



Manual for Designing Secondary Level Interventions for At-Risk Youths in an Open Setting

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RAN 
Practitioners

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Introduction

Radicalisation and violent extremism are not confined to a single age group, gender, or community. However, young people are particularly vulnerable to this type of discourse and are more particularly represented in these violent extremist movements. Research and work of the RAN in recent years show the need to work with young people and their families.

Repressive responses to extremism are not sufficient, particularly when working with young people. A preventive approach provides the opportunity to consider the underlying causes of the process and to strengthen the resilience of young people exposed to the risk of radicalisation or already in early stages of the radicalisation process.

Prevention work involves three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary. The Rehabilitation Manual was designed for professionals working for the benefit of tertiary prevention. This manual is designed for professionals working with young people in secondary prevention and in an open environment. Therefore, these are actions aimed at preventing young people from becoming further radicalised and preventing them from engaging in criminal or violent activities. Unlike rehabilitation interventions, these actions take place in a pre-criminal space before there is any conviction.

Practitioners in the field of preventing and countering violent extremism (P/CVE) face various challenges – from financial and other resource limitations to acceptance and credibility, as well as political, legal and national/international pressures. There is also the challenge of ensuring that the limited resources are targeted at the correct level and user group.

The guide was developed in this context. Specifically, it is aimed at:

- Enabling practitioners and organisations to think and implement in the best way individualised interventions for young people at risk in an open framework to prevent them from becoming more radicalised, and from engaging in a transition to a criminal act.
- Provide concrete and step-by-step support for the entire process.

How to use this manual

If this topic is new to you, the entire manual may prove helpful. But this manual can also be used chapter by chapter, depending on your needs.

For reasons of clarity, each chapter begins with a brief presentation of the elements that will be developed and ends with the key lessons that include the most important points to remember.

To make this tool more concrete, each chapter is illustrated with concrete proposals or inspiring practices.

Structure of the manual

First, we will present several **definitions and facts**. It is important to be able to establish a common language and outlines of the target groups. What are the radicalisation risk and prevention factors of this population?

The second chapter in this guide offers **tools to set objectives** and define the theory of change.

Intervention is discussed in the third chapter. It also includes how to reach the objectives desired.

Cooperation is addressed in the fourth chapter, which outlines the importance of multi-stakeholder collaboration and shared understanding.

Quality Assurance and Monitoring are covered in the fifth chapter.

The last chapter discusses the approach for **long-term follow up and stabilisation**.

If time is scarce, readers can jump directly to the most relevant section for their purposes by clicking on the relevant chapter or subsection in the table of contents below.

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Facts and definitions

It takes a deep understanding of the phenomenon of radicalisation and its root causes and prevention work in general to define the problem and delineate the solution. The aim of this manual is to assist with the concept, development and ultimately the success of individualised interventions on a multi-agency basis.

Definition

RAN defines¹ extremist radicalisation as a process by which an individual adopts political, social or religious ideas that will lead them to:

- Reject diversity, tolerance and freedom of choice.
- Legitimise lawlessness and the use of violence against property and people.

This is a process that can culminate in terrorist attacks.

If we take this definition from an interactionist point of view, the phenomenon of radicalisation leading to violence operates according to a processual logic that results in an encounter between an individual path and a system of beliefs. It also advocates an ideal that justifies the recourse to violence, which may ultimately lead to a possible violent act.

Recently, there has been a strong focus on religiously motivated extremism. However, other forms are present and known, particularly forms of politically motivated extremism (extreme right, extreme left). Violent extremism can take different forms. It also exists far beyond religious themes. The essence of intervention, even though it's fundamentally the same across many types of programmes, needs to appreciate the succinct and intrinsic needs relating to extreme beliefs and exposure to them.

Different forms of radicalisation

There are overlaps between the different forms of radicalisation, and they share common elements. For instance, B. Doosje and his colleagues² highlight the following five common elements.

1. Perception of a serious problem in society. This problem or grievance is different for each extremist group.
2. Dissatisfaction about how current institutions address this problem. This results in low levels of institutional trust and a perception of the illegitimacy of authorities.
3. The own group's norms and values are superior to those of other groups. It's an "us versus them" mentality and it is one used to legitimise the use of violence.
4. The ideology of the group legitimises violence to address their concerns.
5. Strong belief in the efficacy and the use of violence.

¹ Radicalisation Awareness Network, 2016, Tackling the challenges to prevention policies in an increasingly polarised society, https://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/system/files/2020-09/tackling_challenges_prevention_policies_in_increasingly_polarised_society_112016_en.pdf

² Doosje B. and al., Terrorism, radicalisation, and deradicalisation, Current Opinion in Psychology

Figure 1: Different types of extremist groups, their main concern and examples³

Different types of radical groups, their main concern and examples.		
Type	Main concern	Examples
1. Nationalistic or Separatist Groups	Secure a territory for the own group	ETA (Spain), IRA (Ireland), Palestine/Israel, PKK (Turkey), Tamil Tigers (Sri Lanka), ISIS (Syria & Iraq)
2. Extreme Right-Wing Groups	To safe-guard the high status position of the 'white race' that is perceived to be threatened by immigrants	Klu Klux Klan (U.S.), Pegida (Germany)
3. Extreme Left-Wing Groups	Achieve a just distribution of wealth and perceive capitalism as the main source of evil	FARC (Colombia), Baader-Meinhof Group/'Red Army Fraction' (Germany), the Red Brigade (Italy), the Revolutionary People's Liberation Party-Front' (Turkey)
4. Single Issue Groups	Their main concern focuses on one particular topic (not an extensive ideology), such as the environment, animal rights or abortion	'Earth Liberation Front' (U.K.), 'Animal Liberation Front' (several countries), 'Army of God' (Anti-Abortion, U.S.)
5. Religiously motivated Groups	They adhere to a very strict interpretation of their religion to justify violence against 'infidels'	ISIS (Syria/& Iraq), Al Qaida (several countries), 'Army of God' (U.S.)

Three levels of prevention

To think about preventive actions with young people, it is necessary to briefly recall the different levels of action. It is also essential to define the target audiences for each of them. Usually, three levels of prevention are described by experts: primary, secondary and tertiary. Another terminology that is used includes: generic, targeted and indicated level. Both terminologies overlap, especially in terms of practical use. We will use the classification and definitions as presented in the RAN Ex post paper "The role of youth work in the prevention of radicalisation and violent extremism"⁴.

Primary prevention

The primary level is generic prevention for all young people indirectly. This level is focused on equipping young people with the life skills they need to increase to their democratic resilience and strengthen their democratic values.⁵

Secondary prevention

The secondary level is a targeted prevention that aims to reach young people who show tendencies towards or are interested in anti-democratic, extremist ideologies (or fragments of these ideologies) and propaganda.⁶

The actions deployed aim to reduce vulnerabilities and risk factors in groups or environments identified as "at risk" and support vulnerable individuals. It is also a question of supporting, but also equipping families and relatives.

Below is a list of several examples of secondary prevention actions⁷:

- Sensitisation of schools and youth;
- Community engagement activities with young people;
- Street work with young people identified as "vulnerable";
- Pedagogical/educational projects with a young target audience;
- Religious education aimed at a specific audience;

³ Doosje B. and al., Terrorism, radicalisation, and an deradicalisation, Current Opinion in Psychology

⁴ RAN, Ex post paper, 2017, [The role of youth work in the prevention of radicalisation and violent extremism](#)

⁵ idem

⁶ idem

⁷ Examples proposed par besafe.be

- Awareness-raising workshops for young people dealing with issues such as: identity and living together, as well as issues like hate speech, inclusion and diversity of beliefs, and learning about digital technology and social media.

At this level, it would be helpful for youth workers to have knowledge of the process and signs of radicalisation to deal with specialised issues and challenges about adolescent identity development. These elements are discussed later in this chapter, with explanations about the process of radicalisation, and about young people’s vulnerability to these mechanisms.

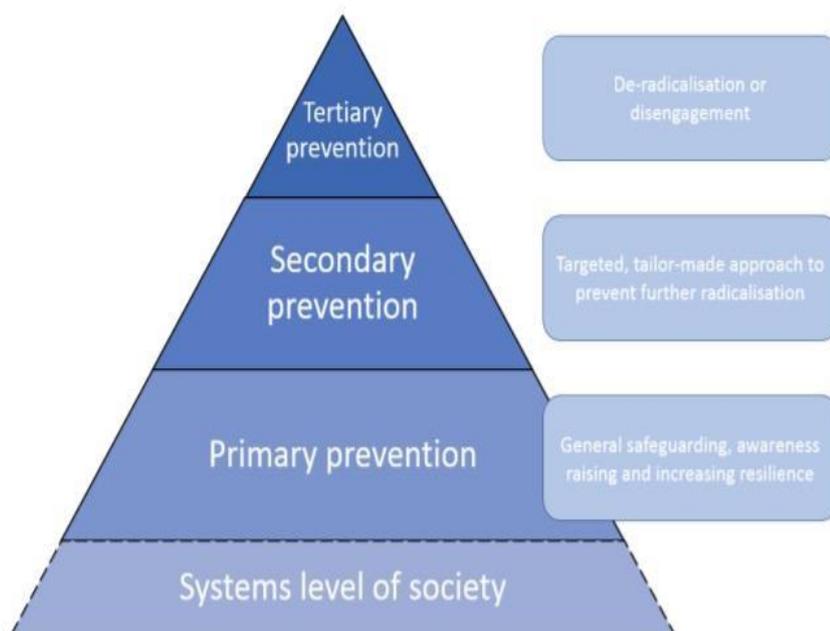
Tertiary prevention

Tertiary prevention or ‘Indicated prevention’ targets young people already engaged in an extremist group or with extremist ideals and who want to leave (or who are regarded as being open to the idea of receiving support for dropping out).⁸

It is recommended to provide tertiary prevention work only to experts and youth workers who are specifically trained for this. In these instances, it is also necessary to build multi-agency coordination especially when security services are concerned as well.

In addition, field experiences highlight the role of liaison/relational work to maintain a sufficient level of trust between young people and professionals.

Figure 2: A simplified prevention pyramid



⁸ RAN Ex post paper, 2017, [The role of youth work in the prevention of radicalisation and violent extremism](#)

Who are “at-risk” youth?

Young people constitute the largest group of individuals joining violent extremist groups⁹. In Europe since 2010, it has been observed that people engaged in a process of violent radicalisation are young. Also, more women are engaged than in the past¹⁰. Increasing interest in the extremes can be observed among young people.¹¹

The term “at-risk” is used in this manual to refer to youth who are perceived as being inclined to support causes or engage in activities that legitimise the use of violence. Among these “at risk” youth, different nuances of engagement exist, ranging from sympathy, to ideas with or without violent engagement and intent.

Recent studies prove there is no social determinism regarding risk of radicalisation. Young people from all backgrounds are susceptible to and have become radicalised.¹² And there are no predictive tools to assess risk of radicalisation to violence.

Oftentimes, and especially in public debates, a link between mental health issues and radicalisation is drawn. However, now most researchers have now moved away from the idea of considering radicalisation in terms of psychopathology. Research shows there is no proven mental health pathology and that the process is not linked to psychological disorders and vulnerabilities¹³. Instead, this complex phenomenon is linked to the development of adolescence. Indeed, adolescence is generally a period of transition and vulnerability. The various changes (physical, psychological and environmental) in adolescents represent key moments in which the radical proposition may seem an attractive solution.

Adolescence is a sensitive phase involving important physical, psychosocial, emotional, and cognitive changes. Young people must adapt to build their own identity, develop a sense of personal competence as well as autonomy and social and emotional independence. It is also a period of searching for ideals, pairs, and identifying figures. The adolescent must adapt their vision of the world, discover new relational modalities. A certain ill-being and a feeling of insecurity can then emerge. Extremist discourse often offer a “readymade” vision of the world with binary keys to interpretation, strong references, identification figures, and the presence of a group of peers ready to accept the person. It can give it a place and a role that can allow certain young people to temporarily appease certain anxieties.

However, not all teenagers who encounter extremist or radical discourse are convinced. This leads us to question the role of additional vulnerability factors (beyond adolescence) young at-risk individuals face in their trajectory and in their environment.

Vulnerabilities and risk factors

Some factors make some youth more vulnerable to radicalisation than others. As a paper describing RAN activities on youth work and education describes¹⁴, factors include struggling with identity, family issues, feelings of frustration, feelings of alienation and exclusion, experiencing a traumatic event, experiencing discrimination, and becoming distanced from their cultural or religious background. Some external factors have also to be considered¹⁵. To better understand this kaleidoscope of factors, three levels need to be considered by practitioners when assessing an individual case: individual factors, meso-level factors (group), macro environmental factors (society).

These different levels of analysis are transferrable to all phenomena of radicalisation, whether religious, extreme right or extreme left.

⁹ RAN Activities on Youth Work and Education

¹⁰ Emmelkamp, J., Asscher, J. J., Wissink, I. B., & Stams, G. J. J. M. (2020), Risk factors for (violent) radicalization in juveniles: A multilevel meta-analysis Aggression and Violent Behavior.

¹¹ Radicalisations et jeunesse - INJEP NOTES & RAPPORTS

¹² See: <https://educateagainsthate.com/which-children-and-young-people-are-vulnerable-to-radicalisation/>

¹³ Campelo N., Oppetit A., Neau F, Cohen D., Guillaume Bronsard (2018), Who are the European youths willing to engage in radicalisation? A multidisciplinary review of their psychological and social profile.

¹⁴ RAN Activities on Youth Work and Education

¹⁵ Ranstorp, M. (2016). The Root Causes of Violent Extremism, Issue Paper. Radicalisation Awareness Network.

However, it is necessary to always keep in mind that while risk factors may increase the possibility of entering or evolving in a process of radicalisation, they are in no way predictive data.

Individual factors

Individual factors relate to various psychological vulnerabilities or fragilities, individual resources and life events. Different types of fragilities exist as a depressive dimension, a feeling of hopelessness but without a psychiatric diagnosis of a major depressive disorder. Some authors even consider extremist engagement as a way to fight depression¹⁶.

Addictive behaviours are also a form of vulnerability that is often identified. Strong commitment within the group and adherence to an ideology can serve as a substitute, and make it easier to quit using the original addictive substance.

As mentioned above, adolescence is a period of vulnerability because of the changes and reorganisation that it brings. Some teenagers deal with **lack of security and anxieties of abandonment**.¹⁷

Personal uncertainty is another individual factor to consider. In his research, N. Campelo¹⁸ suggests that these issues are at the core of the radicalisation process. The “neoidentity” associated with the radical group and ideology may give a new and reassuring meaning to the young person's experience.

Perceived injustice or the feeling of injustice is a recurring issue. It is associated with perceived oppression, frustration, despair or a sense of unworthiness to describe the deep malaise of the subject who tries to give sense to this ‘existential failure’. This ‘injustice’ is often put forward by the extremists themselves to justify their commitment and designate the culprits.¹⁹

A **trigger event** is often mentioned in the life path of these young people as being a determining element in the radical commitment or of their acting out. It could be, for example, the sudden death of a loved one, a video that reactivated a past trauma or a feeling of shock after confronting violent and unbearable images. It could also be a recent personal experience of discrimination.

Meso-level factors

The meso-level encompasses a young person's family and proximal level of environmental influences. It corresponds to the affiliation a group. N. Campelo points to a constant observation among practitioners, namely the **fragility and failure of the family group** as a risk factor for radicalisation. Family stories in radicalisation trajectory often mention deficiencies, **traumas and/or distress during childhood** or adolescence.

Another element that is frequently observed in life courses of youth is **admiration or friendship for a member of an extremist group**. In other words, young people with someone to look up to, and find inspiration, a mentor who will guide through the radicalisation processes.

In terms of the meso-level, it is interesting to note the similarities between certain extremist movements, in particular jihadists, cults and groups. They wield a high level of control, particularly around techniques of influence and recruitment methods. Some mechanisms are common with narcissistic gratification, moral debt, real or imagined threats and the gradual side-lining of family/friend networks.²⁰

Macro environmental factors

The macro-level environment relates to the cultural, historical, geopolitical and societal factors.

Most research shows that **polarisation** is one of the most established risk factors for radicalisation at the macro-level environment. In the RAN paper on Polarisation Management, polarisation is defined as a thought construct, based on assumptions of ‘us’ and ‘them’ identities. The polarisation process starts with the

¹⁶ Rolling J, Corduan G (2017) La radicalisation, un nouveau symptôme adolescent? Neuropsychiatr Enfance Adolesc.

¹⁷ Campelo N., Oppetit A., Neau F, Cohen D., Guillaume Bronsard (2018), Who are the European youths willing to engage in radicalisation? A multidisciplinary review of their psychological and social profile

¹⁸ Campelo N., Oppetit A., Neau F, Cohen D., Guillaume Bronsard (2018), op. cit.

¹⁹ Emmelkamp, J., op. cit.

²⁰ Campelo N., Oppetit A., Neau F, Cohen D., Guillaume Bronsard (2018), op. cit.

dominant and active narrative about the perceived (and often exaggerated) differences, as well as simplistic narratives about the others. It wholly disregards what the 'us' and 'them' could have in common. As such, polarisation can be seen in the negative thoughts and attitudes towards 'other' groups, which could result in growing hostility and segregation.²¹

According to Doosje et al., **the feeling of a threat for the own perceived in-group** is one of the strongest and critical factors in the extremist belief system. The feeling of being under threat could stem from a perceived attack on symbolic aspects (like culture), or a point of reality (as for example anxiety about interaction with other groups).

The **geopolitical context** and **societal changes** are also both factors to be considered in understanding the processes of radicalisation. The rapid fluctuation of changes and norms in society, depending on socio-economic demands, can provide a feeling of freedom and flexibility. For some people, however, it may also feel overwhelming, leveraging a lot of insecurities and uncertainties (see "modern liquidity").²²

Religion is also an element of the cultural and societal environment. However, the **potential link between religiosity and radicalisation is complex** and it is important to avoid making sweeping generalisations that could form the basis for stigmatisation. Several authors mention the importance of religion in the process of radicalisation.²³ On the one hand, positive movements with strong cultural identities and religious practice can be a form of protection in view of the risks and potential depression. On the other hand, however, religiously motivated extremism can increase antisocial behaviour and may also designate the targets of possible violence.

Three more factors can be considered crucial: activism, perceived in-group superiority and perceived distance to other people.²⁴

Activism is defined as participation in legal, non-violent ideologically motivated acts. It is described as one of the strongest risks factors for radicalisation. The hypothesis offered by Bjørge et Gjelsvik,²⁵ is that activism could be a necessary first step on the path towards violent radicalisation. However, it is not the only step. Most activists never become radicalised or engage in extremist behaviour.

The second factor, **perceived in-group superiority**, implies that people consider their in-group to be superior to out-groups.²⁶ The research mentions an interesting point about similarities between right-wing radicalisation and religious radicalisation on this point.

The third factor, **perceived distance**, is related to the feeling of experiencing a certain distance to people who think or live differently.

The risk factors of all three could be summarised by the figure below, as highlighted by N. Campelo²⁷:

²¹ RAN Polarisation Management, 6 July 2017, Amsterdam.

²² Bauman Zygmunt, (2003) *Vivre dans la modernité liquide*. Strasbourg: Faculté des Sciences Sociales.

²³ Campelo N., Oppetit A., Neau F, Cohen D., Guillaume Bronsard (2018), op. cit.

²⁴ Doosje B. and al., op. cit.

²⁵ Bjørge, T., & Gjelsvik, I. M. (2017). *Right-wing extremists and anti-Islam activists in Norway: Constraints against violence*. Oslo: Center for Research on Extremism.

²⁶ Mazarr, M. J. (2004). *The psychological sources of Islamic terrorism: Alienation and identity in the Arab world*. *Policy Review*, 125, 39–60.

²⁷ Campelo N., Oppetit A., Neau F, Cohen D., Guillaume Bronsard (2018), op. cit.

Figure 3: Risk factors of radicalisation among European youth : a three level model :

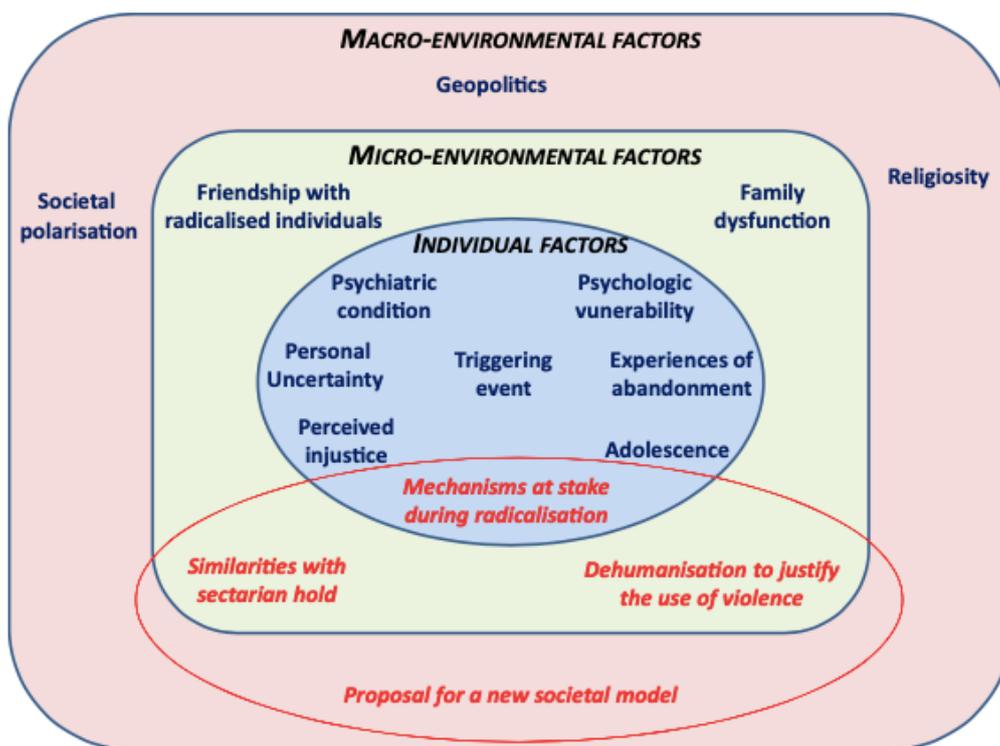


Table 1: Summary of vulnerability factors along different levels

Individual factors	Meso-level factors	Macro-level factors
Psychological vulnerabilities	Fragilities in the family group	Polarisation
Personal uncertainty	Admiration or friendship for a member of a radical group	Feeling of a threat for the appurtenance group
Perceived injustice	Group using techniques of influence and recruitment methods	Geopolitical context
Addictive behaviours		Societal changes
Trauma		Activism
Triggering event		Perceived in group superiority

Another way to understand vulnerability factors is to consider pull and push factors. In the RAN Issue Paper “The Root causes of violent extremism,”²⁸ radicalisation mechanisms are described as a product of interplay between **push and pull factors** within the individual.

This modelling is outlined in UNESCO’s Teacher guide on the Prevention of Violent Extremism²⁹:

“Push Factors” drive individuals to violent extremism like marginalisation, inequality, discrimination, persecution or the perception of these factors. Additional push factors include limited access to quality and relevant education; the denial of rights and civil liberties; and other environmental, historical and socio-economic grievances.

“Pull Factors” nurture the appeal of violent extremism, for example: the existence of well-organised violent extremist groups with compelling discourses and effective programmes that are providing services, revenue and/or employment in exchange for membership. Groups can also lure new members by providing outlets for grievances and promise of adventure and freedom. Furthermore, these groups appear to offer spiritual comfort, “a place to belong” and a supportive social network.

Protective factors

Beyond a mere focus on risk, it is important to also consider protective factors when developing prevention programmes. Everyone has their own personal protective factors against radicalisation, while others may be linked to or provided by their environment. They are not simply the other “side of the coin” in terms of risk factors. In fact, these factors increase resilience and make people stronger and more able to fight against risk factors.

Protective factors against radicalisation and violent extremism have similarities to factors protecting from general violence.³⁰ A selection of common protective factors are the following:

- Employment
- Appreciative parenting
- Stable relational environment
- Contact with moderate social network (in person or virtual)
- Ability to critically think and reflect
- Ability to manage emotions constructively and without aggression and violence

More specifically prevention programmes against radicalisation can focus on fostering protective factors and carry out measures to increase positive social bonding, group dynamics, reduce intergroup-prejudice and increase ambiguity tolerance.

Applications to prevention

It is important not only to consider individual, micro and macro levels in the development of preventive actions but also to link them. To maximise the effectiveness of P/CVE measures, it would be beneficial to intervene simultaneously at different levels.

Some examples of potential objectives along these different axes are given below.

- Individual level:
 - Reducing the feeling of frustration and social exclusion by supporting social (re)integration.
 - Improving empathy and agency skills, as well as balancing self-esteem.

²⁸RAN, ISSUE PAPER – The root causes of violent extremism.

²⁹ UNESCO, A teacher’s guide on prevention of violent extremism

³⁰ Lösel et al (2018), op. cit.

- Meso-level:
 - Offering young people a caring bond and structuring limits, as well as a discourse that counteracts extremist ideology.
 - Allowing young people to develop a sense of belonging and anchoring in a caring group.
- Macro-level: (mainly at the primary prevention level)
 - Fighting social polarisation.
 - Promoting freedom of expression and open dialogue on difficult subjects such as immigration, sexuality, religion, etc.³¹

After introducing the definitions and factors relating to this subject, it is important to consider how they relate to the setting up of individualised interventions for the target group. The next chapter will address how to approach this. It also describes approaches that can be taken.

Key Lessons

1. The radicalisation process is a multi-factor path.
2. Young people are particularly vulnerable because of the psychological, relational, and physical mechanisms at work during adolescence.
3. Vulnerability factors intervene on three different levels: individual factors, meso-level factors, and societal risk factors.
4. Protective factors against radicalisation and violent extremism are like factors protecting against general violence.
5. Approaches should not only focus on vulnerabilities but work on protective factors as well.

Setting objectives

This chapter introduces the step-by-step process to set up a programme. It also presents the underlying relational values that should be used to inform a solid engagement approach with clear objectives, outputs and outcomes.

Setting up individualised interventions

The individualisation of service delivery is a necessary and pivotal aspect of impactful work within the target group. As there are many routes leading to extremism, there are just as many leading out. Therefore, it is reasonable to propose there must also be multiple and individualised approaches for preventing radicalisation at an earlier stage in order to address exposure and the potential associated vulnerabilities that may be at play.

Individualised interventions require careful and thoughtful planning. Broader and whole-service developments at secondary and even tertiary levels require a different set of parameters that include acknowledgement of and compliance with National, International and Political factors on behalf of the Service delivering the work. As such, these matters should already necessarily be intrinsic to Service standards, professional ethics and funding (for more information, see chapter on levels of intervention).

The purpose is to consider individualising programmes of intervention to effect the desired change. The “how to” and “so what?” questions are of prime importance for practitioners – as important perhaps as the content during the early stages of any work programme. This means it is particularly pertinent to focus on the individual’s desires, feelings and influence.

³¹ RAN Young: Tenir des conversations difficiles.

There are several basic tenets to establish before getting into the details of the interventions. It is useful to identify the basis on which to engage with the individual. What are the expectations of all those involved? How will the individual respond and react to attempts being made to engage with them? Will this make a difference?

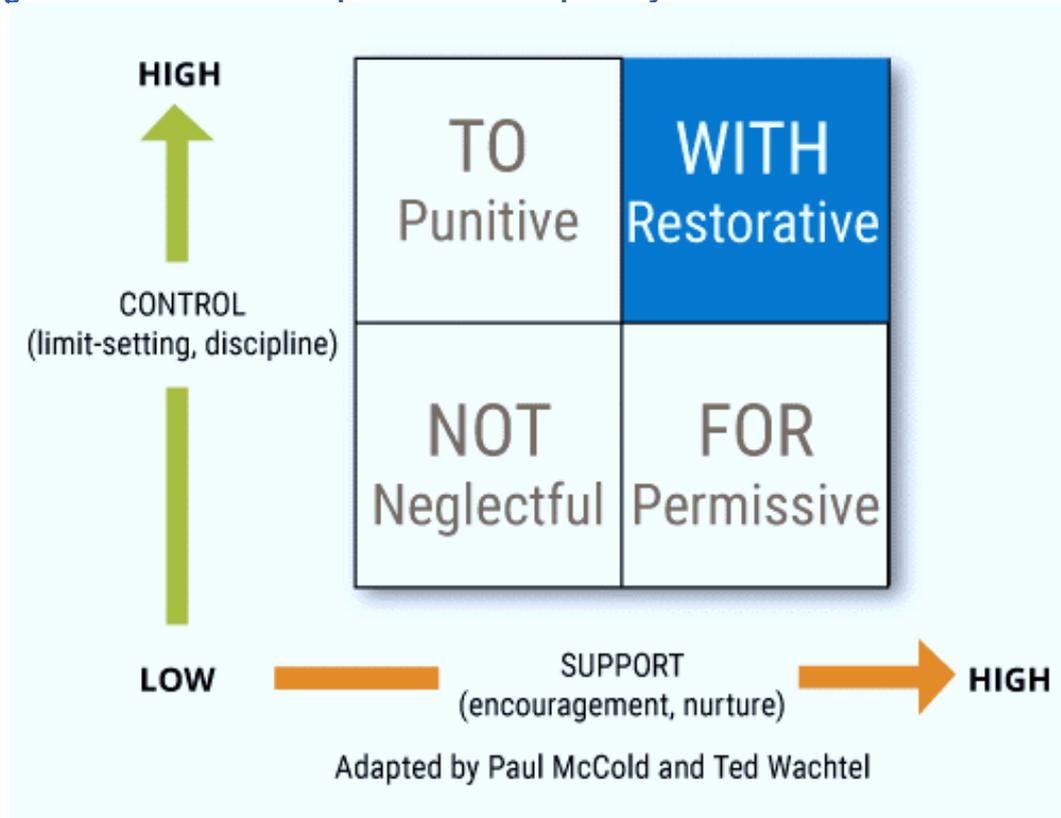
An important starting position is to have an explicit underpinning model of values. For practitioners this may be something they are already familiar with as it may be set out in Professional Practice Standards. However, if no such guidance exists, it is important to ensure that a set of minimum values-informed standards are agreed upon by all professionals involved in delivery of the service.

Adherence to and mindfulness of such a set of standards in each stage of involvement helps the practitioner to reflect with purpose and make decisions about direction of travel. Most importantly it will help the practitioner to examine their own objectivity and motivation. Whatever the profession and values, this is a golden thread sewing links between actions, outcome and review.

Relational Approaches

A relational approach to engage individuals bring warmth and humanity for anyone seeking such a set of values.³² The social discipline model below is a visual representation of high levels of support and high levels of challenge. The focus is on working with individuals rather than “doing to” them. It is important to recognise that working in this way does not equate to being overly sympathetic and accepting of unreasonable behaviours or views, or indeed any suggestion of collusion. Instead it reflects a desired approach to motivate and keep individuals on board to achieve lasting sustainable change.

Figure 4 : The social discipline model adapted by Paul McCold and Ted Wachtel .



This is a model based on connectivity and relationships. It’s the ability to offer high support and high challenge simultaneously. A value base of working “with” and not doing “to” therefore enables conversations to develop in an open and client-centred way, working towards a trusting engagement.

The necessity to demonstrate understanding and, at the most basic level, the acceptance of individuals as human sentient beings, means that this is a helpful approach when there is potential conflict. For instance,

³² Watchell and Costello (2009): The Restorative Practices Handbook. International Institute for Restorative Practices. Page 50.

a desired outcome that is not initially shared by the individual and distinguishes the programme from security driven approaches in a pre-criminal space. It is naturally rooted in appropriate relationships being established. This also means that it has a higher chance of being engaged with by individuals. The ability to connect before considering the content creates a good basis from which to work. The motto “Connect before Content” is a good way to remember this approach.

The thorny issue of consent must also be addressed. It should be clear what basis the individual is presenting - security concerns, criminal or pre-criminal space, early intervention, for example. This will determine the levels of potential willingness to engage, as well as indicating whether consent is required. For example, a court ordered assessment may mean consent is not explicitly required. However, it could also mean that the motivation to change or engage has not been internalised. The model above can prove useful to reach those hard-to-reach individuals. The individual seeking intervention through self-referral with support from family, friends or other significant persons may more readily accept support. Nevertheless, they will still need to provide explicit consent.

Cultural Competence

Henley and Schott³³ define culture as “how we do and view things in our group”. Macpherson³⁴ defines culture as “a collective resource for the management of everyday behaviour, challenges and difficulties”.

Before deciding on a description or model of programme design and delivery, it is crucial to consider cultural differences and to ensure that cultural bias is addressed. This is particularly important when thinking about the type of radicalisation being addressed (right-wing, left-wing, Islamist etc).

In 1998 a model was proposed that relates to culturally competent research and is still of use today.³⁵ This model proposes four spheres relating to cultural differences to be considered in the design of research in the health and social care fields. In the model, the four spheres are transferable aspects that are useful when considering delivery of a culturally competent model of interventions.

1. **Cultural Identity:** Explore own personal value base, creating an understanding of how they are socially and culturally constructed. Increases consciousness of own position.
2. **Cultural Knowledge:** Become aware of the cultural norms of the individual(s).
3. **Cultural Sensitivity:** This starts with respect and includes acceptance, trust and appropriateness.
4. **Cultural Competence:** The ability to challenge oneself, understand and communicate appropriately with those from a different cultural background and proceed to disseminate in a culturally accurate and reflective manner.

The model consists of four circles and is cyclical, leading to continuous self-improvement and efficacy of research / programme design and implementation. The model can be expanded to reflect generic or specific cultural competence depending upon the needs of the target audience, the programme itself and its staff group.

Papadopoulos et al (op cit.) hypothesise that the use of this model can grow practitioner skills in cultural competence through 4 distinct levels. These levels are:

1. Cultural incompetence
2. Culturally aware practice
3. Culturally safe practice
4. Culturally competent practice.

Perhaps a useful starting point is to consider the levels during the initial stages of working out a programme and determining the deliverables and those undertaking the work.

³³ Henley and Schott (2003) Culture, religion and patient care in a multi-ethnic society. Age Concern. London.

³⁴ Macpherson (1999) The Stephen Lawrence Inquiry: report. Home Office, London

³⁵ Papadopoulos, I (1998), Transcultural Health and Social Care. Elsevier, Philadelphia

Setting up the Programme Cycle: Identifying the correct programme of work

At the point of referral for an individual programme of work, the concern may be already understood or articulated in professional or other terms. The content may contain known facts, speculation, hypotheses and observations.

It is important to remember that this is very much a starting point. Referrals represent an individual's situation at any point in time. They will summarise a set of circumstances and issues to be addressed and are useful as an initial guide. However, these circumstances and issues are dynamic. Also, as work (and understanding) follows, they may change in nature, volume and/or priority. This means the review of any intervention is a significant opportunity for reflection and adjustment.

A written agreement is key at the start of work with any individual, setting out the expectations. Traditionally, such agreements focused on what is expected from the client. In a person-centred relational approach, however, these agreements also focus on what the client should expect from the professional. This becomes much more of a partnership approach to the work and is transparent.

The concerns to be addressed, and the achievements to be met should be clearly scoped, with as much consensus achieved as gained. It may not be possible to agree on all matters at the start. As such, the client-professional relationship that is formed may need to be revisited.

At this stage, the secondary prevention level interventions are usually based on a voluntary agreement to participate. The early establishment of methods that show acceptance of the individual as a human being first and foremost will pay off later. When a practitioner invests time and effort to build the relationship, (i.e., building trust and establishing rapport), it often makes it easier and more manageable to address the sensitive and difficult issues. This is a helpful skill in a situation where work is voluntary and consent-based.

Timescales and demands for demonstrable outcomes from other sources may determine the pace of engagement. However, it is also important to manage and prevent volatile outcomes, conflict or even apathy.

Clarity and prioritisation of achievements, when these are defined from the outset, assists practitioners to carry out the evaluation to measure the impact and success throughout the work period. It is not unusual to use scales and questionnaires in order to take a baseline view at the start of a work programme, and then follow up with a mid-point review before concluding with the final.

SMART planning to ensure quality control

The acronym **SMART** can be applied to setting up an agreed programme of work and the goals to be achieved, as well as clear planning (Table 1). SMART stands for Specific, Measurable, Agreed, Realistic and Timely.

Specific refers to clearly articulated goals that are **Measurable** through qualitative and quantitative applications such as scales and questionnaires. **Achievable** targets will not set the individual up to fail, but they will also not be set so low that they do not make the intervention **Relevant**. Making sure the planning **Timely** is important to keep focus and ensure unnecessary drift and delay is avoided.

Table 1: SMART planning can be understood as follows

Specific	Measurable	Agreed	Realistic	Timely
Who? What? Where? Why? Which?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How much or many? How will I know when it is accomplished? Is the data measurable? 	Have all the people involved in the plan had the chances to have their say?	Is this achievable by the people involved?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When should the item be completed? Is this appropriate and realistic for the people involved? Can you say who is doing each item within the set deadlines?

Setting goals for and with the individual is essential. A work plan that is too narrow in scope may be easy to achieve but unsuccessful in terms of bringing about the sustainable and internalised change desired. On the other hand, a scope that is too wide may be demotivating. Finding and maintaining the right balance and pace is key to creating a programme that can deliver the desired outcomes.

Carrying out a reliable evaluation and measurement are imperative to determining the impact of the intervention. This is covered in the previous chapter. Since impact may be viewed in stages (small steps) it is advisable to review regularly.

The benefit of clearly defined and transparent individualised programmes that contain all the elements outlined above, plus rigorous measures and evaluation. But these are only useful if they assist to increase capacity and motivation for change. To bring about the best possible impact of the programme, it's important to understand individual change.

The next chapter will consider the concept of change and present its cyclical and progressive nature.

Key Lessons

1. Careful and thorough planning is necessary.
2. Having an agreed, transparent and appropriate model underpinning all activity and which assists by ensuring values and standards are achieved is essential. The Social Discipline model is one example.
3. Matching the programme of work to the individual is key to bringing about change.
4. Setting up measures for changes from the outset is essential.

Understanding Change

This section will introduce the concept of Cycle of Change models to assist with the exploration of the meaning of "change cycles", their application to programmes and assist from a presumption that people can fundamentally alter and sustain their behaviours.

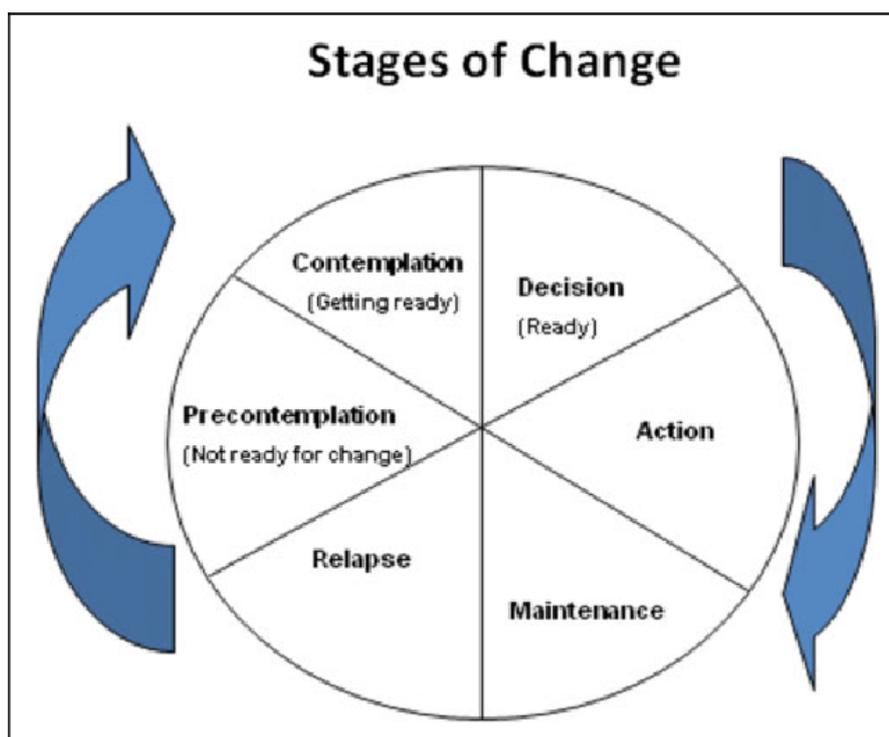
Cycle of Change model

During a crisis and in the follow up interventions, motivation can be considerably higher than when situations are more settled. The sustainability of meaningful change is a challenge for most at some point. The use of the Cycle of Change is a model to assist with understanding where an individual is currently positioned.³⁶

The model as presented by Prochaska and DiClemente is widely used in professional arenas where significant and sustained change is desired. It is founded on six progressive steps. Being cyclical in nature, at any point and individual may return to an earlier position (lapse/relapse).

³⁶ Prochaska and DiClemente (1981) Stages and Processes of self-change of smoking, toward an integrative model of change. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology

Figure 5 : Stages of change model, as presented in the study of Prochaska and DiClemente 1981



1. Precontemplation

This is a natural starting point. It describes the point at which an individual has no intention of changing their behaviour or may not even be conscious of the existence of a problem.

2. Contemplation

A consciousness/awareness that there is an issue that needs attention and change but has still not made a definite commitment to action.

3. Decision

The point at which there is acknowledgement of there being a need for action and preparing act. The intention is clear and tangible.

4. Action

The individual is taking action to make changes. Often starting with small steps and becoming perhaps bolder as success is achieved.

5. Maintenance

At this stage, the individual is replacing previous behaviours with new (more desirable) ones and embedding the changes.

6. Relapse

A period of relapse is not unusual in a cycle of change and dependent upon the level of risk attached, but of a need to revisit the preparation and action stages again.

7. The Upward Spiral

Some users of this model add an additional point about the "upward spiral".³⁷ This hypothesises that each time relapse is encountered, learning occurs, meaning that each phase of relapse becomes shorter and less impactful.

³⁷ <http://socialworktech.com/tools/>

Engaging individuals positively to make meaningful change requires skills in motivating them, assisting with understanding and relevant support to do so. The next chapter will consider methodology that assists in achieving and internalising that motivation and key models of intervention to support successful completion of an individualised programme.

Key Lessons

1. Understanding how and why people are motivated to change is important.
2. Cycle of change is a progressive model.
3. Cycle of change is based on individual learning and adapting.

Intervention

Finding a methodology that meaningfully engages the individual, leads to demonstrable and sustainable change, as well as reaching desired outcomes requires a complex combination of skills.

Not least amongst these skills is the ability to “hold” the individual in the sessions and encourage full participation (motivation). Also important is the ability to respond in crises and the consideration of the individual as part of a wider system of influences and circumstances. The following section describes the challenges in terms of differences and similarities of interventions in cases of different extremist phenomena. It then briefly discusses the topic of establishing contact with affected young people. Next, it presents several interesting approaches and methods that may be helpful to use and/or combine.

Differences between processes in the scope of Islamist extremism and right-wing extremism (IE/RWE)

The first part of this manual identified that there are overlaps between the different forms of radicalisation, and some mechanisms are similar.

The following are among the common points.

- The use of violence (or its legitimisation) and/or illegal actions to achieve a goal.
- The “black and white” (binary) vision of the world and of problems in society, as well as a form of intolerance.
- The sense of importance and superiority of the in-group's values.

However, there are differences in their internal dynamics,³⁸ as well as in their ideologies and practices. This may necessitate an adjustment of prevention programmes according to the theme addressed, but also according to the surrounding socio-political context. Some secondary prevention issues may be common (such as work on self-esteem and professional reintegration) but there is no universal “ready-to-use” method.

It is also important to be alert to the differences in perception on the side of the practitioners. Indeed, left-wing extremism (LWE), right-wing extremism (RWE) and Islamist extremism (IE) do not refer to the same type or level of perceived threat. Also, the fundamental values conveyed by these movements do not resonate with the values of society. The different ideologies do not mobilise the same reactions and feelings among professionals and other influential actors. To guarantee the best possible results of prevention programmes, it is necessary to take this dimension into account.

Likewise, the study carried out by Jämte and Ellefsen³⁹ highlights the potential differences between what professionals observe during their fieldwork, in particular the level of threat of some groups, and the priorities and expectations of local policies. This can create discord among practitioners who need to act to address

³⁸ Jan Jämte, Rune Ellefsen, Countering extremism(s): Differences in local prevention of left-wing, right-wing and Islamist extremism

³⁹ idem

situations in which the two sides are not in sync. For example, some professionals may be concerned about the rise of RWE ideas among young people while local policies might focus almost exclusively on IE.

Another point of divergence between the various forms of radicalisation and violent extremism is the risk involved when people stray from their social environment. Indeed, stricter sanctions including threats and violence have been observed in the RWE and IE movements when people are try to leave. Likewise, the issue of stigmatisation and the weight of society's gaze is also considered in the development of prevention programmes and measures. To counter this, there is a need to be included and adjusted according to the target.

The entry point with young people “at risk” can also vary and needs to be carefully planned and thought out. This requires the identification of the functioning of groups responding to an ideology, as well as their needs in the local context.

Key Lessons

1. Similarities exist between the different form of radicalisation and violent extremism.
2. There are differences arising from internal dynamics, different ideologies, but also practices which are specific to each group.
3. It is important to consider the representation of practitioners about the different form of radicalisation. Each group does not resonate the same way with values of professionals.

Establishing contact

Before discussing the different ways practitioners can potentially work with young people, it is first necessary to establish contact with relevant at-risk youth. However, rather than asking how they can reach the practitioners, it should be about asking how practitioners can reach them and make themselves accessible.

Preventive actions require “reaching out” to young people, as well as their families and the people close to them. Specialised prevention services are used for this type of approach and they have shown us how important it is to be creative and responsive.

Contact can be established in different ways depending on the young person’s age, situation and needs.

- At school (education).
- Through leisure, cultural and sports activities.
- Through professional integration and housing initiatives.
- At couple and parenthood situations.
- Via digital spaces. The digital presence of young people is an opportunity to contact them. It’s not just a challenge as it is often portrayed.

While increasing awareness among young people about the prevention services available, it is important, experience shows, for members of the social and professional environment to contact specialised prevention services. It is therefore equally important to establish trusted professional relationships with schools, sports programmes, youth centres etc.

The aim is to become widely known to parents and professionals so they know whom to reach out to in case they need support.

Key Lessons

1. Reaching out to target audience.
2. Flexibility and adaptability are required.
3. Youth worker have a key role.
4. Curiosity about the interests, preoccupations and modes of communication of young people is required.

5. Build trustful relationship with relevant professional services.

Examples of Methods and Approaches

The following subsection describes the practices and methods that may be relevant for different stages of an intervention process.

Et si j'avais tort?

An example of cross-cutting action across different forms of radicalisation and extremism: “Et si j'avais tort / And if am I wrong?”⁴⁰ This is an action initially created by the CPRMV in Montreal and then taken up in Europe by various players in the field. Originally conceived as a primary prevention tool, it remains particularly relevant in the context of secondary prevention. The aim is to build skills related to protective factors, resilience, and the development of critical thinking.

The action is developed around 5 cross-cutting themes:

1. I don't belong here (feeling of exclusion)
2. The same speech for all (Refusal of everything that is perceived as a different thought)
3. Us against them (polarisation of beliefs)
4. It's none of my business (feeling of indifference to everyday events)
5. They are all the same (a stereotypical view of others leaving no room for nuance).

Motivation for Change: Motivational Interviewing

Motivational Interviewing (MI) is probably familiar to practitioners who have engaged in work around mental health, substance misuse or any other significant work with the aim of achieving behavioural change. It is a useful approach when considering work to prevent or counter violent extremism and associated undesirable behaviours.

Motivational interviewing is a counselling method that involves enhancing a patient's motivation to change by means of four guiding principles, represented by the acronym **RULE**: **R**esist the righting reflex; **U**nderstand the patient's own motivations; **L**isten with empathy; and **E**mpower the patient⁴¹. Of course, this is transferable to many situations and programmes. Also, “patient” can be interchanged with service user, individual etc.

Motivational Interviewing techniques link well with the cycle of change model described above. It is the approach rather than the theoretical underpinning and it carries the same value base as “working with” rather than “doing to” individuals.

In assisting an individual to be self-motivated, it is important to recognise that motivation can sometimes start with an external source (external motivation). This means that it is not yet fully owned or recognised by them and as such they may be complying or trying to achieve an external result such as being “free” of attention of services, not needing to comply with orders etc. This type of motivation can be transitory and not sustainable. After all, the rationale for sustaining the change hinges on whether external motivation is removed.

The preferable and sustainable changes for an individual often come from a real inbuilt and embodied desire to change for the purpose of self. The motivation comes from within. It is a belief in the need to change and sustain that change for good reasons that are accepted and widely embraced.

“Internal motivation” means that the individual's motivation to achieve their goal comes from within. It is determined, owned by and invested in fully by the individual. It is the internal processing of why an individual wishes to change.

⁴⁰ <https://etsijavaistort.org/en/home/>

⁴¹ Miller, W and Rollnick, S. (2013), *Motivational Interviewing: helping people change*. 2013. 3rd edition. Guildford Press. New York

Web Walkers

The web walkers programme⁴² is an example of an online prevention practice. It brings together youth workers who contact adolescents on online social networks and provide them with support with social, educational or preventive measures.

The web walkers build relationships with adolescents by sympathising with them on various online social networks (Facebook, Twitter, Snapchat, Instagram etc.). They use instant messaging, email or other means associated with the relevant social network (wall comments, posts etc.).

This project, initially developed in Sweden in 2007, was taken up in Finland and then in France where it is being implemented in partnership with the Ministry of the City, Youth and Sports, the Ministry of Families, Children and women Rights. and the MSA (Mutualité sociale Agricole).

Systemic Practice

When considering interventions, an approach that perceives the individual and their actions as part of its surrounding environment and the corresponding conditions and circumstances may be helpful to understanding relevant influences in terms of their decision-making and the push and pull factors related to their radicalisation.

Applying such a systemic practice to interventions in preventing violent extremism (PVE) work, whilst sometimes complex due to the layers of involvements and influences, can be critical to understanding the challenges regarding the desired change. It is also important to piece together the puzzle of an individual's circumstances and their choices. Long-established tools such as genograms help clarify roles and relationships around the individual. This does of course need a degree of openness and engagement that may not necessarily be present in the early stages of involvement.

Crisis intervention

Most individuals will be entering a planned and organised programme of interventions as described in earlier chapters. However, there may be times when crises occur and responses are required that do not necessarily fit with the planned approach.

At these times, the founding principles to maintain engagement and ensure focus are the following.

- Maintain a sound ethical approach based on the usual standards and values of the programme.
- Address chaos and crisis by carrying out the approach chosen (for example MI or Social Discipline described earlier) to impose calm, common sense and order.
- Draw upon existing skills, knowledge and banked “social capital” as described above.

Caplan (1964) and Langsley (1968) identified the principles of crisis intervention, noting the benefit of swift, focused, intensive actions in times of crisis. The following considerations should be taken into consideration.

- The perceptions in crisis are often fear, panic and loss of control. These can affect the individual concerned and the practitioner. They are often characterised by perpetual and sudden changes, no direction and structure.
- Dealing with such circumstances requires a level of experience and so consideration should be given to supporting less experienced practitioners and ensure all staff members are self-aware.

⁴² <http://www.promeneursdunet.fr/>

- It is important to recognise that whilst uncomfortable and difficult, times of crisis also often present opportunities with the individual – to get beyond defensiveness, better understand the causes and offer a chance to engage perhaps otherwise hard to reach individuals.
- Remember the need for the individual to have familiarity at times like these and resist where appropriate the desire to “rescue” them from the immediate circumstances.
- The correct minimal intervention at these points can often result in a good outcome.
- Being available to follow up with the individual after a few days is crucial.

Key Lessons

1. Motivation can be taken from external and internal factors.
2. Crises offer opportunities that otherwise could take many weeks to evolve and efficient management of crisis can aid recovery and change.
3. Considering the individual as part of a wider system is vital to understand influences and contributing factors.
4. Systemic approaches that see the individual in a wider context are helpful to understand push and pull factors and their prevailing influences.
5. Digital settings should not be considered challenges but should be viewed as opportunities to engage with young people.

Collaborative Approaches

This chapter will explore collaborative multi-agency working, understanding roles and responsibilities from the start and will give useful examples of tools and models that can be used in setting up programmes of intervention.

Multi agency working

The ability to work together with colleagues in pursuit of a common goal is crucial where there are multiple layers to the work required. For example, the possibility to work with the whole family requires sets of expertise that stretch across several agencies (namely health, education, security services and social welfare).

These two RAN Health and Social Care (RAN H&SC) position papers provide key insights into multi-agency work. The [first paper](#) describes key considerations and different models, whereas [the second paper](#) focusses on case studies.

As such, it is perhaps important to grasp the concepts of MAW to ensure that whole situation working is achieved, where factors in one area of a person’s life may be impacting on another. The Social Care Institute of Excellence (SCIE)⁴³ Outcome Statement 10 defines Multi Agency working as follows:

“... Providing a seamless response to individuals with multiple and complex needs. This could be as part of a multi-disciplinary team or on an ad hoc basis.”⁴⁴

This then is useful to set the scene for the desired outcomes (seamless response), the delivery (by a team or ad hoc) and the target group (those with multiple and complex needs).

⁴³ [SCIE: Newly Qualified Social Worker resource](#)

⁴⁴ idem

To achieve the above, any delivery on a multi-agency basis clearly requires 3 C's: Coordination, Communication and Collaboration.

It requires a shared multi-agency vision, consideration of resources including budget limitations and the mechanisms through which deliverable will be achieved.

At the individual level, therefore, effectiveness and efficiencies at secondary and tertiary level across agencies are impactful. However, these need to be agreed and signed across agencies in each setting, the individual programme may have limited or no success.

In establishing a multi-agency individualised programme, it is important to set this in an agreed context. Recognising the factors at play within and between agencies will assist with creating an impactful and successful interventions. (See also "Barriers to multi-agency working").

A model for effective design of multi-agency individualised programmes

*"No single service can provide all of the effective responses that are needed when dealing with children growing up in extremist families or returnee children. Instead, a comprehensive approach is required which involves multiple actors and multi-agency work (MAW) to address the personal, familial and social needs of the child."*⁴⁵

It is perhaps of assistance to outline the elements of Aim, Outcomes and Outputs when setting up a multi-agency intervention to ensure clarity of roles and responsibilities.

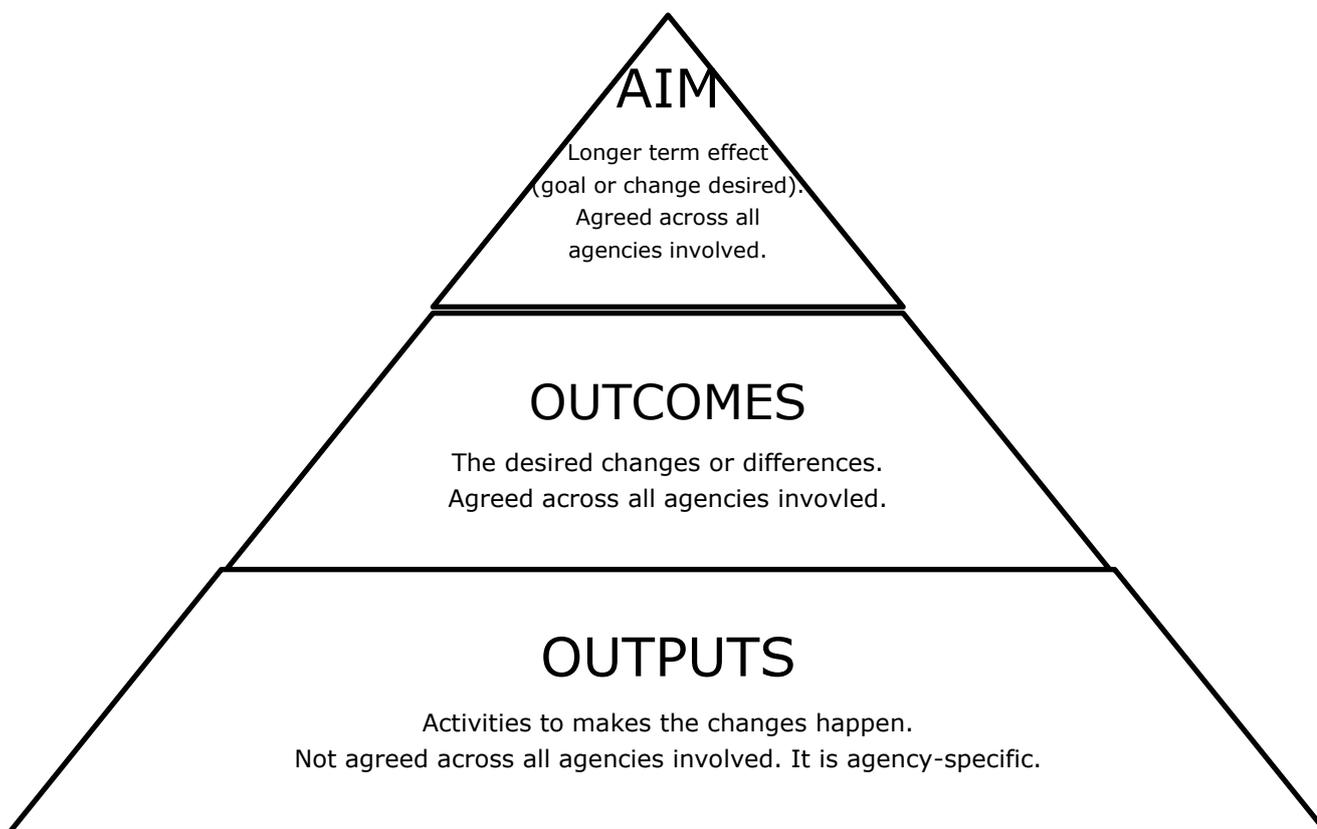
The aim is the overall desired impact or effect. The outcomes are the measurable changes and the outputs the mechanisms by which outcomes are achieved. The differentiation between outputs and outcomes is crucial when it comes to evaluation at a later point.

A useful model to consider for setting out intentions is the "Weavers Triangle". It is also useful for achieving and measuring change. Reproduced here from Evaluation Support Scotland⁴⁶ and adapted from the Charities Evaluation Service Planning Triangle developed by Jane Weaver.

⁴⁵ RAN Ex post paper Children growing up in extremist environments.

⁴⁶ Evaluationsupportscotland.org.uk

Figure 6 : Weavers Triangle



This is an alternative and basic theory of change model for planning an intervention. It can be adapted for use to deliver a whole service, a range of programmes or one individualised programme.

It is based on a collaborative approach, working to a common goal and delineates the requirements from any services or programme to achieve that goal.

AIM

Work starts at the top of the triangle which is about the overall change that is desired. Selection of this aim is one that should be done with care as it will set the trajectory for the remainder of the programme. The overall aim should be one that all agencies can agree on as the desired effect. It is worth noting that it is possible to have more than one triangle or to develop smaller triangles to feed a larger one but they should be sequential to not overwhelm the individual who will be expected to work through them with support).

The aim is a good focal point and should not be separated from the standards and values of the profession and/or organisation from which the programme stems but should be relatable for the individual concerned.

Avoid describing the work being done, and use terms such as “improve”, “prevent” or “reduce”.

Avoid generalisations and vagueness. Specific statements are not only measurable, but they are also empowering and positive.

For example:

- Reduce the overall offending behaviour of...
- Maintain contact with....
- Improve... a specific behaviour

OUTCOMES

These are described as the identifiable and small steps that will contribute to the overall aim. They should be written clearly and should be a limited number so as not to overwhelm the individual.

These describe the work that will have been delivered and the changes that will have been identified. The steps should identify specific changes the individual will have made. It can be helpful to think about the undesirable behaviours, activities or attitudes, for example. The next step would be to use these to form the opposite statements:

“X does not attend her appointments” will become “X attends all (or a specified %) of her appointments”

Outcomes should not be numerous or give lots of detail.

OUTPUTS

These are often the easiest (or most natural) thing to write. They describe what will be done to achieve the outcomes and overall aim. They are the mechanism by which the outcomes are achieved and will include those activities to be completed with the individual to achieve the desired changes.

These can be multi-agency in nature (and should be in cases where more than one agency is involved), describing a range of supports and interventions from a variety of providers wherever possible.

Consideration needs to be given to what will be most effective and impactful when working with the individual. Thinking around each agency’s remit, resources and overall aims is essential, with a common or “golden” thread of collaboration that ensures the activities are all working towards the outputs and the common aim for the individual.

Do:

- Describe what is being done with a clear focus on delivery
- Name the agency or agencies responsible for that aspect of delivery

Don’t:

- Make lists of activities
- Identify an output for which there are no existing resources or processes as this potentially builds delay and drift and loses momentum.

In summary, the triangle should be cohesive and with clear links across all 3 sections that tell an overarching story. It may even be possible to link specific outputs to specific outcomes, through specific agencies. Each section should be SMART⁴⁷ use clear language and enable others to grasp quickly the work being done or planned.⁴⁸ (See previous section referencing SMART planning in more detail page 17).

Examples of Multi-Agency Approaches and Thinking

Inter-disciplinary Prevention of Radicalisation – Vienna, Austria

Since 2017, this practice model in Vienna has brought together various professionals from across police, school and welfare services. The purpose is to improve communication and sharing of information through case studies and debate, to prevent individuals from being drawn into extremism.

⁴⁷ [SMART Action Planning 0.pdf \(who.int\)](#)

⁴⁸ knowhow.ncvo.org.uk/how-to/copy_of_how-to-create-a-planning-triangle

The practice has been evaluated as an inspiring practice by RAN and further information can be found at [ran_collection-approaches_and_practices_en.pdf \(europa.eu\)](#).

Family Support – Sarpsborg, Norway.

The municipality approach in Sarpsborg requires that all those working with a family work together in a coordinated fashion. The model focuses on strengthening competence in the field of PVE for front line practitioners. This is a strong model that requires such cooperation across statutory, private and community (voluntary) services. It is also reviewed in the RAN collection of inspiring practices, with further information to be found at: [ran_collection-approaches_and_practices_en.pdf \(europa.eu\)](#)

Channel Panel – UK

As a key element of the UK PREVENT strategy, the Channel Programme exists in the form of a panel in each Local Authority area in the UK. They bring together partner agencies to work collaboratively to assess the risk of the individual of being drawn into extremist and terrorist activity.

The PREVENT strategy is part of the UK Counterterrorism and Border Security Act 2019 and a fact sheet can be found [here](#).

Challenges: Barriers to Multi Agency collaboration

Several barriers can emerge when working across agencies. This is often due to different agendas, resource allocations, capacity and purpose. For example, a local or national security-based view of an individual will drive or desire potentially different outcomes than one of intensive family support, with greater or lesser emphasis on specific measures of success.

Resources are precious and organisations will need to ensure they are accountable for their use. Budgets are often not provided with sharing in mind and can be “ring fenced” to be focused on areas of spend or types of work.

- ➔ It is therefore important to be open with each other about any limitations or expectations of the organisation being represented to ensure collaboration can be maximised.

Data collection is required as discussed above to provide evidence of impact and outcomes. Organisations collect many different types of data for different purposes. The priority for one may not necessarily be the same for another. Working on a shared data set and agreeing what is useful will assist with the overall measurement of success of any programme.

- ➔ It is important to have one lead agency to collate, analyse and share any data to inform everyone’s practice.

Information Governance (IG) is crucial in ensuring the rights of individuals and the responsibilities of organisations are kept at the forefront of thinking when collecting data and using it. There may be different requirements, understanding and interpretation of IG that present some initial barriers to sharing useful information.

- ➔ Consent must be obtained, as with informed consent and good structures with accountability built in, many barriers to sharing can be dissolved safely.

Sustainability of multi-agency working must be considered also taking into account the other possible barriers mentioned above.

- ➔ A sustainable model needs consideration from the start as to budgets, long-term commitments and developments on the horizon within each organisation that may impact later.

Cultural expectations may vary between organisations, including understanding, tolerance and structural approaches. The focus should be on how best to approach this (sensitive) issue and find cohesion across the multi-agency group.

- ➔ There must be at least a consensus view as to the underpinning values and the parameters of what is acceptable/unacceptable when working with an individual. These may vary according to the type of work programme, target audience and cultural match of those delivering and receiving the intervention, as well as the underpinning concerns.
- ➔ Attention to relevant cultural representations (for example using Imams or “formers”) should be central to programme delivery.

Models and theoretical bases for each organisation may be different and predicated upon a variety of disciplines and approaches, for example medical, social models or pre-criminal and criminal space. There will need to be work completed on the common ground to establish a working model that all partners can sign up to for this programme. What’s more, the organisational differences will likely remain in the wider context. This may be as little as agreeing a value base, a lexicon to use and critically acceptable minimum requirements.

Motivation can also be considered in terms of the motivation of an Organisation in becoming involved in the life of an individual. There may be potential clashes of intentions and desired outcomes. For example, a judicial or security agency may have different ideas about what success looks like than a psychologist or support worker. The two groups may also differ in their views about what is driving the need for the work to be completed. Where there are differences of opinion as to priority, urgency and/or outcomes, it is helpful to ensure continuous open communication, early identification of any barriers and to seek commitment from the outset to having a problem solving and learning approach to address difference.

Whatever multi-agency inputs and outcomes are agreed and designed, the overarching requirement is to be able to measure the outcomes for the individual and to be able to evidence the impact of the programme. The role of quality assurance and evaluation is central to being able to do this and the next chapter introduces these concepts in the context of individualised programmes for PVE.

Key Lessons

1. Multi-Agency working should ideally be a seamless approach.
2. Agreement is required on vision, methodologies and outcomes.
3. Clear roles and responsibilities lead to effective communication.
4. Barriers need to be recognised and explored openly, with commitment to problem solving between partners.

Quality Assurance and Audit

This chapter will discuss the importance of setting clear measures and other systems to ensure impact and quality of interventions. This includes the importance of the voice and influence of the individuals being worked with.

Evaluation and measures

“Is the intervention having the intended effect or impact?” To answer this question, it is necessary to anticipate the relevant processes and start it from the design of the programme. This allows the practitioner to create a theory of change, collect the relevant data, and take measurements before and after action. If the measurements are not taken upstream of the action, it will be difficult, if not impossible, to determine if there was a change.

The outcomes of any programme are the parts that give the clearest initial indication of change. The methods, skills and tools for engaging an individual in change and motivating them to make changes are covered elsewhere in this manual.

The measurement of success is pivotal to understanding the individual in the immediacy and direct consequences of intervention. It is also crucial in evaluating whether outputs need to be altered, updated or changed.

An example of an approach to internal process planning and management based on detailed assessment is given below.

The VIRAGE network's evaluation approach

The VIRAGE network supports young people who have questions about radicalisation and their families. Their work is based on multidisciplinary interviews to assess the development of young people supported by the programme.

“The evaluations take varying amounts of time. They are carried out in multidisciplinary pairs. Most often, the pairs include a professional psychiatrist or psychologist, and a social worker. Together, they try to collect the speeches and analysis of each member of the families concerned, children, adolescents, parents and siblings. If necessary, they extend to other people close to the people concerned (in-laws, grandparents etc.). They ensure that everyone can express themselves and organise meeting times accordingly.

The assessments and support are anchored in a plurality of theoretical frameworks (attachment theories, developmental, psychoanalytic, systemic, socio-cultural approaches). They relate generally to the history of families, family relationships, physical (food, sleep, addictions, chronic diseases, disabilities etc.) and psychological health (cognitive capacities, discomfort, intimacy, sexuality etc.). The relationships of each other with their wider environment can also be discussed (schooling, professional integration, friendships, love, leisure ...).

The psychological health assessment makes it possible to identify individual and/or family psychopathological specificities, and to adapt the support or to carry out a possible referral. We are particularly attentive to the situations of young people presenting narcissistic or depressive vulnerabilities, and/or post-traumatic backgrounds. Vigilance will also be brought to the identification of possible psychological disorders, which we know are in the minority, but not excluded, and that they are victims by choice. Our active collaboration with the child psychiatry services allows responsiveness in addressing these adolescents.”

CYRM (Child and Youth Resilience Measurement)

This tool measures the protective factors (individual, relational, communal and cultural) available to young people aged 12 to 23 and likely to help them increase their resilience.

Scales and tools can be used to perform pre- and post-intervention measurements as part of an experimental and quantitative assessment.

Setting Multi-Agency Key Performance Indicators (KPIs)

Assigning Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) at the outset to each output provides a basis from which to evaluate at any given point, but perhaps usually at start, middle and end of a programme.

KPIs are often numerical (how much, how many and how often) but they can also include “soft” qualitative outcomes such as experiences, impressions, anecdotal reflections and feedback. Such evaluations are just as important to the work, and perhaps arguably more important to the individual, than numbers alone and are routinely captured using feedback sessions, questionnaires and interviews etc.

KPIs do not have to be complicated or detailed. In fact, if they are simply stated but targeted, they can be extremely useful and effective.

As stated above, KPIs are a way in which change is measured. An early and agreed decision, (preferably before the start of a programme of work), as to what needs to be measured gives direction then to the tools that will be required to aid data collection. These tools may include software or manual collation of, for example, the numbers or frequency of visits, appointments, demographics (such as personal data and environment), as well as anecdotal reflections on feelings, motivation, understanding and acceptance of the need for change using interviews and questionnaires. These may then be required to inform a report or evaluation of the individual and/or collective process.

Agencies can be at different stages of maturity in relation to data collection. They may be focused on numbers or “soft” outcomes and may drive their agency to understand specific aspects of an outcome. It is therefore important to agree on these at the earliest possible point, as well as to consider consent, how they are collected, stored and shared, thinking specifically about local, national and international information governance law.

Questions to aid setting KPIs may include the following.

- What needs to be evidenced?
- What processes are in place and are necessary to measure their effectiveness?
- What can be measured numerically?
- What requires measures other than numerical data?
- What does a good outcome look like and how will we know if it’s been achieved?
- Are there other perspectives that need to be understood?

Listening to Individuals - Using their voice & influences in shaping and reviewing services

There is no better expert in the experiences of an individual than the individual themselves. Professional support and guidance are of course important, as are interventions to make change sustainable. However, the need to understand the impact of how a service is delivered and received, impacts how its chance of future success is perhaps improved.

Feedback from a young adult who received services from a Local Authority gives some useful suggestions about what to consider when working with individuals. Here is her top 10 list.⁴⁹

- Co-creation and collaboration wherever possible.
- Responsiveness to thoughts, feelings and wishes of the individual wherever possible
- Anti-discriminatory and inclusive practice, ensuring continued Best practice
- Sustainability planning – longevity of impact and process that consider this.
- Feedback/learning loops – informing the practices to adapt and alter the service depending on how it is being experienced.
- Wellbeing assessment – asking “how is this service affecting the wellbeing and mental health of our service users?”
- Have core values that guide and lead the service, with the expectations and “norms” outlined clearly.
- Accessibility – for the desired audience.
- Using a trauma informed lens and avoiding re-traumatisation.
- Transparent complaints and resolutions processes, ensuring rights are understood as well as the processes to make experiences known.

As with all programmes, the measure of success is important at the start, during and at the end of interventions. However, it can be argued that the most critical measure perhaps is the longevity of the changes and the ability to measure this. The next chapter will consider the question of long-term follow up.

⁴⁹ Hodds, M, Direct quote to a Service in 2021.

Key Lessons

1. Conduct quality assurance to understand impact and any changes required to a Programme.
2. Create Key Performance Indicators when designing a programme allows for targeted measures and understanding later.
3. Include the voice of the individual in any evaluation as “an expert on self”.
4. Close the loop to ensure any learning is reinvested in the programme for improvement.

Long-term follow-up

This chapter explores the question of long-term follow-up beyond the relatively short-term of the interventions and challenges.

Who is involved?

As already mentioned, radicalisation is a multifactorial phenomenon, depending on the individual, his/her history and environment, as well as life events and challenges. Additionally, networking and collaboration are necessary to design a training programme and ensure effective implementation. The prevention of radicalisation leads us to think in a multi-professional and multi-institutional way. Long-term follow-up will also be done thanks to the intersection of the views of the different interlocutors and the maintenance of information sharing.

In addition, the family is a privileged actor in the prevention of radicalisation. The family members remain near to the individual after the preventive action. It is necessary to be able to maintain a bond of trust with family and to provide support to them in case of need or if new concerns emerge. It is necessary to equip families, to enable them to recognise the warning signs of a new attraction for a violent ideology and the signs of troubles or uneasy feelings in their child.

Sometimes the family is part of the problem, and/or not a resource. In these circumstances, it is useful to rely on a figure that is credible and reassuring for the individual, who is a trusted and familiar part of his/her wider social network.

Challenges

Field experience teaches us that secondary prevention among at-risk youth is meticulous and long-term work. As the radicalisation process is not a linear process, it is necessary to remain vigilant about the trajectory of the individuals supported, but without registering them in a form of long-term surveillance and stigmatising them. This would go against any goals.

What's more, there is not enough available literature about the long-term impact of such interventions in the field of P/CVE although the models and concepts contained within this manual are better tried and tested for longevity perhaps in other areas of Early Intervention and Prevention practices.

Interventions are sometimes really focused on the immediate benefit and to meet a need at a certain point in time, with specific available resources. Longitudinal studies are harder to establish and follow up requires longer term planning, compliant cohorts of subjects and consideration of appropriateness in terms of added value, efficacy and ethical implications.

There are advantages to trying to secure longer term follow up – not least to measure impact of the programmes and whether they have maintained their goals and effectiveness over time and brought value for investment. Finally, the benefit of significant changes for an individual that can be sustained over longer periods is a true measure of the successful intervention, as well as perhaps the wider sought-after impact of less radicalised individuals and reduction in threat/harm.

The challenges of long-term follow-up include the potential implications of bias being introduced (this includes influencing factors outside of the sphere of the programme) once the individual has completed the work. The

initial design and implementation of any programme will need to consider whether long-term follow-up is achievable, required or ethically suitable.

It is important to consider the following at design stage:

- Is later contact and follow up ethical?
- What measures would be desired at that future point?
- How will contact with the cohort/individual be maintained?
- How will the long-term evaluation / follow up allow for and mitigate missing data, individuals?
- Are the immediate programme aims compatible with long-term follow up and evaluation?

There is little in the wider research field of terrorism that focuses on the long-term efficacy of interventions. The primary focus in those areas appears to have been on personality traits that may predispose an individual to terrorism related activity, bringing some risk here of over generalisation and lack of focus when seeking out literature from that sphere.⁵⁰

Key Lessons

1. Important to identify and design long-term follow up from the programme design stage.
2. Tracking and contact mechanisms need to be designed.
3. Ethics are important in determining appropriateness for longer term follow up.
4. There are clear challenges and considerations to be made when determining the appropriateness of the follow-up.

⁵⁰ Horgan, J., 2014, *The Psychology of Terrorism*. Routledge.

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Relevant Websites and Resources:

<http://www.scie.org.uk/publications/nqswtool/multiagencyworking/resources.asp>

<http://www.promeneursdunet.fr/>

<http://socialworktech.com/tools/>

http://www.knowhow.ncvo.org.uk/how-to/copy_of_how-to-create-a-planning-triangle

<http://www.evaluationsupportscotland.org.uk>

<https://whatworks-csc.org.uk/research-project/family-safeguarding-model-trial-evaluation/>

https://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/what-we-do/networks/radicalisation_awareness_network/ran-papers/multi-agency-working-and-preventing-violent-extremism-paper-ii-april-2019_en

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