Table 3.5 Expenditure at Lot level with relative HP Index Score

LOTS (51)	LCDC Name	Dep. Score (2011)	Programme Implementer	Average Cost per Place	Expenditure to Pop. Share	Est. Ratio of Training Cost to Lot Budget
Ballyfermot & Chapelizod	Dublin City (5)	-9.36	Ballyfermot/Chapelizod Partnership	204.22	3.67	0.22
Gaeltacht	Donegal (3)	-9.35	Donegal Local Development Company Ltd (2)	103.56	0.38	0.05
Mayo Islands	Mayo (3)	-7.15	South West Mayo Development Company Ltd. (2)	284.54	6.30	0.14
Inishowen	Donegal (3)	-7.07	Inishowen Development Partnership Ltd.	58.05	0.28	0.03
Longford County	Longford	-5.37	Longford Community Resources Ltd	141.43	0.91	0.09
Ballina and Mayo West	Mayo (3)	-4.96	Mayo North East Leader Partnership Company Teoranta	285.89	1.28	0.15
Donegal	Donegal (3)	-4.74	Donegal Local Development Company Ltd (1)	103.56	0.47	0.05
Offaly County	Offaly	-4.49	Offaly Integrated Local Development Company Ltd	208.06	1.65	0.22
Monaghan County	Monaghan	-4.19	Monaghan Integrated Development Ltd	137.89	0.80	0.10
Cavan County	Cavan	-4.09	Breifni Integrated Ltd	158.15	1.63	0.21
Tipperary South	Tipperary (2)	-4.00	South Tipperary Development Company Ltd	236.94	1.37	0.25
Wexford	Wexford	-3.95	Wexford Local Development	170.38	2.06	0.23
Louth County	Louth	-3.68	Louth Leader Partnership Company Ltd	326.60	2.29	0.28
Carlow County	Carlow	-3.29	Carlow County Development Partnership Ltd	142.78	2.54	0.33
North-East and West Kerry	Kerry (3)	-2.97	North and East Kerry Leader Partnership Teoranta	415.86	0.27	0.03

LOTS (51)	LCDC Name	Dep. Score (2011)	Programme Implementer	Average Cost per Place	Expenditure to Pop. Share	Est. Ratio of Training Cost to Lot Budget
Ballymun, Whitehall, Tolka	Dublin City (5)	-2.89	Tolka Area Partnership Ltd and Ballymun/Whitehall Area Partner	181.03	1.37	0.12
Waterford City and County	Waterford	-2.87	Waterford Area Partnership Ltd and Waterford Leader Partner Ltd	191.09	0.76	0.10
Roscommon County	Roscommon	-2.75	Roscommon Integrated Development Company Ltd	154.01	1.01	0.14
Laois County	Laois	-2.61	Laois Community and Enterprise Development Company Ltd	217.54	1.59	0.29
Leitrim County	Leitrim	-2.53	Leitrim Integrated Development Company Ltd	247.14	2.94	0.23
Arklow, Wicklow, Baltinglass	Wicklow (2)	-2.44	County Wicklow Community Partnership Ltd	157.18	1.20	0.21
Tipperary North	Tipperary (2)	-2.44	North Tipperary Leader Partnership Ltd	230.49	1.32	0.24
Charleville and Mitchelstown	North Cork (3)	-2.36	Ballyhoura Development Ltd (2)	222.61	0.44	0.07
Castlebar and Claremorris	Mayo (3)	-2.19	South West Mayo Development Company Ltd (1)	284.54	0.79	0.14
Limerick Urban	Limerick (3)	-2.18	PAUL Partnership (People Action Against Unemployment Ltd)	256.40	0.74	0.07
Limerick West Rural	Limerick (3)	-2.05	West Limerick Resources Ltd	179.48	1.73	0.22
Westmeath County	Westmeath	-1.94	Westmeath Community Development Ltd	414.76	0.84	0.12

LOTS (51)	LCDC Name	Dep. Score (2011)	Programme Implementer	Average Cost per Place	Expenditure to Pop. Share	Est. Ratio of Training Cost to Lot Budget
Kanturk, Newmarket, Millstreet	North Cork (3)	-1.40	IRD Duhallow Ltd (1)	230.37	1.37	0.26
Cork City	Cork City	-1.32	Comhar Chathair Chorcaí Teoranta	143.33	1.33	0.17
Limerick East Rural	Limerick (3)	-1.28	Ballyhoura Development Ltd (1)	222.61	0.46	0.07
Kilkenny County	Kilkenny	-1.26	County Kilkenny Leader Partnership Company Ltd	461.77	1.23	0.25
Rathmore and Gneeveguilla	Kerry (3)	-1.11	IRD Duhallow Ltd (2)	230.37	2.58	0.26
Clare County	Clare	-0.92	Clare Local Development Company Ltd	153.75	0.70	0.12
South Kerry and Killarney	Kerry (3)	-0.48	South Kerry Development Partnership Ltd	183.69	0.30	0.04
Galway County	Galway County	-0.47	Galway Rural Development Company Ltd. (Decision deferred) and Forum Connemara Ltd	266.14	1.25	0.18
Sligo County	Sligo	-0.30	County Sligo Leader Partnership Company Ltd	358.85	1.08	0.16
Mallow and Fermoy	North Cork (3)	-0.01	Avondhu/Blackwater Partnership Ltd	253.43	1.41	0.30
South Dublin County	South Dublin	0.20	SDC South Dublin County Partnership Ltd	315.64	0.87	0.15
West Cork District	West Cork (3)	0.22	West Cork Development Partnership Ltd (1)	365.84	0.31	0.07
Northside	Dublin City (5)	0.35	Northside Partnership Ltd	115.96	0.85	0.13
Meath County	Meath	0.52	Meath Community Rural and Social Development (Decision deferred)	302.61	0.41	0.26
West Cork Islands	West Cork (3)	1.80	Comhar na nOileán Teoranta			

LOTS (51)	LCDC Name	Dep. Score (2011)	Programme Implementer	Average Cost per Place	Expenditure to Pop. Share	Est. Ratio of Training Cost to Lot Budget
Kildare County	Kildare	2.15	Cill Dara Ar Aghaidh Teoranta (County Kildare Leader Partnership)	265.15	0.63	0.17
Bandon and Kinsale	West Cork (3)	4.50	West Cork Development Partnership Ltd (2)	365.84	0.20	0.07
South and East Cork	South Cork	4.60	South and East Cork Area Development Partnership Ltd	174.00	0.09	0.03
Bray and Greystones	Wicklow (2)	5.08	Bray Area Partnership Ltd	174.16	1.03	0.11
Galway City	Galway City	5.26	Galway City Partnership Ltd	186.11	0.97	0.15
Fingal	Fingal	5.49	The Blanchardstown Area Partnership Ltd and Fingal Leader Partnership Company Ltd	204.54	0.57	0.17
Inner City	Dublin City (5)	6.65	Dublin Inner City Community Co-operative Society Ltd			
Canal, Rathmines, Pembroke	Dublin City (5)	8.03	Canals Community Partnership and Rathmines Pembroke Community Partnership	193.54	1.27	0.15
Dun Laoghaire/Rathdown	Dun L/Rathd.	11.01	Southside Partnership DLR Ltd	410.08	1.52	0.43
AVERAGES				230.45	1.25	0.16

Figure 3.2 How Does the Share of Enrolments Match the Population and Deprivation Indices?

Note: This regression line is statistically significant at the 5% level.

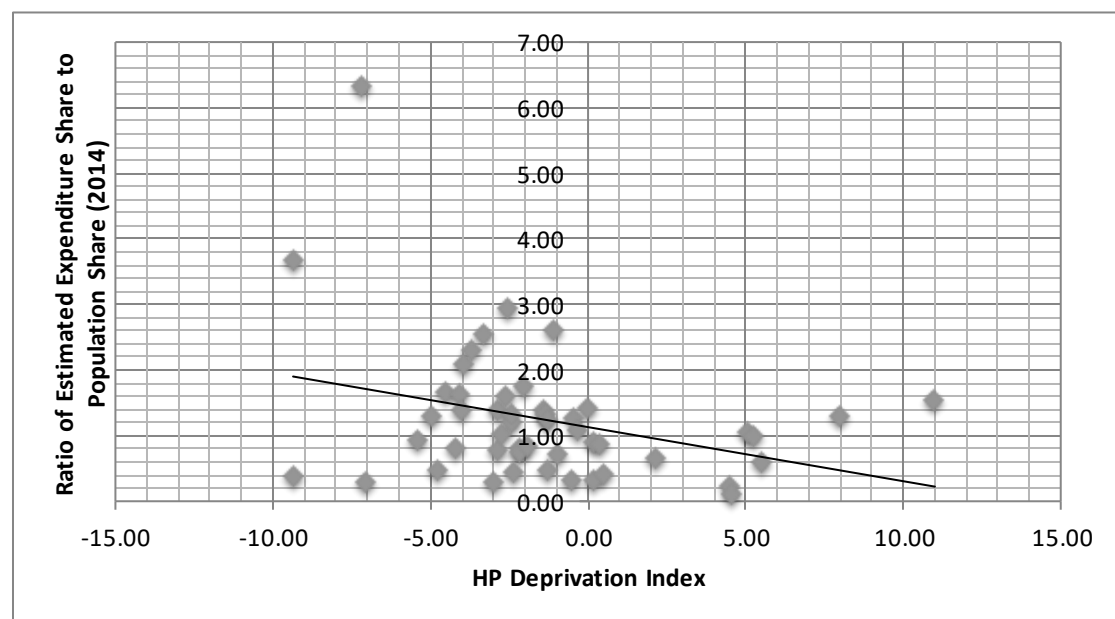
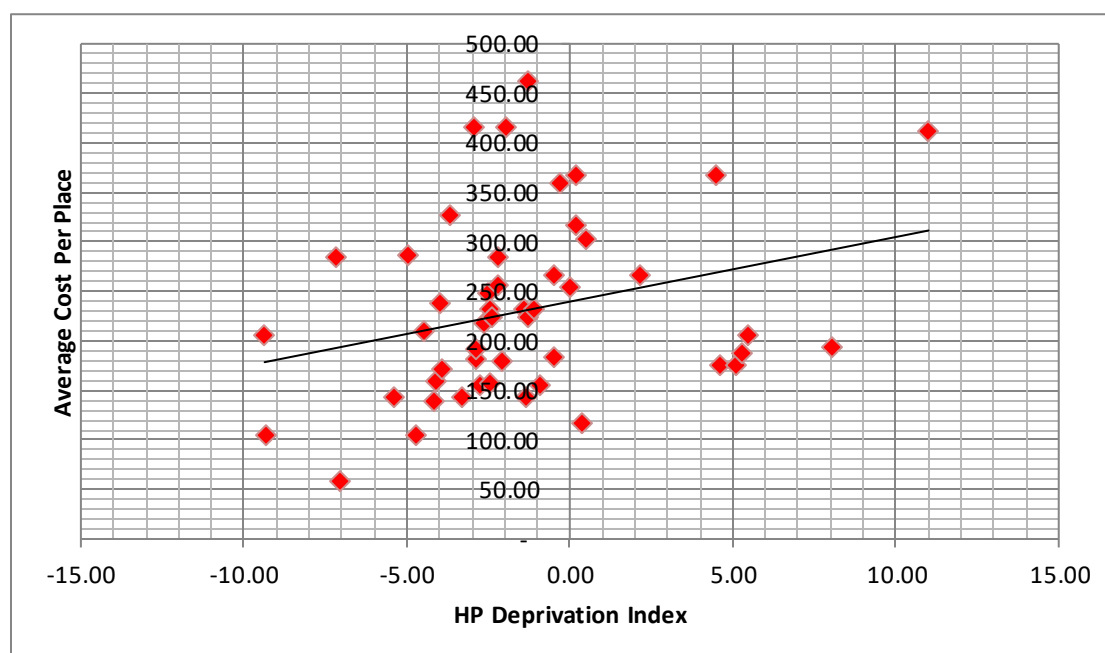
Figure 3.3 How Does the Share of Expenditure Match the Population and Deprivation Indices?

Figure 3.4 How Does the Average Cost per Place Match the Deprivation Index?

Note: This regression line is statistically significant at the 5% level.

3.4 ORGANISATION OF ACTIVITY AROUND SICAP GOALS

We next assess the extent to which training expenditure and places are distributed across three organisational goals. While the PIs of LCDP are obliged to ensure that spending is approximately evenly distributed across goals, there is nothing to suggest that this regulation will apply specifically to the training component. Presumably, the composition of training and group activities can vary substantially within one PI's jurisdiction, as long as total expenditure, across both components, complies with the overarching regulation. We categorise courses under each goal using subjective assessment; for example, courses such as personal development and parenting are the dominant elements of goal 1 (social inclusion and capacity building), while job-seeking and enterprise courses predominate under goal 3 (employment). Remaining courses, which are mostly related to improving personal knowledge and skills (such as IT and art, craft and design), are categorised under goal 2 (lifelong learning).

As stated earlier, the guidelines suggest that resources and activity should be spread equally across the three goals (with some degree of flexibility) and that they should balance out annually. However, the evidence suggests that activities among some Lot areas are concentrated more heavily in one or two of the three goals. It is also important to note that, as most spending under goal 1 targets groups rather than individuals, total

resources allocated to this goal are under-represented when measured solely in terms of individual-level allocations.

Table 3.6 shows that two-thirds of places were in employment programmes (goal 3) in 2014, with less than 20% of places falling to each of the other two goals. This pattern appears to be intuitive; the rate of unemployment was still very high during this period and consequently would have been a priority issue for PIs. In keeping with the general patterns of the aggregate data, just over one-third of places were accredited and, not surprisingly, the accreditation rates (including QQI/FETAC accreditation rates) were highest in the lifelong learning programmes, at 46%. Table 3.6 also shows that the average cost per place is highest in the social inclusion and capacity building programmes and lowest in lifelong learning.

Table 3.6 Distribution of Places across SICAP Goals with Accreditation Levels and Estimated Costs

Goal	Places		Accreditation			Cost
	Places (#)	Places (%)	Accredited	Accredited (% of total)	FETAC (% of total)	Average Cost Per Place
1 (SI)	3,857	0.18	1,144	0.30	0.10	274.66
2 (LL)	3,344	0.16	1,543	0.46	0.33	135.07
3 (E)	13,799	0.66	4,346	0.31	0.11	212.82
Total	21,000	1.00	7033			
Average				0.36	0.18	207.51

Note: SI = social inclusion and capacity building; L = lifelong learning; E = employment.

Table 3.7 provides some additional detail on patterns of provision by SICAP goal. Those aged under 26 years are more concentrated in social inclusion and capacity building programmes (goal 1). Individuals aged 26–45 years are more likely to be found in employment programmes (goal 3), while those aged 46 years and over are more heavily concentrated in lifelong learning programmes (goal 2). The distribution in terms of levels of educational attainment is narrower, with approximately 80 to 90 per cent of participants holding a Leaving Certificate or less. Those with higher levels of educational attainment are concentrated in employment programmes and self-employment initiatives.

Table 3.7 Age and Education of Clients Across Goals of SICAP

Goal	Age						Education
	16–18	18–25	26–35	36–45	46–55	Over 55	LC and Lower (%)
1 (SI)	0.02	0.20	0.22	0.24	0.18	0.15	0.84
2 (LL)	0.01	0.15	0.13	0.20	0.20	0.30	0.90
3 (E)	0.01	0.15	0.29	0.28	0.19	0.08	0.78
Average	0.01	0.16	0.25	0.26	0.19	0.13	0.81

Table 3.8 provides more detail by assessing the distribution across goals by Lot area and the associated deprivation index. The table shows that the Lot areas differ greatly in how they spread places across goals but there is no discernible pattern of linkage to levels of deprivation. For instance, while just over 25 per cent of places, on average, are allocated to goal 1, the shares at Lot level vary from zero to one per cent in South Kerry and Killarney, Fingal, Ballyfermot and Chapelizod to over 80 per cent in Tipperary North and South and East Cork, all of which span the social deprivation index. With respect to goal 2 (lifelong learning), the shares vary from zero per cent in Dun Laoghaire/Rathdown, Meath, Westmeath, Longford and South and East Cork to over 30 per cent in Dublin Fingal, North-East and West Kerry, Louth and Ballina and Mayo West, again spanning the deprivation index. Finally, with respect to goal 3 (employment), shares range from zero per cent in South and East Cork to over 90 per cent in Dun Laoghaire/Rathdown, Westmeath, Ballyfermot and Chapelizod, South Kerry and Killarney.

Table 3.8 Distribution across Goals at Lot Level

LOTS (51)	Dep. Score (2011)	Average Cost per Place	Goal 1 Share	Goal 2 Share	Goal 3 Share
Ballyfermot and Chapelizod	-9.36	204.22	1.37	4.81	93.82
Gaeltacht	-9.35	103.56	13.10	5.65	81.25
Mayo Islands	-7.15	284.54	7.61	18.27	74.11
Inishowen	-7.07	58.05	9.28	2.58	88.14
Longford County	-5.37	141.43	17.70	0.00	82.30
Ballina and Mayo West	-4.96	285.89	17.52	33.58	48.91
Donegal	-4.74	103.56	13.10	5.65	81.25
Offaly County	-4.49	208.06	28.18	16.81	55.01
Monaghan County	-4.19	137.89	7.06	21.18	71.76
Cavan County	-4.09	158.15	9.56	10.52	79.92
Tipperary South	-4.00	236.94	59.79	25.83	14.38
Wexford	-3.95	170.38	9.79	9.79	80.42
Louth County	-3.68	326.60	23.74	32.13	44.12
Carlow County	-3.29	142.78	1.70	14.47	83.83
North-East and West Kerry	-2.97	415.86	8.42	41.83	49.75
Ballymun, Whitehall, Tolka	-2.89	181.03	7.21	10.87	81.92

LOTS (51)	Dep. Score (2011)	Average Cost per Place	Goal 1 Share	Goal 2 Share	Goal 3 Share
Roscommon County	-2.75	154.01	49.14	21.87	28.99
Laois County	-2.61	217.54	7.52	22.55	69.93
Leitrim County	-2.53	247.14	28.61	21.80	49.59
Arklow, Wicklow, Baltinglass	-2.44	157.18	21.39	10.26	68.35
Tipperary North	-2.44	230.49	80.36	3.57	16.07
Charleville and Mitchelstown	-2.36	222.61	51.45	12.32	36.23
Castlebar and Claremorris	-2.19	284.54	7.61	18.27	74.11
Limerick Urban	-2.18	256.40	13.78	26.38	59.84
Limerick West Rural	-2.05	179.48	17.60	2.48	79.92
Westmeath County	-1.94	414.76	5.33	0.00	94.67
Kanturk, Newmarket, Millstreet	-1.40	230.37	66.30	12.50	21.20
Cork City	-1.32	143.33	2.06	22.83	75.12
Limerick East Rural	-1.28	222.61	51.45	12.32	36.23
Kilkenny County	-1.26	461.77	30.49	27.64	41.87
Rathmore and Gneeveguilla	-1.11	230.37	66.30	12.50	21.20
Clare County	-0.92	153.75	16.35	29.81	53.85
South Kerry and Killarney	-0.48	183.69	0.00	9.64	90.36
Galway County	-0.47	266.14	2.50	20.55	76.94
Sligo County	-0.30	358.85	27.89	15.26	56.84
Mallow and Fermoy	-0.01	253.43	20.65	16.19	63.16
South Dublin County	0.20	315.64	29.21	21.35	49.44
West Cork District	0.22	365.84	69.12	16.18	14.71
Northside	0.35	115.96	32.29	5.29	62.42
Meath County	0.52	302.61	50.62	0.00	49.38
West Cork Islands	1.80	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Kildare County	2.15	265.15	22.22	9.88	67.90
Bandon and Kinsale	4.50	365.84	69.12	16.18	14.71
South and East Cork	4.60	174.00	100.00	0.00	0.00
Bray and Greystones	5.08	174.16	12.94	26.47	60.59
Galway City	5.26	186.11	28.87	8.92	62.20
Fingal	5.49	204.54	1.34	34.18	64.48
Inner City	6.65	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Canal, Rathmines, Pembroke	8.03	193.54	37.09	7.85	55.06
Dun Laoghaire/Rathdown	11.01	410.08	9.03	0.00	90.97
Averages		230.45	26.16	15.03	58.81

Chapter 4

Evaluation

4.1 TO WHAT EXTENT CAN LOCAL DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES BE SUBJECT TO EVALUATION?

Both within Ireland and internationally, there is a limited culture of evaluating programmes in the community development sphere. The underlying reasons for this are not clear, though a number of potential explanations present themselves, such as the lack of community-level data on both inputs and outcomes, an absence of clear programme objectives, and philosophical arguments around the appropriateness of evaluation in this context. However, the availability of the Integrated Reporting and Information System (IRIS) data and associated clear programme goals and outcomes (either explicitly or implicitly) circumvent many of these barriers and provide a unique opportunity to examine the question of evaluation within the Irish context.¹⁵ Data are available on all participants and, in areas related to employment and lifelong learning, the programme objectives generally relate to gaining employment, self-employment or acquiring new skills or credentials.

Nonetheless, some barriers are likely to remain with respect to programmes falling under goal 1 – social inclusion and capacity building. For example, the objectives of such programmes may be more difficult to define. However, arguments that financial issues are less relevant to community development are questionable in an era of fiscal austerity and prudence when all areas of government expenditure are subject to tighter scrutiny. In this context, we examine the principal training activities under the goals of the Social Inclusion and Community Activation Programme (SICAP) and assess the degree to which they could be subject to evaluation, the type of metric and methodology typically adopted in cases where evaluation is the norm, and the feasibility of evaluation given the programme client base, scale and cost. We will also discuss the extent to which evidence exists regarding the wider community-level benefits of the various initiatives.

¹⁵ The usual caveats with respect to data quality apply, like non response, input errors and interpretation of subjective measures.

We approach the question of evaluation by focusing on the largest training areas, as measured in terms of estimated cost and places. These are: business (goal 3); job seeking/job preparation (goal 3); personal development (goal 1); parenting (goal 1); care and health (goal 3), IT (goal 2); enterprise (goal 3); and start your own business (goal 3). In the national and international literature, programmes in job preparation and self-employment have a strong tradition of evaluation at an individual level but there is little evidence in the way of community-level impacts.

4.1.1 Job Seeking and Job Preparation

Extensive evidence of evaluation, both nationally and internationally, regarding job seeking and job preparation can be found within active labour market policy literature. For example, the international literature includes Dolton and O' Neill (1996), Breunig et al. (2003), Van den Berg and Van der Klaauw (2006), Centeno et al. (2004), Centeno et al. (2009), Card et al. (2009), Kluge (2000), Weber and Hofer (2004), Sinesi (2004), Crépon et al. (2005) and Lechner (2002).¹⁶ In general, these studies examine the impact of programme participation on factors such as: unemployment duration; transition rate from unemployment to work; transition rate from unemployment to training and education; further benefit receipt; further unemployment referrals; and future wages. These studies, in general, rely on counterfactual estimates and adopt a range of methodologies such as difference-in-difference, propensity score matching (PSM), duration models and regression discontinuity. The recent Irish literature – Kelly et al. (2015), McGuinness et al. (2011a), McGuinness et al. (2011b) and McGuinness et al. (2014) – applies these techniques to administrative datasets, such as the Department of Social Protection (DSP) longitudinal Live Register dataset, using outcome measures such as the probability of exiting unemployment within 12 months and transitions from unemployment to education.

If evaluation using SICAP data is to become a feasible future option, the international evidence suggests that there is currently a need for the collection of follow-up information on labour market status of both participants and non-participants. As many of the potential control and treatment groups are also likely to be unemployment claimants, an alternative to collecting follow-up data would be to link IRIS to DSP data using PPSN numbers.

¹⁶ Table A1 in the appendix provides a summary of the national and international literature.

In reviewing the literature, we found no evidence of community-level impacts. Generally, the objectives of such programmes focus on individual-level outcomes, so evaluations do not consider wider community-level spillovers.

4.1.2 Enterprise and Start Your Own Business (SYOB)

There is extensive evidence of programme evaluation within this category in the activation literature; see, for example, Duval-Couetil (2013), Cueto and Mato (2006), Caliendo and Kunn (2011), Baumgartner and Caliendo (2008), Michaelides and Benus (2012), Athayde (2009) and Glas and Cerar (1997) (as summarised in Table A1 in the appendix). These studies also tend to adopt a counterfactual approach, using methods such as difference-in-difference and PSM. The types of individual-level metrics examined include the probability of becoming employed and personal and career satisfaction. Some studies also collect firm-level outcome metrics, such as turnover, employment and survival rates. We could not find evidence of studies that examine community-level impacts.

In terms of training data, collection of current and future labour market information on chosen metrics, for both a treatment and a control group, is a necessary condition of evaluation of programmes of this nature.¹⁷

4.1.3 IT, Business, Care and Health

Programmes under lifelong learning are usually initially evaluated in terms of either achieving accreditation and/or performance within accredited programmes. Educational investment can have both short-run and long-run impacts. Short-run impacts generally relate to acquisition of education and/or skills, while long-run effects relate to the impact of education and skills on labour market outcomes, such as employment, earnings and job satisfaction. Methodologies vary according to whether short-run or long-run effects are being captured. Short-term effects relate to monitoring the degree and level of education and/or skills acquisition; long-run impacts generally adopt a counterfactual approach to measuring the impact of such acquisitions on labour market outcomes; see Ashenfelter et al. (1999) and Harmon et al. (2003) for reviews.

¹⁷ The chosen metrics should be specifically related to the training initiative being considered for evaluation.

The IRIS database contains data on accreditation, in terms of award types and levels, which could be used to monitor short-run effects. However, not all courses are accredited; for example, the rate of accreditation in IT courses is 47 per cent. In the case of non-accredited courses metrics related to skill acquisition, perhaps relative to some baseline measure, should ideally be captured. The evaluation of long-run effects will require the collection of data on future labour market outcomes for both participants and a sample of non-participants.

4.1.4 Parenting

There is limited systematic evidence of evaluation of parenting programmes. Where it does exist, it tends to relate to very specific objectives and outcomes. Studies in this area predominately use randomised controlled trials, which can be costly (see Simkiss et al., 2013, O'Neill et al., 2013, Furlong et al., 2012, and Cerezo et al., 2013). It is difficult from the data at hand to assess the exact objectives of the parenting programmes under SICAP / Local and Community Development Programme (LCDP). Evaluation of programmes of this nature will require key metrics to be captured on either parenting performance or child outcomes, in the context of either ongoing monitoring or a randomised trial.

4.1.5 Personal Development

A large component of personal development programmes relate to mindfulness, mental health and personal and interpersonal skills. There is little evidence of any formal measurement of the impacts of such programmes in the literature. For evaluation purposes, data could be collected before and after such a programme to capture changes in appropriate metrics over time, such as tolerance, self-confidence, independence, ability to deal with unfamiliar circumstances or other measures that may be deemed appropriate to the programme objectives. Methodologies that could be applied include measuring changes in relation to baseline data, or employing difference-in-difference analysis where there is some variation in the implementation of the programme across individuals with baseline information.

4.2 WHERE ARE THE BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE EVALUATION?

Most programme evaluations used quantitative techniques and approaches. Even within an Irish context, the evaluation of training provision similar to those operational under SICAP, such as job assistance advice provided under the national employment action plan or training provided by FÁS/SOLAS, were evaluated using strictly quantitative methods (Kelly et al., 2015, McGuinness et al., 2011a, McGuinness et al., 2011b, McGuinness et al., 2014). However, it may be the case that individuals accessing programmes through community development programmes rather than mainstream services are significantly more disadvantaged relative to mainstream clients. If this is so, then purely quantitative assessments are likely to downwardly bias the estimated impact of SICAP programmes if they are not able to account for more substantial levels of disadvantage among the treatment group. Given the concentration of SICAP activities in areas with high level of social disadvantage, quantitative methods may potentially underestimate the full impact of many of the programmes operated under SICAP. This would be the case particularly if any control group population was to be drawn from the general population on the Live Register.

The observable characteristics of participants attending job-seeking/preparation programmes can be compared with those of unemployed persons captured in the Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS) in 2014. Broadly speaking, both groups appear somewhat similar based on observable data, with LCDP participants having a slightly poorer educational profile, while QNHS individuals appear to have a marginally higher rate of long-term unemployment. A quantitative assessment would generally focus on matching SICAP participants with a non-SICAP control group drawn from the Live Register and comparing the labour market outcomes of both groups at a given point in time.

We have seen from the data that individuals accessing employment training programmes are likely to be more significantly concentrated in areas of social disadvantage. It is therefore unlikely that controlling for such observable differences alone will generate a robust estimate of programme impact, given that LCDP/SICAP participants may be more heavily exposed to a range of significant barriers to employment not currently observed in the data, such as area stigmatisation, low motivation, adverse family histories and household joblessness. Arguably, it is the existence of these potential barriers that constitute a central rationale for the existence of SICAP itself, which offers disadvantaged

individuals increased access to more tailored provision than the alternatives available from mainstream agencies. For this reason, any evaluation of SICAP programmes, such as those relating to employment and lifelong learning, can only be effectively evaluated using mixed-method approaches that combine quantitative estimates with qualitative research that can contextualise any results in terms of the particular barriers faced by programme participants.¹⁸

A further relevant consideration with respect to undertaking evaluation is the trade-off between the scale and cost of programme delivery relative to the financial cost of evaluation. While quantitative evaluations can be relatively inexpensive if the requisite data that captures information on control and treatment groups over time are readily available, this is seldom the case and costs can rise quickly if primary data need to be collected. Furthermore, qualitative evaluations, which generally involve in-depth interviews and focus groups of programme participants, stakeholders, social partners, delivery bodies, and other relevant parties, are also expensive. These costs are generally high irrespective of the scale of the programme under consideration. Regular evaluation of mainstream programmes is easy to justify; for instance, regarding the Back to Education Allowance (BTEA) scheme, which provided assistance to 25,000 individuals in 2014 at a cost of €195 million per annum. However, LCDP/SICAP training actions are much smaller in terms of cost and scale. For example, the three largest programmes under LCDP relate to personal development, job-seeking/job preparation and IT courses, with an average number of places in these courses at 2,100 and with total estimated costs ranging from €250,000 to €520,000. While many of these courses could certainly be subject to rigorous evaluation, the more disadvantaged nature of the client base implies that costlier mixed-method approaches to programmes measurement are required. Arguably, only the largest SICAP training programmes could ever justifiably be subject to formal evaluation and even then only on a highly intermittent basis. At the same time, for the vast majority of SICAP initiatives, counterfactual approaches to evaluation are not feasible. The balance of evidence suggests that monitoring approaches, involving assessment of change in key variables related to programmes objectives relative to some pre-programme baseline measure, are most appropriate for the majority of programmes.

¹⁸ Qualitative studies generally include methods such as semi-structured interviews, case studies, focus groups and key informant interviews. This approach is generally seen as complementary to but distinct from the more quantitative aspects of an evaluation.

4.3 COMMUNITY-LEVEL METRICS

Our review of the international literature revealed little or no evidence of any systematic attempts or methodologies associated with the measurements of community-level outcomes of training programmes similar to those operated under LCDP/SICAP. It is highly likely that the paucity of such research stems from a lack of reliable and centralised data collection on community-based activities and outcomes. Notwithstanding this fact, it should also be recognised that many of the programmes administered under SICAP focus on improving individual-level outcomes and that, in most instances, community-level spillovers are likely to be minimal and/or difficult to capture. Specifically in the context of SICAP, the potential for considering community-level indicators is limited for goals 2 and 3, though it may be more appropriate for goal 1. In the literature, there are metrics that capture various aspects of community-level wellbeing.¹⁹ These include:

- membership in clubs and community associations;
- political participation (percentage of individuals voting);
- volunteer hours worked per year in the community;
- contact with social services; and
- number of community activist and citizen advocacy groups and organisations.

Again community-level impacts might be assessed by monitoring changes in the aggregate level of such metrics following the completion or introduction of a programme.

The scale of expenditure in community-level interventions across all providers would justify significant investments in data infrastructure to ensure effective monitoring and occasional evaluation. We estimate that expenditure on community-level interventions exceeds €20 million per annum.²⁰

¹⁹ For example, see the ‘community tool box’ – a free online resource provided by the University of Kansas and developed by the KU Work Group for Community Health and Development and partners nationally and internationally.

²⁰ Of the estimated total expenditure of €38 million, we assess that approximately 16 per cent (€6 million) is directed at individual interventions and a maximum of 25 per cent (€10 million) expended on administration.

Chapter 5

Summary and Conclusions

This report provides an analysis of the Local and Community Development Programme (LCDP) / Social Inclusion and Community Activation Programme (SICAP) training programmes, funded by the Department of Housing, Planning, Community and Local Government, in terms of the distribution of activities across delivery areas and programme goals. The research also assesses the degree to which course provision could, or should, be subject to evaluation given the increased emphasis of fiscal responsibility underlying almost all areas of the public finances. The analysis is unique, from both a national and international perspective, because centralised data on community development activities, such as that contained in Pobal's Integrated Reporting and Information System (IRIS) database, is rarely captured.

The research shows that resources, whether measured in terms of places or spending, are generally most heavily targeted at areas with the highest levels of social deprivation. However, further analysis shows that the extent of individual-level interventions is extremely low in some areas of high social deprivation. This suggests that in areas of particularly high unemployment with a higher concentration of individuals facing a range of barriers, access to one-on-one programmes related to issues like employment is much more limited. Such anomalies appear to occur in instances where the share of provider expenditure is well below average, suggesting that Pobal should consider imposing minimum spend guidelines in order to ensure access to one-on-one supports in highly deprived areas.

Despite guidelines stating that providers should ensure that resources are spread equally across the three stated SICAP goals, with some degree of flexibility, it is clear from the data that the objectives of programme implementers (PI) vary with respect to the training component of their activities. While patterns of total expenditure may comply with overarching guidelines, PIs behave in a much more flexible way in their approach to one-to-one training interventions, which typically account for a small proportion of overall spend. This seems wholly appropriate and raises some questions around the extent to which PIs should be forced to spread their activities equally across each goal. Being able to prioritise

actions based on need is a fundamental component of community development. Arguably, this is likely to be compromised by any regulations restricting resource allocations to particular goals. While we believe that it is necessary to ensure an appropriate degree of individual-level training interventions is maintained in all areas, a more flexible approach to oversight, perhaps one based around monitoring programme outcomes, can be achieved that does not compromise the ability of providers to respond to need.

While the fiscal crisis has brought greater attention to ensuring that programmes financed through public funds achieve value for money, it is not clear that all of the initiatives operated under LCDP/SICAP could, or should, be subject to formal evaluation. While it is certainly possible to evaluate many of the actions, such as those in the areas of job seeking and lifelong learning, the relative small scale of such programmes needs to be weighed against the relatively high costs associated with evaluation methods. These costs are likely to be higher than average for community development type programmes, given that their concentration in areas of social and economic disadvantage necessitates both quantitative and qualitative evaluation methods. The case for formal evaluation becomes even less convincing for areas of delivery such as parenting and personal development, both of which are small in scale and have outcome objectives that are more difficult to define and measure. Nonetheless, we estimate that expenditure on community-level interventions exceeds €20 million per annum; this scale of expenditure across all providers would justify significant investments in data infrastructure to ensure effective monitoring and occasional evaluation.

We estimated total expenditure on individual-level training programmes to be in the region of €6 million per annum; however, this spending is spread over numerous programmes, most of which are relatively small. Few training courses currently being operated under SICAP are of a nature that justifies regular formal evaluation. Instead, in our view, resources should be targeted at developing the IRIS system to incorporate metrics specific to programme objectives, in order to facilitate the monitoring of programme outcomes. The further development of the IRIS system along these lines may also facilitate relatively inexpensive formal counterfactual evaluation through the collection of data on outcome variables across pre-defined treatment and control groups, drawn from the client database, both before and after programme participation. In addition to monitoring,

such an approach would facilitate a difference-in-difference approach to programme evaluation, which would take advantage of existing data collection systems and consequently avoid many of the costlier aspects of the evaluation process. Finally, the research suggests that some improvements are required to the IRIS database structure, which is primarily an administrative tool, to facilitate the easy extraction of individual-level data for the purposes of monitoring and, in limited cases, evaluation.

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APPENDIX 1

Summary Review of the International Literature

Table A1 Summary Review of the International Literature

Programme Area	Parenting
Study	Simkiss D.E. et al. (2013). 'Effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of a universal parenting skills programme in deprived communities: Multicentre randomised controlled trial', <i>BMJ Open</i>, Vol. 3, No. 8.
Objective Question(s)	To evaluate the effectiveness and cost utility of a universally provided early years parenting programme. The intervention is the Family Links Nurturing Programme (FLNP), a ten-week course with weekly two-hour facilitated group sessions.
Data	Early years centres in four deprived areas of South Wales. Families with children aged between two and four years. In total, 286 families were recruited and randomly allocated to the intervention or waiting list control.
Methods	*Multicentre randomised controlled trial with cost-effectiveness analysis. *Multilevel modelling.
Findings and Limitations	* Tested the hypothesis that randomised allocation to the FLNP would be associated with significant advantages over a waiting list control condition, in terms of parenting and child and parental wellbeing in the short and medium term. * Trial has not found evidence of clinical or cost utility for the FLNP in a universal setting. * However, low levels of exposure and contamination led to reduced power to detect effects; combined with issues relating to the application of randomised controlled trials in this setting, this means that uncertainty remains.
Individual-level Metric(s)	*The primary outcome was a composite index providing two scales representing negative parenting and supportive parenting measured at baseline and at nine months. These scales were the same as the parenting outcomes previously used in a national evaluation of an early years

	<p>programme in England (Sure Start) except that the authors substituted an adapted Mothers' Object Relations Scales (MORS) for the Pianta Child Parent Relationship Scale.</p> <p>* A range of secondary outcome measures was used to capture changes in health and wellbeing in parents and children. To measure changes in the child's behaviour, the preschool version of a clinically validated measure of childhood emotional and behavioural problems the Parent Account of Child Symptoms (PrePACS) were used. Data on positive and negative interactions were gathered using a video of a child's mealtime coded according to the Mellow Parenting Scheme and a five-minute speech sample capturing parents' descriptions of their children and their relationship with each child coded according to the warmth of their initial statement and the percentage of negative comments about the child. Speech samples and videos were coded following the training of researchers by the developer according to the developer's manuals.</p>
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Parenting
Study	O'Neill, D. et al. (2013). 'A cost effectiveness analysis of the Incredible Years parenting programme in reducing childhood health inequalities', <i>European Journal of Health Economics</i>, Vol. 14, pp. 85–94.
Objective Question(s)	Examine the cost-effectiveness of the Incredible Years parenting programme in reducing childhood conduct problems in Ireland.
Data	Sample of 149 families took part in a randomised trial. The trial was carried out in typical community-based services in Ireland located in four urban areas, all of which were designated to be socially disadvantaged.
Methods	<p>* Cost-effectiveness is assessed by relating the differential cost per treatment and control group to the differential effectiveness of the programme.</p> <p>* Uncertainty is examined using probabilistic sensitivity analysis and presented as cost-effectiveness acceptability (CEA) curves. The results from this analysis are combined with data from secondary sources to provide indirect measures of the long-run rate of return to the Incredible Years programme.</p>

Findings and Limitations	* The results show that the programme provides a cost-effective way of reducing behavioural problems. Furthermore, the cost analysis, when combined with a consideration of the potential long-run benefits, suggests that investment in such programmes may generate favourable long-run economic returns.
Individual-level Metric(s)	The Eyberg Child Behaviour Inventory (ECBI) is the primary outcome measure of child problem behaviour in the analysis. The ECBI is a parental report of the frequency and intensity of problem behaviour in children and was developed as a screening instrument for the differentiation of normal and conduct problem children.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Parenting
Study	Furlong, M. et al. (2012). 'Behavioural and cognitive-behavioural group-based parenting programmes for early-onset conduct problems in children aged 3 to 12 years', <i>Campbell Systematic Reviews</i>, Vol. 12, No. 2.
Objective Question(s)	* To assess the effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of behavioural and cognitive-behavioural group-based parenting programmes for improving child conduct problems, parental mental health and parenting skills. * This is a review study.
Data	This review includes 13 trials (10 RCTs and three quasi-randomised trials), as well as two economic evaluations based on two of the trials. Overall, there were 1,078 participants (646 in the intervention group; 432 in the control group).
Methods	* Data synthesis with RevMan 5 (Review Manager software).
Findings and Limitations	Behavioural and cognitive-behavioural group-based parenting interventions are effective and cost-effective for improving child conduct problems, parental mental health and parenting skills in the short term. The cost of programme delivery was modest when compared with the long-term health, social, educational and legal costs associated with childhood conduct problems. Further research is needed on the long-term assessment of outcomes.
Individual-level Metric(s)	Primary Outcomes: * Child outcomes – conduct problems.

	<p>* Parent outcomes –</p> <p>1. Mental health (for example, stress, depression, anxiety levels, sense of confidence).</p> <p>2. Appropriate parenting skills and knowledge (self-report and direct observation) a. Positive parenting practices (for example, praise, positive affect, physical positive, play, talk, proactive discipline) b. Negative parenting practices (for example, criticism, yell, threaten, physical negative, laxness).</p> <p>Secondary Outcomes –</p> <p>* Child Outcomes 1. Emotional problems (for example, depression and anxiety) , 2. Educational and cognitive ability, 3. Long-term outcomes in adolescence and adulthood a. Criminal justice system involvement (police contacts, court appearances, imprisonment) b. Unemployment</p> <p>* Parent Outcomes 1. Increased level of social support * Adverse Outcomes - 1. Financial and psychological burden to family in attending and accessing course (for example, childcare issues), 2. Increased conflict within family in relation to introduction of new parenting techniques.</p>
Community-level Metric(s)	
Programme Area	Parenting
Study	Cerezo, M.A. et al. (2013). ‘Supporting parenting of infants: Evaluating outcomes for parents and children in a community-based program’, <i>Evaluation and Program Planning</i>, Vol. 37, pp. 12–30.
Objective Question(s)	* Evaluation of the intervention dose-effect of the Parent-Child Psychological Support Program (PCPS). The PCPS is a universal community-based programme to support parenting, during the first 18 months, and to promote protective adaptive systems in children through a schedule of quarterly office-based appointments, starting at three months of age. Generally, children attend for six visits.
Data	* Interviews and questionnaires from over 700 children and their mothers who joined the program in an area of Dublin.
Methods	* Cohort sequential design.

Findings and Limitations	*This dose-effect on parent and infant outcomes was examined by: (1) self-report of parental sense of competence and factors negatively affecting their parenting and (2) the quality of the child's attachment, using Ainsworth's Strange Situation Test. Results showed dose effects for parental sense of competence, in the parental self-efficacy dimension. The proportion of securely attached children was significantly higher in groups with medium and high programme dose. These results were obtained after considering the effect on the parent and child outcomes of two socio-demographic factors that showed differences among the groups under study: single parenthood and working at home.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Parental sense of competence, parental self-efficacy and parental satisfaction were evaluated through a 16-item questionnaire, called Parental Sense of Competence. * Factors affecting parenting were evaluated through a 77-item questionnaire taken from the work of Milner. * Quality of attachment was operationalised through the coding of the Strange Situation Test (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Wall, 1978).
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Personal Development
Study	Black, H. and D. Duhon (2006). 'Assessing the impact of business study abroad programs on cultural awareness and personal development', <i>Journal of Education for Business</i>, Jan/Feb 2006, Vol. 81, No. 3.
Objective Question(s)	To assess the impact of business study abroad programmes on cultural awareness and personal development.
Data	An instrument known as the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory was administered to students at the beginning and end of their programme.
Methods	Comparison of means.
Findings and Limitations	Data indicated that the programme enhanced cultural awareness and personal development.

Individual-level Metric(s)	<p>Scores, 1= strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree: *Program enhanced my appreciation/understanding of other cultures;</p> <p>* Programme enhanced my tolerance of people different from me; * Programme enhanced my tolerance of different points of view; * Programme enhanced my tolerance of different ways of doing things;</p> <p>* Programme enhanced my understanding of my own culture; * Programme enhanced my understanding of the role of my country in world affairs;</p> <p>* Programme enhanced my appreciation of theatre/art/music; * Programme enhanced my self-confidence;</p> <p>* Programme enhanced my interpersonal skills;</p> <p>* Programme enhanced my independence;</p> <p>* Programme enhanced my ability to deal with unfamiliar circumstances;</p> <p>* Programme enhanced my understanding of other political systems;</p> <p>* Programme enhanced my understanding of world history.</p>
Community-level Metric(s)	None.
Programme Area	Start Your Own Business
Study	Duval-Couetil, N. (2013). 'Assessing the impact of entrepreneurship education programs: Challenges and approaches', <i>Journal of Small Business Management</i>, Vol. 51, No. 3, pp. 394–409.
Objective Question(s)	
Data	
Methods	

Findings and Limitations	
Individual-level Metric(s)	<p>Proposed Outcomes from Various Studies:</p> <p>*Firm performance: financial performance, relation to other firms, innovation;</p> <p>*Impacts to individual participants: self-employment, personal and career satisfaction, knowledge acquisition, skills acquisition, identification of individual potential, changed attitudes.</p>
Community-level Metric(s)	Proposed outcomes from various studies: *Economic Development: number of new forms, number of employees, innovation.
Programme Area	Start Your Own Business
Study	Cueto, B. and J. Mato (2006). 'An analysis of self-employment subsidies with duration models'. <i>Applied Economics</i>, Vol. 38, pp. 23–32.
Objective Question(s)	* Analysis of a self-employment programme carried out in Asturias (Spain) during the period 1996–2000, using the survival of the subsidised business as the main indicator of the success of the programme.
Data	* Data from the Employment Department on 3,875 people who received the subsidy during 1996–2000. Current data were collected in a telephone survey on a sample of participants in December 2001.
Methods	* They analyse the success of self-employment subsidies in one region of Spain using a Cox proportional hazards model. They look at the determinants of survival (duration) in self-employment and also estimate a competing risk model to distinguish between business failures and other reasons why businesses were closed.
Findings and Limitations	* Based on data for individuals who received the subsidy between 1996 and 2000 and their labour market outcomes measured in December 2001, survival rates for two to five years can be observed and the survival is approximately 93 per cent after two years and 76 per cent after five years.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Business survival rate.

Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Start Your Own Business
Study	Caliendo, M. and S. Kunn (2011). 'Start-up subsidies for the unemployed: Long-term evidence and effect heterogeneity', <i>Journal of Public Economics</i>, Vol. 95, pp. 311–331.
Objective Question(s)	* Evaluation of start-up subsidy for the unemployed in Germany.
Data	*Administrative and survey data from a sample of participants in two distinct start-up programmes and a control group of unemployed individuals.
Methods	* Propensity score matching.
Findings and Limitations	* It found 80 per cent of participants are integrated in the labour market and have relatively high labour income five years after start up. Additionally, participants are much more satisfied with their current occupational situation compared to previous jobs.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Labour market status, income and job satisfaction.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Start Your Own Business
Study	Baumgartner, H. and M. Caliendo (2008), 'Turning unemployment into self-employment: Effectiveness of two start-up programmes', <i>Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics</i>, Vol. 70, No. 3, pp. 347–373.
Objective Question(s)	* Evaluate the effectiveness of two start-up programmes for the unemployed in Germany.

Data	* Combination of administrative data and a follow-up survey.
Methods	* Compare the labour market outcomes of the formerly unemployed entrepreneurs with other unemployed individuals. *Kernel-matching estimators to estimate the treatment effects. * Also a conditional difference-in-difference strategy is employed to test the sensitivity of the results to unobserved differences.
Findings and Limitations	* Positive effect from both programmes (in contrast to findings from evaluations of other German active labour market policies in recent years).
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Probability of being employed, probability of being unemployed, income.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Start Your Own Business
Study	Michaelides, M. and J. Benus (2012). 'Are self-employment training programs effective? Evidence from Project GATE', <i>Labour Economics</i>, Vol. 19, No. 5, pp 695–705.
Objective Question(s)	* Efficacy of self-employment training programmes using data from Project GATE (Growing America Through Entrepreneurship). Project GATE was an experimental design demonstration programme that offered free self-employment training to a random sample of individuals who expressed a strong interest in self-employment.
Data	* Follow-up surveys conducted at six months (wave 1), 18 months (wave 2), and 60 months (wave 3) after random assignment to the programme.
Methods	* Upon application, applicants were randomly assigned to the treatment or to the control group; of the 4,198 total applicants, 2,095 were assigned in the treatment and 2,103 were assigned in the control. *Linear regression models, probit and logit models.
Findings and Limitations	* The results show that the programme was very effective in assisting unemployed participants start their own business, leading to significant gains in self-employment and overall employment in the early months following programme participation. These impacts, however, dissipated over time. Despite the programme's impact on the rapid reemployment of unemployed participants, it did not lead to significant gains in total earnings.

	Moreover, analyses provide no evidence that the programme was effective for participants who were employed, self-employed, or not in the labour force at the time of application.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Likelihood of starting a new business, likelihood of self-employment in a new business, self-employment, salary employment, overall employment, and earnings.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Start Your Own Business
Study	Athayde, R. (2009). 'Measuring enterprise potential in young people', <i>Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice</i>, Vol. 33, pp. 481–500.
Objective Question(s)	* To measure the effect of participation in a Young Enterprise company programme on young people's attitudes towards starting a business and on their enterprise potential. YE in the UK is modelled on the US Junior Achievement programmes for young people. During a company programme, 15–19-year-olds set up and run their own enterprise in school over the course of one academic year.
Data	* The attitudes towards enterprise (ATE) test was administered, as a paper-and-pencil test, to 196 young people aged 16–19 who took part in two Young Enterprise masterclasses in central London. Almost half the sample had participated in a YE company programme. The sample was fairly evenly divided into pupils attending independent and state schools, and exactly half the sample was female.
Methods	* Uses a specially designed research instrument to measure pupils' attitudes towards enterprise (ATE test). * Exploratory factor analysis and Cronbach's alphas.
Findings and Limitations	* Participation in a company programme can foster positive attitudes towards self-employment and participants displayed greater enterprise potential than non-participants. * Demographic differences also emerged in enterprise potential between ethnic groups. Young black people were more positive about self-employment and displayed greater enterprise potential than either white or Asian pupils. A family background of self-employment had a positive influence on pupils' intentions to become self-employed.
Individual-level Metric(s)	*Attitude test.

Community-level Metric(s)	*None.
Programme Area	Enterprise, Start Your Own Business
Study	Glas, M. and M. Cerar (1997). 'The self-employment programme in Slovenia: Evaluation of results and an agenda for improvement', paper prepared for the Kauffman Foundation Entrepreneurship Research Conference, April 17–20, 1997.
Objective Question(s)	* Examines extensive self-employment programme in Slovenia that has sponsored the foundation of over 14,000 new business units during the 1991–1995 period. The results of the programme were measured in terms of employment, assessment of financial results (sales and profits) and the amount of own equity capital participants invested in new units.
Data	A random sample of 205 self-employed units that entered the business during the year 1993 was examined through a questionnaire in 1996. The results were compared to the pilot research undertaken in the most active region of the Regional Employment Office at Celje. An additional 99 persons leaving the programme after the awareness course were contacted through a short interview by phone. The units were grouped according to the modality of assistance chosen: different amount of founding capital provided by the Employment Office and the availability of training and counselling support.
Methods	* Comparison of mean differences.
Findings and Limitations	<p>The economic contribution of self-employment units was assessed rather favourably considering following findings:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · considerable commitment of private financial and other resources, particularly business premises and some equipment; · the number of new jobs created: in the average two full-time jobs per venture and 0.5 part-time jobs, although there were hardly any fast growing businesses involved; · the net value added increasing steadily; · the level of satisfaction of local customers, focusing on services; · the upgrading of the business expertise among participants. <p>Despite the amount of the founding capital ensured by the programme, the ventures have experienced the problem of capital shortage, partly related to the wide-spread problem of delayed payments of customers.</p>

Individual-level Metric(s)	* Employment performance of self-employed ventures; * Annual turnover.
Community-level Metric(s)	* Employment performance of self-employed ventures.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Dolton, P. and D. O'Neill (1996). 'Unemployment duration and the Restart effect: Some experimental evidence', <i>The Economic Journal</i>, Vol. 106, No. 435, pp. 387–400.
Objective Question(s)	* Estimate the extent to which the Restart programme has succeeded in helping the long-term unemployed return to the labour market. Programme consists of counselling and job search activities. Note that failure to attend interviews carried the threat of cessation of unemployment benefits.
Data	* Random sample collected from Employment Services offices in the UK that is linked to administrative data.
Methods	* Competing risks model (Cox proportional hazard regression).
Findings and Limitations	* Positive effect on transition from unemployment to employment; * Positive but small impact on transition to training; * Positive impact on 'not signing-on' for females and other groups genuinely not available for work.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Transitions from unemployment to: (1) employment, (2) training and education and (3) signing-off unemployment benefit.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Breunig, R. et al. (2003). 'Assisting the long-term unemployed: Results from a randomised trial', <i>The Economic Record</i>, Vol. 79, No. 244, pp. 84–102.

Objective Question(s)	* Impact of counselling and monitoring process on unemployed people on income support for five years or more; specifically, does an intensive interview with follow-ups lead the very long -term unemployed to increase their level of economic and social participation?
Data	* Paper matches participant survey data to administrative benefits data.
Methods	* Randomised trial, propensity score matching.
Findings and Limitations	* Participation in the trial led to a reduction in average hours worked, but increased hours spent in study or training. Evidence also found of increased social integration associated with participation in the trial. * No significant effect on employment, job search or voluntary work.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Paid work * Job search * Study and Training * Voluntary work * Social Integration.
Community-level Metric(s)	* Social integration is defined as a dummy variable, which equals one for people who meet socially with friends more than once a week or who belong to a club or community association, and zero otherwise.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Van den Berg et al. (2006). 'Counselling and monitoring of unemployed workers: Theory and evidence from a controlled social experiment', <i>International Economic Review</i>, Vol. 46, No. 1, pp. 895–936.
Objective Question(s)	* Investigate the effect of counselling and monitoring on the individual transition rate to unemployment of unemployment insurance recipients.
Data	* Administrative database and a follow-up survey.
Methods	* Based on a social experiment, treatment applied to unemployment insurance recipients in two cities in the Netherlands. * Duration models.
Findings and Limitations	* Positive but insignificant effect on the transition rate from unemployment to work.

Individual-level Metric(s)	* Transition rate from unemployment to work.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	McGuinness, S. et al. (2014). 'The impact of training programme type and duration on the employment chances of the unemployed in Ireland', <i>The Economic and Social Review</i>, Vol. 45, No. 3, pp. 425–450.
Objective Question(s)	* Evaluate the impact of a range of government sponsored training courses in Ireland.
Data	* Administrative datasets (Live Register database, FÁS Events and Customer Files, DSP's Profiling data file) and a specially designed survey.
Methods	* Probit analysis, propensity score matching, dose response functions.
Findings and Limitations	* Those who participated in training were less likely to be unemployed at the end of the two-year study period. However, the average effect of training varied by the type and duration of training received. The authors found strong positive effects for job search skills training and medium to high level skills courses, a more modest positive effect for general vocational skills programmes (which are not strongly linked to demand in the labour market) and less consistent effects with respect to low level skills training. They also found that training episodes with lower duration had a more positive impact, with the exception of high level skills training programmes where longer training durations appear more effective.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Exit from the Live Register.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	McGuinness, S. et al. (2011). <i>Carrots without Sticks: The Impact of Job Search Assistance in A Regime with Minimal Monitoring and Sanctions</i>, ESRI Working Paper no. 409, Dublin: ESRI.

Objective Question(s)	* To assess the impact of an active labour market intervention consisting of referral for interview plus Job Search Assistance (JSA) with the public employment service in Ireland during a period when both job search monitoring and sanctions were virtually non-existent.
Data	* Longitudinal dataset that combines administrative and survey-based data.
Methods	* Probit analysis, propensity score matching, Cox proportional hazard model.
Findings and Limitations	* The results indicate that, relative to a control group with no intervention, unemployed individuals that were exposed to the interview letter and participated in JSA were 16 per cent less likely to have exited to employment prior to 12 months. The negative effects of the intervention approximately doubled when those that received a referral letter but did not attend a JSA interview were removed from the data. The results held when tested against the underlying assumptions of the model, and the influences of both sample selection and unobserved heterogeneity bias. The negative treatment impact is attributed to individuals lowering their job search intensity on learning, through the JSA activation interview, of the lax nature of the activation process.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Exit to employment.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Centeno, L. et al. (2004). 'Evaluating the impact of a mandatory job search program: evidence from a large longitudinal dataset', Mimeo.
Objective Question(s)	* Impact of two active labour market programmes on unemployment durations.
Data	* Administrative records.
Methods	* Difference-in-difference methodology, exploiting an area-based pilot experiment.

Findings and Limitations	* Small reduction in unemployment duration. In the absence of the programme, the estimates suggest that the unemployment duration of treated individuals would increase by at most 0.4 of a month, which would not represent a large increase in duration given that some workers spend many months unemployed.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Impact of programme participation on unemployment duration.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Centeno, L. et al. (2004). 'Evaluating the impact of a mandatory job search program: evidence from a large longitudinal dataset', Mimeo.
Objective Question(s)	* Impact of intensive job-search assistance and small basic skills courses on the employability of two specific groups of unemployed individuals: those aged less than 25 years old and unemployed more than six months (the Programme InserJovem) and those over 25 and unemployed longer than 12 months (the REAGE programme).
Data	* Administrative data from the Portuguese employment agency.
Methods	* Propensity score matching, duration models and difference-in-difference methods.
Findings and Limitations	* Average treatment effect on the treated ranges from one to four months; quite small.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Impact on unemployment duration.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation

Study	Card, D., J. et al. (2000). 'Active labour market policy evaluations: A meta-analysis', <i>The Economic Journal</i>, Vol. 120, No. 548, pp. F452–F477.
Objective Question(s)	* Meta-analysis of microeconomic evaluations of active labour market policies.
Data	* Survey of IZA and NBER affiliates who authored studies on active labour market policies.
Methods	* Meta-analysis.
Findings and Limitations	*Consistent with earlier summaries, their analysis suggests that subsidised public sector employment programmes are relatively ineffective, whereas job search assistance (JSA) and related programmes have generally favourable impacts, especially in the short run. Classroom and on-the-job training programmes are not particularly effective in the short run, but have more positive relative impacts after two years. Comparing across different participant groups, they find that programmes for youths are less likely to yield positive impacts than untargeted programmes, although in contrast to some earlier reviews we find no large or systematic differences by gender. We also find that evaluations based on the duration of time in registered unemployment are more likely to show positive short-term impacts than those based on direct labour market outcomes (i.e. employment or earnings).
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Probability of employment at a future date; * Wage at a future date; * Duration of time in registered unemployment until exit to job; *Duration of time in registered unemployment (any type of exit); *Other duration measures; * Probability of registered unemployment at future date.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation

Study	McGuinness, S. et al. (2011b). <i>Activation in Ireland: An Evaluation of the National Employment Action Plan</i>, ESRI Research Series, No. 20, Dublin: ESRI.
Objective Question(s)	* Evaluation of the impact of two key interventions implemented under the Irish National Employment Action Plan (NEAP), namely referral by the DSP for an activation interview with FÁS and participation in a training programme provided by FÁS, following an activation interview.
Data	* Administrative datasets (Live Register database, FÁS Events and Customer Files, DSP's profiling data file).
Methods	* Probit and propensity score matching.
Findings and Limitations	* Comparing the outcomes of those who were either referred for interview or had received both a referral and a FÁS interview under the NEAP with a control group of those who were not referred, it was found that the NEAP had a negative impact, reducing their chances of entering employment by about 17 per cent. This suggests that the interview plus referral element of the NEAP was an ineffective route to employment. FÁS training programmes did increase participants' employment prospects. * Compared to a control group of individuals who were either referred for interview or had received both a referral and an activation interview, FÁS training participants undertaking programmes prior to week 35 of the study were more likely to have exited from the Live Register by week 91. Programme participation was found to lower the probability of subsequent unemployment by between 10 and 14 per cent. However, the cumulative effect of training plus activation interview was either zero, or at best, weakly positive, due to the negative impact of the FÁS referral and interview process.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Exiting the Live Register to Employment at short- and medium-term durations.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Kluve, J. (2000). 'The effectiveness of European active labor market programs', <i>Labour Economics</i>, Vol 17, pp. 904–918.
Objective Question(s)	* Meta-analysis of microeconomic evaluations of European active labour market policies.

Data	* Dataset of 137 programme evaluations from 19 European countries.
Methods	* Meta-analysis.
Findings and Limitations	* The empirical results of the meta-analysis are surprisingly clear-cut: rather than contextual factors such as labour market institutions or the business cycle, it is almost exclusively the programme type that seems to matter for programme effectiveness. While direct employment programmes in the public sector frequently appear detrimental, wage subsidies and ‘services and sanctions’ can be effective in increasing participants’ employment probability. Training programmes – the most commonly used type of active policy – show modestly positive effects.
Individual-level Metric(s)	
Community-level Metric(s)	
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Weber, A. and H. Hofer (2004). ‘Are job search programs a promising tool? A microeconomic evaluation for Austria’, IZA Discussion Paper No. 1075.
Objective Question(s)	* Impact of job search and formal training programmes on individual unemployment durations.
Data	* Public employment office register data.
Methods	* Timing of events method. Method models transitions from unemployment to employment and transitions into programmes in a multivariate hazard model.
Findings and Limitations	* Participation in job search programmes significantly reduced unemployment durations, whereas formal training programmes had a negative effect on unemployment durations.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Impact of programme participation on unemployment duration.

Community-level Metric(s)	
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Sianesi, B. (2004). 'An evaluation of the Swedish system of active labour market programs in the 1990s', <i>The Review of Economics and Statistics</i>, Vol. 86, No. 1, pp. 133–155.
Objective Question(s)	* Short- and long-term effects from joining a Swedish labour market program vis-à-vis more intense job search in open unemployment.
Data	* Data from unemployment register and unemployment insurance funds.
Methods	* Propensity score matching.
Findings and Limitations	* Mixed results: Unemployed individuals who go sooner into a programme (as opposed to later or never) have a higher probability of being in employment from six months after joining the programme for up to at least five years. At the same time, there is evidence of the work disincentive embedded in the institutional setup of the programmes: joining a programme greatly increases the probability of being in benefit-compensated unemployment over time, of participating in further programmes over time, and more generally of remaining within the unemployment system.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Impact of programme participation on employment rates, on further programme participation and on further benefit receipt.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Kelly, E. et al. (2012). <i>Literacy, Numeracy and Activation Among the Unemployed</i>, ESRI Research Series No. 25, Dublin: ESRI.

Objective Question(s)	* One of the questions addressed in this report is the relative effectiveness of labour market training among claimants reporting literacy and/or numeracy difficulties in achieving exits from the Live Register.
Data	* Administrative datasets (Live Register database, FÁS Events and Customer Files) and a profiling questionnaire.
Methods	* Probit analysis.
Findings and Limitations	*Newly registered unemployed males that report having a literacy and/or numeracy difficulty were 7.6 per cent less likely to have exited the Live Register to employment within 12 months compared to unemployed males with no literacy and/or numeracy difficulties. The corresponding figure for females was 7.3 per cent. Thus, having a literacy and/or numeracy difficulty increases the likelihood that an unemployed person will become long-term unemployed. *However, the research also showed that, relative to the claimant population as a whole, when those with literacy and/or numeracy difficulties do receive training, they benefit by much more than average: they are 29 per cent more likely to exit the Live Register compared to 11 per cent for the full unemployment population. In essence, the research showed that individuals with literacy and/or numeracy difficulties can be effectively activated within the mainstream NEAP system. This means that literacy and/or numeracy difficulties, in themselves, do not substantially restrict an individual's ability to benefit from both mainstream general and medium skills training programmes.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Exiting the Live Register to employment within 12 months.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Crépon, B. et al. (2005). 'Counselling the unemployed: Does it lower unemployment duration and recurrence?' IZA Discussion Paper 1796.
Objective Question(s)	* Evaluate the effectiveness of the four main counselling schemes offered to French unemployed people.
Data	* Administrative database set up by the French unemployment agency.
Methods	* Duration models.

Findings and Limitations	* Significant favourable effects on both outcomes, but the impact on unemployment recurrence is stronger than on unemployment duration. * Job search support programme has the strongest effects on both unemployment and employment durations.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Transition rate from unemployment to work * Unemployment recurrence.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.
Programme Area	Job Seeking/ Job Preparation
Study	Lechner, M. (2002). 'Program heterogeneity and propensity score matching: An application to the evaluation of active labor market policies', <i>The Review of Economics and Statistics</i>, Vol. 84, No. 2, pp. 205–220.
Objective Question(s)	* Evaluation of different programs of Swiss active labour market policies.
Data	* Data from Swiss unemployment register.
Methods	* Propensity score matching.
Findings and Limitations	* The three matching estimators suggested in the paper all show that temporary wage subsidies have a positive effect and basic training a negative effect on the probability of being employed. * The results for further training and employment programmes were mixed.
Individual-level Metric(s)	* Impact of programme participation on probability of being employed.
Community-level Metric(s)	* None.



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