

HOW SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIAL WORKERS ASSESS THEIR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN
THE LIGHT OF PRACTICE REALITIES

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated social work practitioners' experience of the 'fit' between their professional preparation and their practice situation by focusing on the following:

- (1) (i) A profile of social work graduates' work histories;
(ii) Social work graduates' perceptions of social work;
(iii) The nature of graduates' present work tasks, and whether or not they believed these tasks to be appropriate;
(iv) The nature of graduates' work circumstances, especially in relation to:
 - the bureaucratic settings of social work practice
 - the system of supervisory control over practitioners
 - the availability of resources both tangible and intangible
 - institutionalized racism in the welfare field
(v) Whether or not their professional education and training had prepared them to carry out their work tasks and to function effectively within their work circumstances.
- (2) An analysis of the fourth year social work curriculum, offered at the University of the Witwatersrand, for the purpose of identifying its nature and the core body of knowledge, values and skills with which professional social work education seeks to equip each graduate for 'beginning practice competence';
- (3) On the basis of data gathered from (1) and (2) above, to formulate educational and training strategies which would address present and future practice.

A quantitative-descriptive research design was used. A random sample of sixty graduates was drawn from the social work graduate population of the University of the Witwatersrand (1979-1986) and was stratified into a white sub-sample serving as a comparison group to a black sub-sample.

Data was primarily collected via personally administered questionnaires and was processed according to the SAS (Statistical Analysis for the Social Sciences) programme.

The major conclusions arising out of the study were:

- that respondents were working in therapeutically-oriented organizations which focused on direct client services. This traditional pattern of service delivery was sanctioned by official state policy and appeared to be perpetuated by respondents themselves. Respondents revealed a 'goodness of fit' between therapeutically defined services and their professional competence in therapeutic roles;
- that respondents identified with a welfare ideal which espoused a democratic, non-racial service delivery which would address the population's therapeutic and developmental needs. This ideal was fundamentally different to the present-day welfare reality. Furthermore, it would appear that respondents' professional preparation may have equipped them with the value base which underpinned this welfare ideal but did not equip them with the necessary knowledge and skills to change their practice realities in the direction of their perceived ideal. Hence, it is possible to conclude that there was no real lack of fit between education and practice experiences of respondents but there was a lack of fit between education and the ideal of practice;
- that respondents' real or perceived incompetence in addressing practice constraints which entrenched traditional patterns of service delivery further perpetuated the status quo;
- that major determinants of respondents' work pattern - state subsidy requirements, agency policies and scarce resources - proved also to be the major obstacles to changing that work pattern. These determinants/obstacles are intrinsically bound up with broader socio-economic and political realities. Respondents preparedness to

challenge or not to challenge these dimensions may not only be related to educational deficits but to other restraining factors within themselves and the broader environment;

- that there were no significant differences in the practice contexts of blacks and whites; neither were there any significant differences in the way these two groups perceived and addressed the paradoxes inherent in their practice realities vis-à-vis their similar concepts of an ideal welfare.

In keeping with the study aims, recommendations were largely levelled at schools of social work, and in particular the University of the Witwatersrand School of Social Work. It became clear that the School from which respondents graduated needed to train their students for therapeutic and social development roles; that graduates needed to be equipped with strategies to address a society moving towards a more democratic and egalitarian future; and that graduates should be equipped with the necessary skills to challenge those constraints which hamper the development of a more appropriate welfare practice. Suggestions for future research centred around improving the 'fit' between the population's needs, welfare resources and professional social work strategies.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work and that the assistance obtained has been only in the form of professional guidance and supervision; that no part of this dissertation has been submitted in the past for a degree at any other university; and that the information used in this dissertation has been obtained by me while registered as a candidate for the degree of Master of Arts in Social Work, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

C R. O'Brien

C R O'Brien

15th August, 1990.

Date

For my parents, Irene and Charles O'Brien
'for the gift of life'

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ABSTRACT	ii
DECLARATION	v
DEDICATION	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	viii
LIST OF TABLES	xv
LIST OF FIGURES	xviii
 CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION	 1
1.1 Topic	1
1.2 Aims of the study	1
1.3 Rationale for the study	2
1.4 Rationale for a focus on the fourth year of professional education and training	 10
1.5 Themes to be considered in this study	11
1.6 Research design and methodology.. .. .	12
1.6.1 Research design	12
1.6.1.1 Exploratory phase	12
1.6.1.2 Research phase	13
1.6.1.3 Analysis and feedback phase	13
1.6.2 Population to be studied	14
1.6.3 Sampling procedure	14
1.7 Limitations of the study, research tool and research design	 14
1.8 Clarification of terms	15
1.9 Abbreviations	17
 CHAPTER 2 - THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIAL WORK IN THE CONTEXT OF STATE WELFARE POLICY	 18
2.1 Introduction	18
2.1.1 The origins of welfare	18
2.1.2 The partnership: the voluntary sector, the social worker and the state	 20
2.1.3 Original norms for subsidization	21
2.1.4 Legitimization of social work activity through registration and legislation	 21
2.1.5 The social work fraternity: professional groups	23
2.1.6 The population of social workers	24
2.1.7 The contemporary South African welfare system: setting for social work practice	 25
2.1.8 Welfare in crisis	28
2.1.9 Summary	30

	<u>Page</u>
CHAPTER 3 - SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA ..	31
3.1 Introduction ..	31
3.2 Historical overview ..	31
3.2.1 The early development (1930s) ..	32
3.2.2 Concern for minimum standards (1937-1939) ..	35
3.2.3 Black social work training/white social work consolidation (1940-1958) ..	36
3.2.4 Stimulation of black professional training in a segregated context (1959-1969) ..	39
3.2.5 Apartheid social work education: a critique ..	40
3.2.6 Further developments in social work education (1965-1979) ..	41
3.2.7 The Council for Social and Associated Workers (established 1980) ..	43
3.2.7.1 The activities of the Council ..	44
3.2.8 Social work education in the last ten years (1979-1989) ..	44
3.2.9 Summary ..	46
CHAPTER 4 - CURRICULUM BUILDING IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION ..	47
4.1 Introduction : A general overview ..	47
4.2 The aims of professional education ..	47
4.3 The curriculum debate ..	48
4.3.1 The dynamic nature of curricula ..	48
4.3.2 The international perspective ..	49
4.4 Principles of curriculum construction: A critique ..	50
4.5 Curriculum analysis ..	55
4.5.1 Guzzetta's model ..	57
CHAPTER 5 - SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE FOURTH YEAR CURRICULUM ..	64
5.1 Social Work Education: An introduction ..	64
5.2 The admission policy of the University of the Witwatersrand ..	64
5.3 The philosophy of the Wits School of Social Work ..	64
5.3.1 The application of the School's basic philosophy	66
5.4 A brief historical overview of the Wits School of Social Work ..	67
5.4.1 The duration of social work studies ..	67
5.4.2 Curriculum development milestones ..	68
5.4.3 Fieldwork development ..	69
5.4.4 Research development ..	70
5.4.5 The non-racial thrust ..	71
5.4.6 Summary ..	71

	<u>Page</u>
5.5 The fourth year social work curriculum between 1979 and 1986	72
5.5.1 Principles of training and tuition ..	72
5.5.2 The course structure ..	73
5.5.3 Course outlines for the BA(Social Work) Honours and Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice	74
5.6 The Wits fourth year of social work education examined in the light of Guzzetta's model for curriculum analysis	75
5.6.1 The cultural context of the curriculum ..	75
5.6.2 The construction of the curriculum ..	76
5.6.3 The attitude of the curriculum ..	77
5.6.4 The curriculum mode ..	78
5.6.5 The scope of the curriculum ..	79
5.6.6 The penetration of the curriculum ..	79
5.6.7 The practice curriculum as screened through Guzzetta's indicators ..	79
5.6.8 The knowledge, values and skills of the fourth year curriculum ..	81
CHAPTER 6 - RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY ..	83
6.1 Introduction ..	83
6.1.1 Research aims ..	83
6.1.2 Rationale and major research assumptions ..	84
6.2 Research design ..	85
6.2.1 Classification ..	85
6.3 Methodology ..	86
6.3.1 Sampling ..	86
6.3.1.1 The population ..	86
6.3.1.2 Stratification ..	86
6.3.1.3 Sample size ..	87
6.4 Data collection techniques ..	87
6.4.1 The questionnaire administered to social work graduates ..	87
6.4.1.1 Motivation for choice ..	87
6.4.1.2 Construction of the questionnaire ..	87
6.4.1.3 Pre-testing the questionnaire ..	88
6.4.1.4 Factors related to the administration of the questionnaire ..	88
6.4.1.5 Limitations inherent in using the administered questionnaire ..	89
6.4.1.6 Processing and analysis of data ..	90

	<u>Page</u>
6.4.2 Informal interviews with social work educators	90
6.5 Fourth year curriculum analysis ..	91
6.6 Limitations of the study ..	91
6.7 Summary ..	92
CHAPTER 7 - PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS ..	93
7.1 Introduction ..	93
7.2 The respondents (identifying data) ..	94
7.2.1 Race, sex and present age ..	94
7.2.2 Age at first qualification ..	95
7.2.3 Year of respondents' first social work qualification ..	96
7.2.4 The institution where respondents gained their first degree ..	97
7.2.5 The year in which respondents gained their fourth year qualification at the University of the Witwatersrand ..	99
7.2.6 The nature of respondents' fourth year qualification ..	100
7.2.7 Persons economically dependent on respondents' salary ..	101
7.2.8 Those who are considering further social work studies ..	103
7.2.8.1 Reasons for not pursuing further social work studies ..	103
7.3 Respondents' work profile ..	105
7.3.1 Choice of job, field and method ..	105
7.3.2 Total number of jobs held by respondents since qualifying with their professional degree ..	106
7.3.3 The average duration of respondents' jobs ..	107
7.3.4 Nature of positions held ..	109
7.3.5 Fields of social work practice - first and present jobs ..	111
7.3.6 Fields of social work practice - length of first and present jobs ..	113
7.3.6.1 First jobs ..	113
7.3.6.2 Present jobs ..	114
7.3.6.3 Average job duration for present jobs in various fields ..	115
7.3.7 Major reasons for job acceptance ..	116
7.3.7.1 Major reasons for job acceptance in the first jobs and in present jobs..	118
7.3.8 Major reasons for job termination ..	119

	<u>Page</u>
7.3.8.1 Major reasons for job termination in respondents' first and last jobs ..	122
7.4 How respondents perceive the nature and purpose of social work practice ..	125
7.4.1 The purpose of social work ..	125
7.4.2 Most significant factors which have shaped respondents' perception of social work's purpose	128
7.4.3 Respondents' views of current social work practice issues ..	131
7.4.3.1 Respondents' choice of the most important practice issues ..	133
7.4.3.2 Respondents' motivations for having selected the most important practice issues	134
7.5 Respondents' work tasks and work circumstances ..	136
7.5.1 Respondents present social work activities ..	136
7.5.2 Time spent on various social work activities..	136
7.5.2.1 Factors which determine respondents' present work activities ..	138
7.5.3 Respondents' rating of the outcome of their major work activity ..	141
7.5.3.1 Factors which affect the outcome of respondents' major work activity ..	143
7.5.4 The primary focus of respondents' major work activity ..	144
7.5.5 The primary areas of knowledge respondents draw upon for their major work activity .	145
7.6 Desired practice ..	147
7.6.1 Introduction ..	147
7.6.2 Why respondents are not conducting their practice in the way they think best ..	149
7.6.3 Respondents' reactions to not being able to conduct their practice in the best possible manner	152
7.6.4 Consequences to clients, agency, the profession and the professional staff when respondents are prevented from conducting their social work practice in the best possible manner ..	153
7.7 Educational priorities ..	155
7.7.1 Educational priorities which apply to social work	155
7.7.1.1 Respondents' selection of the three most important educational priorities ..	158

	<u>Page</u>
7.8 Respondents' evaluation of the fourth year curriculum	159
7.8.1 Introduction	159
7.8.2 The effectiveness of various curriculum aspects of fourth year of study..	160
7.8.2.1 Why respondents rated curriculum aspects as effective	162
7.8.2.2 Why respondents rated various curriculum aspects as not effective	164
7.8.3 Assessment of professional education in relation to various competency areas	165
7.9 Suggestions for a 'better fit' between education and practice	169
7.9.1 Introduction	169
7.9.2 Most important factors chosen by respondents as contributing towards a 'better fit' and the reasons for their choice	172
7.10 Summary	174
CHAPTER 8 - FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ..	175
8.1 Introduction	175
8.2 The aims	175
8.3 Major assumptions and rationale..	176
8.4 Summary presentation and discussion of findings	177
8.4.1 A profile of social work graduates and their work histories	177
8.4.2 Respondents' perceptions of social work's purposes and their views on current practice issues	181
8.4.3 Respondents' work tasks and work circumstances	183
8.4.3.1 Whether or not respondents consider their work tasks to be appropriate..	186
8.4.3.2 Whether or not graduates' professional education and training has prepared them to carry out their work tasks and to function effectively within their work circumstances	187
8.4.4 The nature of the fourth year social work curriculum offered at the University of the Witwatersrand	192

	<u>Page</u>
8.5 The findings in relation to the five major assumptions outlined in Section 8.3	195
8.6 Major conclusions	197
8.7 Major recommendations	204
8.8 Future research	207
APPENDICES	209
BIBLIOGRAPHY	367

LIST OF TABLES

		<u>Page</u>
Table 1	Sex and age by race	94
Table 2	Year of respondents' first social work qualification	96
Table 3	The institution where respondents gained their first degree	97
Table 4	The year in which respondents gained their fourth year degree	99
Table 5	The nature of respondents' fourth year qualification	100
Table 6	Persons economically dependent on respondents' salary	101
Table 7	Those who are considering further social work studies	103
Table 8	Total number of jobs held by respondents ..	106
Table 9	Number of social work and non-social work jobs held	107
Table 10	The average duration of respondents' jobs ..	108
Table 11	Nature of respondents' social work positions in different jobs . ..	110
Table 12	Field of social work practice - first and present jobs	111
Table 13	Average job duration for first jobs in various fields	113
Table 14	Average job duration for present jobs in various fields	115
Table 15	Major reasons for job acceptance in all respondents' jobs . ..	116
Table 16	Major reasons for job acceptance in first and in present jobs	118
Table 17	Major reasons for job termination in all respondents' jobs	120
Table 18	Major reasons for job termination in first and last jobs	123
Table 19	Respondents' ranking of social work's purposes in order of importance . ..	126
Table 20	Category of factors influencing respondents' perceptions of social work's purposes ..	129
Table 21	Respondents' views of current practice issues..	131
Tab 22	Most important practice issues	133

Page

Table 23	Average proportion of time spent on social work activities . . .	137
Table 24	Determinants of respondents' work activities ..	139
Table 25	Respondents' assessment of the success rate of their major work activity	142
Table 26	Respondents' identification of principal factors affecting the outcome of their major work activity	143
Table 27	The primary focus of respondents' major work activity	145
Table 28	Primary areas of knowledge used by respondents in their major work activity	146
Table 29	Average proportion of time respondents would like to spend on various work activities	148
Table 30	Most important factors which prevent respondents from conducting their preferred practice .	150
Table 31	Respondents' five strongest reactions to not being able to conduct their preferred practice ..	152
Table 32	Major consequences to clients, agency, the profession and professional staff when respondents are unable to conduct their practice in the best possible manner	154
Table 33	Respondents' views on major educational priorities	156
Table 34	Respondents' choice of the most important educational priorities	158
Table 35	Respondents' overall assessment of their fourth year of study	159
Table 36	Respondents' rating of the effectiveness of various aspects of the fourth year curriculum ..	161
Table 37	Reasons why respondents rated their curriculum as being effective	163
Table 38	Why respondents rated curriculum aspects as not effective	164

Page

Table 39	Respondents' rating of their educational preparedness for competency in the following competency areas	166
Table 40	Respondents' choice of statements contributing towards a 'better fit'	170
Table 41	The most important factors chosen by respondents as contributing towards a 'better fit' ..	172

LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
Figure 1 - The poor white problem and its welfare/political/ academic relevance ..	34
Figure 2 - Guzzetta's Model - a key to understanding the nature of the curriculum ..	63
Figure 3 - Reasons for not doing further social work studies	104

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Topic

The central concern of this study is how social workers assess their professional education in the light of practice realities.

1.2 Aims of the study

Aim (1)

To establish:

- (i) a profile of social work graduates' work histories;
- (ii) their perception of social work;
- (iii) the nature of their present work tasks, and whether or not they believe these tasks to be appropriate;
- (iv) the nature of social work graduates' work circumstances, especially in relation to:
 - the bureaucratic settings of social work practice
 - the system of supervisory control over practitioners
 - the availability of resources, both tangible and intangible
 - institutionalized racism in the welfare field
- (v) Whether or not their professional education and training has prepared them to carry out their work tasks and to function effectively within their work circumstances.

Aim (2)

To analyze the fourth year social work curriculum, offered at the University of the Witwatersrand, for the purpose of identifying its nature and the core body of knowledge, values and skills with which professional social work education seeks to equip each graduate for 'beginning practice competence'.

Aim (3)

On the basis of data gathered from Aim (1) and Aim (2) above, to formulate educational and training strategies which would address present and future practice.

1.3 Rationale for the study

The search for a meaningful integration of theory (obtained from social work education) and social work practice is a universal concern (Patel, 1988; Small, 1987; Goldstein, 1986; Reary, 1986; Walden and Brown, 1985). However, it is also generally accepted that absolute integration between theory and practice, particularly in the social sciences, is highly unlikely (Pilalis, 1986). Hence, a more pragmatic approach would be to search for the 'best fit'. Here again, the concept of 'best fit' between social work education and social work practice is a relative one and is not free of bias.

The very nature of South African society with its ingrained 'apartheid' mentality has 'coloured' the theory/practice debate rendering it more contentious and difficult to resolve. Thus, while it is recognized that 'what is' often falls short of what 'ought to be', any extreme difference between the reality and the ideal, would warrant some investigation. Cohen (1984:12), quotes an anonymous American journalist on the South African social work practice situation: 'All over the world, social workers experience the gap between theory and practice. But nowhere, perhaps is the disparity as great as in the Republic of South Africa.' This claim is made largely in relation to the effects of institutionalized racism on South African social work practice.

Social work practice within the context of a changing South African society is fraught with many paradoxes and tensions. Some of these constraints are in fact universally experienced in the profession of social work, but set against the South African backdrop they take on specific dimensions. Some of the principal ones are as follows:

- (i) Tensions which exist in the South African welfare system.
- (ii) Conflict which may exist between the bureaucratic organizational goals of employing organizations and the humanitarian service goals of social work employees.
- (iii) Potential for the state to coerce and control social work practice.
- (iv) Professionalization may distance social workers from the clients they ostensibly serve.

- (v) Tensions may emanate from pursuing the dual focus of social work practice.
- (vi) Supervisory, administrative control may thwart creative and innovative practice.
- (vii) Ideological tensions which may exist in professional social work associations.
- (i) Tensions which exist in the South African Welfare System:

Some of the major tensions which emanate from the South African welfare system are related to the principles on which it is based and the manner in which it is structured. These central principles/concepts include: a residual approach to welfare; the principle of racial differentiation and more recently, the principle of privatization.

A residual concept of welfare encourages state assistance only when the natural resources of individuals/families/communities break down or become depleted (Department of Constitutional Development and Planning, 1985:6; Wilensky and Lebeaux, 1958). This approach to welfare is diametrically opposed to the concept of the 'welfare state' in which the state assumes the major responsibility for welfare provision.

The principle of racial differentiation which is still operative in South African welfare, perpetuates a system of unequal service delivery based on colour. This racially biased welfare system has spawned a number of separate structures to deal with the welfare needs of different racial groups. The cost of racial segregation in welfare includes the maintenance of separate structures, added manpower, extra bureaucratic red-tape and the unnecessary overlapping and fragmentation of social services (Report on the New Welfare Policy Workshop, 1987).

The principle of privatization, recently endorsed as a central feature of the state's official welfare policy, advocates the joint sharing of welfare costs by the state and the private sector. The implications of this principle are manifold and will be discussed in a later chapter.

Suffice to say that the major consequence of privatization will be that those most in need of welfare services and who can least afford to

purchase these services, will be greatly disadvantaged.

The South African welfare system could be summed up as having the following distinctive features: firstly, that it is against 'welfare statism', hence its residual and privatization policies; and secondly, that it is highly bureaucratized not only for purposes of regulation and control, but also to maintain racially divisive social service structures.

(ii) Conflict which may exist between the bureaucratic organizational goals of employing organizations and the humanitarian service goals of social work employees (Slabbert, 1983; Midgley, 1981; Brager and Holloway, 1978; Pearson in Bailey and Brake, 1975; Toren, 1969).

Most of South African social work practice is carried out within the settings of registered welfare organizations which are subject to government control via subsidies and restrictive welfare legislation. These organizations are expected to operate within the context of a racially defined social service delivery system. However, some organizations have resisted this racial 'suit-jacketing'. Clearly, social workers who aspire to humanitarian service goals based on a non-racial and democratic approach to social work practice, may find themselves seriously at odds with organizations which allow government funding and ideology to influence their policy and practice. In such instances, social workers' attempts to make their organizations more sensitive to an equal and democratic service delivery may be thwarted and their actions may be labelled as 'political' or 'activist'. Thus South African social service bureaucracies (depending on their ideological allegiance and/or financial dependence) may in themselves be stumbling blocks to a more egalitarian service delivery (Vitus, 1987).

(iii) The potential for the state to coerce and control social work practice.

From the preceding sections it appears that social work is an over-regulated profession with laws and regulations which prescribe and proscribe the nature of social service delivery. The nature of social

work practice may be influenced by the following factors:

- State subsidies which prescribe norms affecting social work practices. These norms reflecting the state's idea of welfare have been largely responsible for fostering a therapeutically focused social work activity. Only recently have broader developmental needs been acknowledged through state subsidy norms (Martine, 1989:126).
- Organizations which are state sponsored are expected to comply with government policies.
- Social work practitioners/educators have to be registered with a statutory body and this regulates the profession largely in keeping with the overall policy which reflects national policy goals.

To conclude, the many potentially powerful and varied sources of state control, as outlined above, could have the effect of stifling innovative developments in social work practice. This may also contribute towards making social workers more 'state-responsive' rather than 'client-responsive'.

(iv) 'Professionalization' may distance social workers from the clients they ostensibly serve.

The social work profession has had to contend with many doubts as to whether or not it could claim for itself a professional status (Cohen and Wagner, 1982; Epstein and Conrad, 1978; Greenwood, 1957; Flexner, 1915).

Contextual cues have also shaped the general consensus about the nature of the social work profession. South African professional social work associations, the statutory body for the profession, and the interests of the state have all made their impact on defining the professional status of the social worker. Personal, subjective interpretations may include status, autonomy and power issues. Some may view private practice as the epitome of professionalism. Others may include professional/political activism on behalf of the masses as part and parcel of their professional repertoire. The latter approach has been officially discouraged and severely restricted in the South African context (Patel, 1983).

Worldwide, various authors have commented on the inverse relationship between increasing professionalization and decreasing political social action (Khinduka, 1987; Whithorn, 1984; Midgley, 1981; Bailey and Brake, 1975). South African social work has become a highly sophisticated profession using a predominantly individualized, therapeutic approach which is appropriate for only a small segment of the population (McKendrick, 1990:13). The larger mass of the South African population may not require this level of sophisticated social service delivery. More appropriate strategies may well include political/social action and other 'macro-approaches' which would address basic needs such as housing, employment and education (Small, 1987; Lowe, 1985; Cohen, 1984; Slabbert, 1983).

(v) Tensions may emanate from pursuing the dual focus of social work practice, i.e. not only to work therapeutically with individuals, families and communities, but to work for wider social reform (Khinduka, 1987; Litwin, 1983; Midgley, 1981).

South Africa is a country marked by a history of white political power and dominance which has been partially maintained at the cost of black development and freedom. The social work profession which has a legacy of championing the cause of human rights and of uplifting the 'underdog' was not able to remain completely true to its character in the South African context. Two historical events particularly, hampered the full flowering of social work's dual mission. Firstly, professional social work had a racially defined mission from its very conception - it was specifically called upon to respond to white poverty. Secondly, the profession was nurtured in the bosom of the state and bound with financial/ideological cords of attachment. It was not possible or even likely that a fledgling profession would turn on its benefactor and advocate for wider social reform, which could mean upliftment of the blacks at some cost to the whites. However, international pressure together with internal forces urging a more democratic and equitable society has brought social reform issues into sharp focus (Louw, 1989:75-77; Frankel et al., 1988; Marais, 1988:283-301).

The government of the day has shown its willingness to negotiate for a new South Africa which would have a more democratic dispensation (Fabricius, 1990:1). Social workers may feel challenged to 'seize this moment' and redeem their integrity, and their sense of mission, by making their voices for social reform heard in the corridors of power.

(vi) Supervisory, administrative control may inhibit social workers from flexing their skills in a more creative manner (Cohen and Wagner, 1982; Toren, 1969; Wax, 1963).

Beginning practitioners appear to derive much benefit from the supervisory relationship probably because of their neophyte needs at that stage (Comaroff, 1978).

However, practitioners may generally be wary of too much administrative control over their practice. This facet of the supervisory relationship has the potential to be abused in the present South African context, where the profession of social work has no unified ethical stance (Welch, 1987:160), and where the apartheid ideology is covertly or overtly perpetuated in welfare through professional channels. For example, black social workers being assigned black clients for racial rather than 'cultural sensitivity' reasons. Also, tradition-bound supervisors may be reluctant to change the status quo, and supervise accordingly.

On the other hand, the giving and receiving of supervision should be carried out within the context of a healthy professional relationship which need not contain elements of manipulation or control.

Good supervisory relationships have also the innate potential to improve the quality of the kinds of services rendered to clientele (Pettes, 1980; Munson, 1979).

(vii) Ideological tensions which may exist in professional social work associations

As yet, there is no clearly articulated code of ethics formulated by a truly representative body of social workers (Council for Social

Workers' Newsletter, July 1986:15), and this vacuum is a serious indictment to a profession which claims that its historical foundation has an ethical base. Ideological differences range from far 'right' to far 'left' and professional associations have great difficulty in arriving at any uniform consensual opinion about major issues. However, a significant breakthrough occurred at the National Social Welfare Policy Conference held in May 1989 when four professional associations formed a democratic, non-racial alliance in opposition to the present apartheid welfare system (Patel, 1989)

The combined lobbying force of fragmented professional social work associations may stimulate united action at other levels and may well present itself as a force to be reckoned with in the field of welfare.

The preceding sections have sought to highlight some of the key tensions which affect social work practice. It has become evident that the South African situation with its legalized racism has uniquely contributed to the dynamics of these tensions, making them peculiar to South Africa despite their apparent universality.

Against this background of so many bedevilling constraints, which undoubtedly affects the quality of service to social work clients, it is not out of place to ask whether practitioners are in fact responding appropriately to the real needs of their clientele (Small, 1987; Cohen, 1984; Slabbert 1983). Also of central concern to this research study, is how these constraints affect the individual social worker given the realities of his/her practice setting and work tasks (Sze and Ivker, 1986; Jayaratne and Chess, 1984; Farber, 1983; Maslach, 1982).

The writer suspects that social work education and training may not have equipped graduates with the knowledge and skills to deal adequately with these practice constraints and paradoxes in a professional manner. Social work education in South Africa in some cases, may attempt to equip graduates with a liberal value orientation. Nevertheless it is suspected that they receive the knowledge and skills to intervene in social situations with a therapeutic rather than a social change focus.

Its emphasis may therefore be on the values, knowledge and skills necessary for the delivery of direct social work service to clients, but with scant attention being given to the knowledge, strategies and tactics which social workers need to change environments that are hostile to liberal ideologies and the profession's social change function (McKendrick, 1980).

Therefore, it is conceivable that a social work education of this nature may increase frustrations and tensions experienced by graduates in practice. Such an education may socialize graduates into having strong, liberal and egalitarian principles, yet it will not equip graduates with those skills necessary to challenge and change those practice realities that bar these very principles from being realized (Small, 1987; Alexander, 1985; Lowe, 1985).

Schools of social work are being challenged as to whether the traditional western model 'methods approach' to social work is entirely suited to the developing South African situation which reflects both First and Third World problems (Small, 1987; Lewis, 1981; Midgley, 1981).

In the light of dynamic curriculum theory, schools of social work may need to subject their curriculum to ongoing revision in the light of contemporary and future practice needs (Mason, 1989; McKendrick, 1989; van Zyl, 1989; Desai, 1988; Kendall, 1986; Seipel, 1986; Sheafor et al., 1985; Guzzetta, 1984; Hokenstad, 1984; Comaroff, 1978; Brennen and Arkava, 1974; Loewenberg, 1969; Tyler, 1950).

Given the South African social work practice reality, fraught with its manifold tensions, the writer deduces that most, if not all, social workers may experience some discrepancy or lack of 'fit' between their professional education and their practice realities. However, the writer further hypothesizes that black social workers, given the prevalence of 'Third World' problems in their communities, together with an appalling lack of resources, may experience this lack of 'fit' to an even greater degree.

Thus, to sum up, this study attempts to investigate practitioners' experience of the 'fit' between education and practice. It aims to establish factual data about both, by focusing on social work education and training at one urban English-medium South African university, and the experience of its graduates in practice. By specifically focusing on the practice realities faced by both black and white graduates respectively, it hopes to provide meaningful feedback to the University so that its curriculum can be influenced to meet the needs of present and future practice.

1.4 Rationale for a focus on the fourth year of professional education and training

The University of the Witwatersrand School of Social Work has always viewed the fourth year of social work education and training as the consolidation and extension of the first three years of social work studies (Personal Communication, Head of the School of Social Work, University of the Witwatersrand, June 1987).

In 1956 the degree 'Bachelor of Arts in Social Studies' was officially retitled as 'Bachelor of Arts in Social Work' (Hare and Hoffmann, 1987:34-35). This four year degree was in operation until 1981. In 1977, the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice was introduced as an additional postgraduate option and an opportunity for those who had a three year undergraduate social work training (at other universities) to gain a 'fourth year' qualification at the University of the Witwatersrand. By 1982 the four year BA(Social Work) degree was phased out and replaced by the new '3+1' option. This '3+1' option basically meant that students could qualify with a BA(Social Work) degree after three years and proceed either to the BA(Social Work) Honours degree or alternatively pursue the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice.

Both postgraduate options (i.e. the Honours and the Higher Diploma courses) followed identical curricula but had different examination requirements (Self Analysis Report, 1985:3). The major difference lay

in the preparation of Honours students for further academic studies (e.g. Masters candidature) whereas the Higher Diploma students were predominantly geared towards greater competence in practice. Thus, Honours students were required to submit a research dissertation as a course requirement whilst Diploma students were exempted from this requirement. However, in both cases, the aim was to consolidate and extend earlier basic education and training, so that the student was prepared with beginning competence for responsible entry into practice.

The fourth year of the old four year BA(Social Work) degree, the BA(Social Work) Honours degree, and the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice were all shaped with a common, shared educational aim. Hence for the purposes of this study, it was considered appropriate to focus on the fourth year of professional education as the critical education and training year, to be evaluated in the light of practice relevance.

1.5 Themes to be considered in this study

There are three principal themes to be explored, namely:

(i) The nature of social work education

A content analysis is made of the fourth year social work curriculum, offered at the University of the Witwatersrand. The purpose of this analysis is twofold, i.e. to identify that core body of knowledge, skills and values with which the School of Social Work aims to equip each graduate; and to assess whether training and education correspond to what is being demanded in practice.

(ii) The nature of social work practice in South Africa

A study is made of social work practice carried out by social work graduates of the University of the Witwatersrand in relation to:

- a profile of social work graduates' work histories;
- the nature of social work graduates' work tasks;
- whether or not their professional education and training has prepared them to carry out their present work tasks;
- the nature of social work graduates' work circumstances with

reference to bureaucratic constraints, supervisory control, availability of resources and the constraints of institutionalized racism;

- whether or not their professional education and training has equipped them with knowledge and skills to optimize effective professional functioning within the constraints of their work circumstances.

(iii) How practice should inform education and training

Since curricula are dynamic entities, constantly changing in the light of practice realities (Desai, 1988; Guzzetta, 1984) it is of vital importance that information regarding practice be fed back to schools of social work. This study seeks to assess practice realities through the perspective of social work practitioners. Empirical data gleaned from theme (ii) will be compared with data gained from theme (i) and in this way an answer may be sought to the thesis : 'How South African social workers assess their professional education and training in the light of practice realities'.

1.6 Research design and methodology

1.6.1 Research design

The research design can be classified as a quantitative-descriptive study (Tripodi et al., 1989:38). It is a retrospective study in that it assesses the impact of professional education (successfully completed) on social work practice.

The research design comprised three phases:

- Phase I - exploratory phase
- Phase II - research phase
- Phase III - analysis and feedback phase

1.6.1.1 Exploratory phase

This phase entailed :

- (i) a comprehensive literature survey;
- (ii) preliminary reconnaissance interviews with practitioners (not part of research sample) with the purpose of gaining first-hand information about the nature of social work practice;
- (iii) reconnaissance interviews with staff members of the School of Social Work (University of the Witwatersrand) about the nature of education and training, and curriculum content;
- (iv) a content analysis of the fourth year social work curriculum at the University of the Witwatersrand, undertaken for purposes of identifying that body of knowledge, values and skills imparted to graduates.

1.6.1.2 Research phase

- (i) A sample of black and white social work graduates was drawn from the University of the Witwatersrand social work graduate population. They were informed telephonically and by letter of the aims of the research and their participation was requested.
- (ii) A comprehensive questionnaire focusing on the research aims was designed.
- (iii) A pilot study was undertaken to pre-test the questionnaire.
- (iv) The research survey was implemented by means of personally administered questionnaires.

1.6.1.3 Analysis and feedback phase

- (i) Data was collected primarily through pre-coded questionnaires and backed up by tape-recordings of the discussions which accompanied the interviews.
- (ii) Data was analyzed using the SAS Programme (Statistical Analysis for the Social Sciences) on the University of the Witwatersrand's IBM 3830 computer. Fischer's Exact Test was used to test the levels of significance. Data was portrayed in frequency tables and histograms.
- (iii) The findings were written up, conclusions drawn, and recommendations made.

1.6.2 Population to be studied

- (i) A random sample was drawn from the University of the Witwatersrand's social work graduate population for the period 1979-1986 (confined to the greater Witwatersrand area).
- (ii) The period 1979-1986 reflected a time-span when black social workers graduated from this university in relatively increasing numbers and secondly, being the recent past it was considered that this would assist with easier recall of educational experiences.
- (iii) Of the total population of 252 graduates (1979-1986), 203 were White; 37 African; 4 Coloured; and 8 Indian.
- (iv) For purposes of comparison, the population was stratified into a white group and a black group. The black group comprised largely of Africans with smaller proportions of Indians and Coloureds; whilst the white group consisted of all white cultural and language groups.

1.6.3 Sampling procedure

- (i) Thirty black graduates were randomly selected from the total black graduate group.
 - (ii) Thirty white graduates were randomly selected from the total white graduate group.
- This type of sampling procedure could be classified as stratified random sampling.

1.7 Limitations of the study, research tool and research design

- (i) Since this study has been confined to social work graduates of the University of the Witwatersrand, its representativeness is circumscribed.
- (ii) Sample respondents, all of whom qualified during 1979-1986, assessed their own professional education. The fourth year curriculum may have undergone some changes since they were in training.
- (iii) The time period during which this study was conducted was marked by socio-economic and political upheaval which may have influenced responses.

- (iv) The black/white stratification does not take cognisance of the subtleties which arise from religious, cultural and ethnic differences within these groups.
- (v) The rather lengthy, time-consuming questionnaire may have led to faulty responses.
- (vi) Responses which relied on memory/recall have to be viewed with some circumspection.
- (vii) Some respondents may have become sensitized to this research study and may have offered atypical responses.
- (viii) Whether or not the interviewer was perceived as identifying with the black or the white group, may have influenced the responses.
- (ix) Limitations inherent in the questionnaire such as its length, the choice of questions and their construction, whether they were open-ended or closed. and whether answers had to be rated on a scale or ranked, carried with it numerous possibilities for bias, for example, the 'halo effect' or the Hawthorne effect.
- (x) The choice of research design has its own limitations. Quantitative-descriptive designs cannot lay claim. as do experimental studies, to cause-effect relationships. A quantitative-descriptive design can use formal methods as approximations to experimental design, with some features of statistical reliability and control.

1.8 Clarification of terms

Social Work Education and Training: pertains to the fourth year curriculum whether it be the fourth year of a four year BA(Social Work) degree, a BA(Social Work) Honours degree or a Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice, offered at the University of the Witwatersrand School of Social Work.

Black Graduates: for the purpose of this study black graduates include Africans, Coloureds and Indians. (References to colour have been made solely in relation to research purposes. The writer does not identify with any form of discrimination.)

White Graduates: will include all white language and cultural groupings.

Third World: those parts of South Africa which reflect economically struggling and developing features with concomitant social problems of unemployment, poor education, housing shortage, poverty and malnutrition.

Apartheid: refers to a political system of institutionalized racism in the South African context so construed as to favour the advancement of the white minority and to control the black majority.

Appropriateness: refers to the meaningful, purposeful application of social workers' intervention strategies to the 'person-in-his-environment', and would imply addressing both the symptoms and the cause of the problem.

Developmental: (as contrasted with the therapeutic approach) refers to the needs of individuals, groups and communities seen in the broader context of a socio-economic and political framework.

Therapeutic: treatment/curative approaches offered in the 'one to one' or small group situation. The philosophy underlying this approach basically assumes that personal psychodynamics and close interpersonal relationships are the major factors for intervention in any problem situation.

Preventive: a treatment approach aimed at the prevention of social ills and comprising primary, secondary and tertiary prevention measures.

Promotive: a social work approach aimed at preparation for the optimal functioning of individuals, groups and communities.

1.9 Abbreviations

Departmental Review 1983-1988 refers to the report submitted by the School of Social Work to the Faculty of Arts, University of the Witwatersrand: 'Departmental Review of the School of Social Work, 1983-1988'.

Self-Analysis Report, 1988 refers to the report submitted by the School of Social Work to the Council for Social and Associated Workers: 'Self-Analysis of professional tuition and training in social work offered by the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, June, 1988'.

Wits Graduates: refers to social work graduates who obtained a four year Social Work qualification or a BA(SW) Honours or a Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice, at the University of the Witwatersrand.

Wits: refers to the University of the Witwatersrand and will be used for purposes of brevity.

CHAPTER 2

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIAL WORK IN THE CONTEXT OF STATE WELFARE POLICY

2.1 Introduction

South African social welfare and social work has been shaped, like every other facet of South African society, by the complex socio-political, economic, historical features of its past. While history has also been shaped by the historian's own bias (Lekhela, 1978:249), a rich, kaleidoscopic understanding of motives and political manoeuvres which underlie various dimensions of the South African black/white situation have been presented in the works of Davenport (1987); Odendaal (1984); Lodge (1983); O'Meara (1983); Elphick and Giliomee (1979); Inskeep (1978); and van der Post (1975); Wels. (1971).

However, a detailed historical analysis does not fall within the ambit of this particular study. Suffice to say that the focal point of the survival/power struggle experienced on this southern-most tip of the African continent, has centred largely around the twin issues of territorial and political rights (Davenport, 1987:181, 454). Territorial and political rights impinge directly on basic human needs, and as such, human welfare is brought into sharp focus. With this perspective in mind, welfare cannot be viewed apolitically. Therefore, as long as the majority of South African people are deprived of adequate space to live (The Native Lands Act of 1913; Native Trust and Land Act of 1936), are not able to avail themselves of education because of the cycle of poverty (Wilson and Ramphela, 1988), or have their basic rights impinged upon (Human Rights Update 1988; South African Journal on Human Rights, Vol.3, 1987), then welfare in South Africa may fall far short of its ideals.

2.1.1 The origins of welfare

The existence of the poor white problem, its social and political implications, and the state's response to this problem, initiated the beginnings of organized welfare (1903-1936).

The poor white problem became evident towards the end of the nineteenth century and some of the major causative factors were attributed to the following:

- the aftermath of the Anglo-Boer War;
- the lack of arable land which, coupled together with poor farming methods, resulted in poor crop returns;
- the rinderpest plague which decimated livestock;
- the inability of farmers and their family members to obtain gainful employment both in the rural and urban areas, which lead to indigency (Dav port, 1987; McKendrick, 1987:10).

The Afrikaner Women's organizations were the first to respond to the plight of the poor whites and subsequently made those in political positions aware of this problem.

The Depression of the 1920s exacerbated poverty among whites and blacks, but it was white poverty that elicited the most concern. In the same year (1932) as the Carnegie Commission of Inquiry report was being widely debated, the Native Economic Commission revealed the possibility of mass starvation amongst blacks (Rose and Turner, 1975:228). However, foremost attention was given to the findings of the Carnegie Commission of Inquiry. One of the reasons for overlooking the plight of the so-called 'Natives' could well have been that black poverty may have ensured a cheap source of labour, and too much investment in their welfare needs could have disturbed this economic bonus (Welsh, 1971:75).

Thus, blacks were victims of deliberately enforced powerlessness. Unable to vote, unaccustomed to Western-styled political processes, they lacked organizational skills in this regard and were ill-equipped to muster any significant extra-parliamentary forces (de Villiers, 1978:165; Gerhart, 1978:36).

The state responded to the poor white problem by creating the first social welfare department in 1937, with a policy of working co-operatively with churches and community welfare agencies, thereby

initiating the partnership between the state and the voluntary sector. Also, in response to the eloquent arguments of Dr H F Verwoerd (erstwhile Professor of Sociology and Social Work at Stellenbosch University) the state agreed to subsidize welfare posts thereby giving the social work profession and social work education in particular, a tremendous boost.

Thus, from the aforementioned developments it is already possible to identify three significant features which characterise contemporary South African welfare, namely:

- that it originated as a racially defined welfare system with white welfare being of primary concern;
- that it reflects a unique partnership between the state and the voluntary sector;
- that it reflects the state's interest in the development and control of the social work profession (McKendrick 1987:12-13; Lund and van Harte, 1980).

2.1.2 The partnership: the voluntary sector, the social worker and the state

State involvement with welfare, encouraged by the late Hendrik Verwoerd, was officially initiated with the establishment of the State Department of Social Welfare (1937). The general welfare strategy adopted by the state was that professionally trained welfare officers would offer their expertise to the voluntary forces in the field, and at the same time inform and advise the state on welfare issues. Welfare would thus be effectively centralized through the structured control of the statutory services (Marks, 1989:139).

In the final analysis, it appears that the voluntary sector, in exchange for monetary aid and professional services, had to succumb to state regulation and control. The state's welfare gesture may have had a hidden political agenda of increasing its constituency and entrenching its ideology; and social workers whose salaries were largely subsidized by the government may have gained acceptance and legitimization at the

cost of being used as agents of state control (Marks, 1989; Davenport, 1987).

2.1.3 Original norms for subsidization

The state involvement in welfare included the provision of a 75% subsidy for approved social work posts. The subsidy formula devised meant that every social worker carried a caseload which could be divided into four categories, namely:

- (i) complex family problems;
- (ii) serious behaviour or personality adjustment problems;
- (iii) problems requiring supportive aid only;
- (iv) problems of material welfare.

Points were allocated to these four categories and each social worker had to show a caseload of 225 points to be eligible for a subsidy (Marks 1989:146). It should be noted that such a system appeared to value the quantity as opposed to the quality of the service rendered.

Despite a more recent positive movement to a programme planning system (Martine, 1989; Welch, 1987), this subsidy formula still holds true today with some amendments which allow for community development strategies. However, by and large, a therapeutic orientation in social service delivery is still very dominant. Social workers are not subsidized to use social action techniques aimed at changing service delivery systems which are impractical, unequal and unjust. In this regard, Vitus comments: 'As far as social action is concerned welfare organizations find themselves in a cleft stick - on the one hand, they are expected to make themselves heard on social issues, on the other, financial dependence on government aid keeps them silent' (1987:107).

2.1.4 Legitimization of social work activity through registration and legislation

The first step to legitimizing the social worker's professional autonomy came by way of registration of welfare activity.

The Welfare Organization Act, 1949, formally recognized welfare organizations, within which social workers were the primary professional employees. Soon after (in 1955), the state recognized social workers in its employ as a professional group (Auret, 1970). When the 1949 welfare legislation was replaced by the National Welfare Act, 1965, formal provision was provided for the creation of a Social Work Commission as part of the National Welfare Board. This Social Work Commission was empowered to register suitably qualified persons as social workers.

More recently in 1978 a triad of welfare legislation was passed by Parliament despite protest from the more progressive forces within the social work profession (Report on the New Welfare Policy Workshop, 1987).

In brief, The National Welfare Act No. 100 of 1978, makes provision for the registering of welfare services and also the co-ordinating and planning of services at regional level. In terms of this new Act, regional boards have far greater autonomy than they had in the past. These boards are uniracial. This policy of differentiation not only entrenches 'Apartheid Welfare' but leads to unwieldy, inefficient and expensive structures (McKendrick, 1987; Patel, 1987; Report on the New Welfare Policy Workshop 1987).

The Social and Associated Workers Act No. 110 of 1978, finally gave social workers their much desired total professional status, by making provision for the establishment of a Council for Social and Associated Workers (since renamed the Council for Social Workers) which would oversee the profession of social work, in the same way that the South African Medical and Dental Council regulates medical and dental practitioners.

However, appointments and elections to this controlling body for the social work profession were prescribed in such a manner, so as to ensure a majority membership consisting largely of Afrikaans-speaking white social workers. Clearly such a body is not representative.

The Fund-raising Act of 1978, controlled the flow of voluntary contributions coming from the public at large and at the same time made provision to restrict the funding which came from undesirable sources (e.g. anti-apartheid funding).

In summary, these Acts appear to have had the potential of hampering welfare activities through the control over licences to raise or receive funds; through the prerequisite to register organizations before social work posts could be subsidized; and through a controlling statutory body that was unlikely to rigorously challenge state welfare policy. Together, all these circumstances assured tight state control of social welfare and the practice of social work.

2.1.5 The social work fraternity: professional groups

By 1947 the negligible number of black social workers were soon disillusioned with the deep racial disparities in welfare and came together to form the first national, voluntary, professional association. This association was named the South African Native Social Workers Association, and later became known as the South African Black Social Workers' Association, that is, SABSWA (Cerff, 1979:93).

Already in the 1930s in Cape Town, white social workers had tried to lobby for professional recognition by establishing a professional association. However, deep ideological rifts became apparent and the matter was left in abeyance (Cerff, 1979:59). By 1954, as a result of continuous lobbying, the South African White Social Workers' Association (SAWSA) was formed. This group pushed for the segregation of integrated local service organizations which had been active since 1938 (Vitus, 1987:97).

In opposition to the segregationist stance of SAWSA, a third 'splinter' group developed in the 1970s, i.e. the Society for Social Workers, which, through its open membership clause, revealed its non-racial value base.

In the 1980s, another professional group, the 'Concerned Social Workers'

was formed as a direct response to state repression, detention without trial, and bannings, with the specific aim of addressing pertinent social issues which arose out of an apartheid societal structure. Membership was opened to all who espoused the ideal of a non-racial and democratic welfare system.

It is possible to conclude from the preceding discussion that social work professional associations have divergent opinions about the profession's value base and are ideologically divided on the critical issue of racism in welfare. South African politics has, to some extent, eroded the very culture of the social work profession (Lowe, 1985:35).

2.1.6 The population of social workers

According to the 1988 statistics (Council for Social and Associated Workers) the approximate population of registered social workers is slightly over 6,000. The breakdown percentage per group is as follows:

White	66,7%
Coloured	12,2%
Indian	5,4%
African	<u>15,7%</u>
	<u>100,0%</u>

Thus, two-thirds of professional social workers are white whilst the remaining third is black (i.e. Coloured, Indian and African). There is obvious disparity in the ratio of social workers as per the size of the country's 'population groups'. Furthermore the overall number of registered social workers in relation to the South African population as a whole, suggests a manpower problem (McKendrick, 1980). Social work, being an emotionally demanding and financially unrewarding profession, probably does not attract and keep its personnel in the same way as other more lucrative professions (Meyerovitz, 1988; McKendrick, 1980).

Black social workers in particular are subjected to a thankless task of working in frustrating environments with very little financial incentive. This situation is not conducive to innovative and creative

research and experimentation (Muller, 1988; McKendrick, 1980:283).

2.1.7 The contemporary South African welfare system: setting for social work practice

The contemporary welfare system is the broad setting within which most social workers are employed, and thus the policies upon which the system is founded and structured is a major force in providing opportunities and constraints for social work practitioners.

The South African Welfare system is structured through a highly bureaucratized, unwieldy multi-departmental organization system (Snyman and Lötter, 1988:118; McKendrick, 1987:26-27).

The rationale for having a racially defined network of complex structures is to perpetuate the ideology of apartheid or differentiation, as it has been called (South Africa 1986: 629 - 634). This absurdity is captured by Vitus, who notes: 'In some areas social workers find themselves having to serve on up to eighteen different bodies created for the co-ordination of local health and welfare affairs' (1987:183).

Official state policy, as noted earlier in Chapter 1, endorses the twin principles of differentiation and privatization .

The Report on an Investigation into the Present Welfare Policy in the Republic of South Africa, dated March 1985, but made public only in 1986 (Rycroft, 1987:367), contains the following key elements:

- (i) the report rejects the idea of a welfare state or any individual principle of a welfare state;
- (ii) the report exempts the state from having primary responsibility for welfare;
- (iii) the report endorses the principle of differentiation although it acknowledges that the lack of a central policy-making body undermines efficiency and co-ordination;
- (iv) the report advocates the principle of privatization.

The first two elements (i) and (ii) above, are directly related to the South African government's firm rejection of a socialist state with its accompanying primary function of providing welfare as a right for all its peoples. The third element (iii) above, maintains an apartheid ideology. The principle of privatization element (iv), will be discussed more fully.

The privatization principle has elicited much debate. The objectives of privatization, according to the report, are mainly to promote efficiency, share welfare responsibility with the corporate sector and reduce the state's financial outlay for welfare (Rycroft, 1987).

Thus privatization may be viewed as being part of the government's current wider economic strategy. This strategy embraces greater fiscal and monetary tightening up, tax reform, less intervention by way of protection and subsidy, real interest rates, and deregulation (The Star, May 28, 1990:23). Nevertheless, some of the counter-arguments to privatization which suggest less financial efficiency, include the following:

- profit-oriented facilities could well be less efficient than publicly owned, fixed budget providers;
- public methods of financing (through taxation and insurance) could be more cost effective since risk-sharing is widened; and, finally,
- government subsidization would still be essential for those who could not pay for the necessary services (Rycroft, 1987:368).

The strategy of privatization has also been interpreted as the government's abdication of its social responsibility at a time when it can politically ill afford to do so. On the other hand the timing may not be as inappropriate as imagined, since the government's attempts to sell out its state controlled assets, together with a lessening of its welfare burden, may be a pre-emptive manoeuvre in the face of international and internal pressure for a more democratically elected future government. Should this development ever materialize, then certain facets of privatization may be seen as a strategic buffer

against any attempts at nationalization in the future dispensation. Thus it would appear as if welfare benefits are possibly being used as a pawn in a much more complex political situation. It should not therefore be surprising that the government, while shirking from its welfare responsibility, would at the same time make welfare gestures (e.g. two billion rands for social upliftment) so as to prevent more serious attacks on the social order (Rycroft, 9J7:368; The Star, May 28 1990).

At present monies received from taxes are the major source of funds for social welfare services in South Africa. The wealth generated in South Africa has largely been redistributed to the white minority who, by virtue of their qualifications, expertise, and subsequent job opportunities provided, have been able to secure the highest financial returns for themselves. Logically, white taxable income would surpass black taxable income in a country where blacks have been kept at an economic disadvantage for many years. However, the realities of uneven development should be taken into account as there is a large pool of rural blacks who have, as yet, not been introduced into a competitive labour market for various reasons which may be voluntary or involuntary (e.g. lack of education, skills and mobility). On the other hand, black taxable income has increased over the years (Addison, 1989).

Other sources of welfare funding come from work-related social security provisions like the unemployment insurance fund and the workmen's compensation fund (McKendrick, 1987:29). The private sector through its community and church-sponsored organizations also brings in a considerable sum of money (Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Collection of Voluntary Contributions from the Public, 1976). The burden on the public treasury together with political pressure for a change in the country's domestic policies may have presented the government with a dilemma. Until recently there was little indication that the Defence Budget would be cut in order to step up social provision.

Although the 1990 budget revealed an increase in its social service financial allocation by 40% (Fabricius, 1990:1) much more could be achieved by dismantling costly, separate structures.

'If the state has no alternative but to operate with an empty purse, it should at least set an example. In its efforts to economise, the state must commence with its own administration. Can the welfare services, which are burdened by a lack of funds, afford dozens of liaison, co-ordinating and advice committees? These structures, the agendas of which often comprise mostly reports about and the referral of items elsewhere, are probably not cost effective' (Snyman and Lötter, 1988:118).

Because of the severe disadvantages of privatization as a remedy for the shortage of welfare funds, a re-thinking of means by which the state can increase the welfare budget should be given top priority at state level. Unmet basic welfare needs create a climate of discontent, unrest and potential political violence. It is in the interests of all - in the interests of the security and socio-economic and political stability of this country - that the state explores new ways of responding to the housing, education, employment, and general social welfare crisis.

2.1.8 Welfare in crisis

The major welfare issues which face the majority of people in South Africa today include poverty, employment, housing, education and nutritional needs (Schlemmer et al., 1989; Wilson and Ramphela, 1989; De Beer, 1984; Seedat, 1984). All these needs are in fact basic human needs which are often not met in Third World countries (Midgley, 1987; MacPherson, 1982; Harrison, 1981). The socio-political and historical development of South African people has been such that the white minority have established themselves as the major participators and beneficiaries of a largely urban, industrialized and developed sector of South African society, whilst the black majority constitute the underdeveloped largely unskilled sector. An increasingly significant proportion of blacks has drifted to urban settings without the necessary social and welfare infrastructure to support their development and progress (Soweto and Alexandra are two such examples). However, media

reports for the 1987/1988 financial year seem to indicate that R3,2 billion was spent on upgrading services in designated townships (Schlemmer et al., 1989:191).

Unpublished HSRC data indicates that problems such as housing shortages, unemployment and poverty are considered serious by more than 90% of blacks, and problems such as inadequate educational facilities, crime and alcohol abuse, by at least 75% of blacks. Among Whites, Indian and Coloured respondents, unemployment was most frequently identified as a serious problem (Snyman and Lötter, 1988:109).

Mostert et al. project that the number of people who join the workforce annually will double from 0,78 to 1,55 million between the years 1990 and 2030, while those in the economically active age group will increase from approximately 19 to 52 million (1988:83).

Educational needs have been highlighted through the black schools crisis, and through unrest and violence. Many alternative programmes such as those advocated by the National Education Crisis Committee have mushroomed in support of a more relevant, unitary and equal education for all (Kallaway, 1984). However, the education problem is a complex one: 'There are a few aggravating factors such as the current backlogs, rising costs of education, the need for balance between a general formative career-oriented education, the need for more and well trained, experienced teaching and professional staff, the need for compensatory education ...' (Engelbrecht and Nieuwenhuis, 1988:161).

Social workers could well argue that unemployment, housing and education are not the primary concern of social work. This attitude appears to be in keeping with official state policy. However, if the majority of people articulate these concerns as their primary needs then social workers working in collaboration with allied professionals are logically bound to address these real issues, if they wish their profession to be recognized as a genuine and useful means of promoting the quality of

people's lives in South Africa.

2.1.9 Summary

The development of South African social work in the context of state welfare policy cannot be seen in isolation from the country's socio-economic, political and historical dimensions. That organized welfare emerged as a response to poor whites, that it had strong government backing and that it developed along racial lines, are historical and political facts. Still today, welfare and social work practices, are largely determined by a racially defined casework-oriented, residual welfare system. Such a welfare system would appear to be out of touch with the large-scale developmental needs such as unemployment, lack of housing, lack of food and lack of educational and health care facilities. Social workers may find themselves trapped in a traditional mould of welfare service delivery which is more appropriate for the developed First World sector of South African society, but not so appropriate for the largely underdeveloped Third World sector whose basic needs are not even being met at this stage. Thus the present welfare system, which provides the context for social work practice, is fraught with many dilemmas and constraints which social workers may find difficult to resolve.

CHAPTER 3

SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 Introduction

From the preceding chapter, it is clear that social work cannot be viewed in isolation from its historical and contemporary contexts. The seminal events which shaped the beginnings of welfare in this country at the same time gave impetus to the profession of social work and influenced its focus and nature. This in turn impacted upon the form and emphasis of social work education.

Although by the early 1930s social work education had already been initiated at three universities, it was the state's response to the poor white problem which really gave social work education its much needed impetus. The state had decided that scientifically trained workers would be best able to deal with the poor white problem (see Sections 2.1.1, 2.1.2, 2.1.3). J F W Grosskopf of the Carnegie Commission of Inquiry used the term 'poor white' to describe an indigent white person, who according to him was 'a person who has become dependent to such an extent, whether from mental, moral, economic or physical causes, that he is unfit, without help from others, to find proper means of livelihood for himself or to procure it directly or indirectly for his children' (Davenport, 1987:319).

The poor white question had become something more than just another welfare issue. It had the potential to be used for political purposes. 'The mobilization of support from workers and poor whites became the sine qua non of nationalist political power' (O'Meara, 1979:77). Witz points out how in the mid-1930s Afrikaans trade unions were being 'Christian-Nationalized' to link up with the Afrikaner Nationalist movement (Bozzoli, 1987:266). From its very inception therefore, social work activity, and also social work education, had inherited a welfare/political priority.

3.2 Historical overview

The following sections rely heavily on the comprehensive work of McKendrick (1987). McKendrick presents his chapter on social work

education in 'Introduction to Social Work in South Africa' (1987:178-190) within the historical context of certain periods of time which the writer has also adopted for the following discussion. These five periods encapsulate the relevant milestones in the history of social work education.

3.2.1 The early development (1930s)

Three universities initially promoted the development of professional social work education. These were the University of Cape Town, which, in response to the poor white problem, offered a diploma course as early as 1924; the University of Stellenbosch, which established its degree course in 1932; and the University of Pretoria which created its Department of Sociology and Applied Sociology in 1931, in response to the activities of the Suid-Afrikaanse Vrouefederasie. Significantly, all three universities pre-empted the need for trained social workers well before the Carnegie report of 1934 recommended the use of scientifically trained welfare professionals (McKendrick, 1987:179).

The major recommendations of the Carnegie Report were:

- that a national statutory social welfare department be established to alleviate the situation of the poor whites;
- that university trained, professionally licensed staff be employed by this state welfare department;
- that universities receive sufficient funding so that an adequate social work faculty be established and maintained in order to carry out the necessary training of social workers (Carnegie Report 1932:xxxiii).

The Volkskongres held in Kimberley (1934), followed by the National Conference on Social Work (1936), became powerful lobbying grounds for 'marrying' state and university interests in fostering a developing profession.

The South African pioneers of social work education supported the scientific charity approach to social work, implying a particular method, moving away from mere relief to one of professional service (Coulter, 1929:1). One of the leading voices arguing for university trained social work professionals was the late Dr H F Verwoerd. He

appeared eager to link up social work university education with the state control of a national welfare department through the process of subsidizing welfare posts. This desire of Verwoerd may have been related to his developing profile as a leading political and, not only academic, figure. (His curriculum vitae included being a prominent member of the Broederbond, an exclusive Afrikaans organization which sought to foster Afrikaner Nationalism). At the same time, the international debate led by American and British educators concerning the place of social work preparation largely favoured a university based education (Leiby, 1988:325-326).

On the other hand, Professor Batson of the University of Cape Town argued against confining social work to the universities before patterns of service delivery and their acceptance were established. Batson is quoted as having said:

'to present a case for a close association between the Universities and Social Work is not to show that all social workers must be university trained. The concept of social work is too comprehensive... too opportunistic, the facilities for university education scarce, the supply of persons capable of benefiting from university life too restricted, for such a simple relationship to be at present attainable or perhaps even desirable' (Muller, 1965:51).

Batson's 'words of caution', which fell by the wayside at that time, have a special poignance for the present South African social work situation.

Nevertheless, Verwoerd's argument held sway. In a short space of time, the blueprint for South African social work, drafted in various schools of social work, modelled on American standards, moulded by South African politics and imbued with the Afrikaner ethos of responding to white needs, found its penultimate form.

'Thus, by 1936, directions for the purpose, nature and content of professional education for social work had been set. The purpose was to train skilled personnel to work with the white poor; the nature of the training was to produce a generic social worker, since the causes and consequences of poverty carried over into a wide number of life areas; and the content of education was to include the social science knowledge required by a 'scientific' social worker, as well as field training in the skills of social work' (McKendrick, 1937:180).

THE RESPONSES

A 'welfare' concern

Afrikaner women's organisations moved by the plight of the poor responded with 'charity'; mobilised the powerful Dutch Reformed Church, and stimulated concern in significant political quarters.

A 'politico-academic' concern

Professor H F Verwoerd, Sociology and Social Work professor with political aspirations inspired state involvement. The aim was to establish a welfare department with social workers as statutory investigating officers.

THE FOCUS OF CONCERN

'Poor Whites'

The major causes of indigency among whites were related to the changing economic and social structure rather than widespread personal inadequacies (Carnegie Commission findings as interpreted by McKendrick, 1937:12)

POLITICAL RELEVANCE

A welfare problem
with political potential
to suit the government of the day, i.e.
- an emotive single-issue lobby
- a 'captive' constituency of poor whites

ACADEMIC RELEVANCE

Universities have a 'raison de etre'
for the further development and
establishment of social
work courses

Figure 1 - The poor white problem and its welfare/political/academic relevance

3.2.2 Concern for minimum standards (1937-1939)

The National Welfare Conference (1936) had triggered off increasing interest in the training of social workers. Consequently such issues as the nature of course content, whether courses were to be given at degree level or not, whether psychology or sociology were to be the prescribed majors, and what the duration of the entire training period should be, became the focus of attention both for the new State Department of Social Welfare and for the training institutions.

In February 1938, the State Department of Social Welfare arranged a conference on the training of social workers (Hare and Hoffmann, 1987:7). At this conference, Mr J H Hofmeyr announced that the Department would subsidize the salaries of social work posts in the voluntary sector, by 75%. However, the conditions laid down by the Department were that 'qualifications and general suitability of a candidate for employment as a social worker met with the approval of the Department' (Notes of Conference in connection with the Training of Social Workers, in Hare and Hoffmann, 1987:7).

The aforementioned requirement presupposes that the State Department had some idea of what the approved qualifications of a social worker should be. However, it could also be that the state was only prepared to subsidize those social workers whose education and training conformed with the state's idea of social work.

The conference on the training of social workers not only provided the opportunity for announcing the Department's subsidy scheme but also stimulated two very important investigations. Brümmer (1964), representing the State Department, and Batson of the University of Cape Town, headed these enquiries into the nature of social work preparation provided at the eight social work training institutions (McKendrick, 1987:180). These twin investigations revealed widespread disparities in the overall standard of social work training given at these various institutions. The criteria against which Brümmer evaluated these various social work training courses were directly related to the subsidy norms set up by the Department (see Section 2.1.3).

The government's offer of subsidization may have, in a sense co opted training institutions into espousing national policy goals. Understandably, resistance from liberal-thinking quarters was to be expected. Other dynamics, surrounding such issues as academic freedom and the ideological differences apparent at various social work training centres, added much fuel to the tense debate concerning minimum standards. Nevertheless, social work educators, despite their differences, were mobilized into forming the South African Inter-University Committee for Social Studies in 1938. According to Helm (1964:10), the primary aims of this committee were geared towards promoting and facilitating the exchange of views between different social work training institutions. The issues to be dealt with concerned curricula, research, public relations and other professional dimensions of social work, and improving social studies in the Union.

This committee, representing the interests of professional social work education, later became known as the Joint Universities Committee on Social Work (JUC). Thus, some 'balance of interests' was duly achieved, with both the state and the JUC seeking to influence the 'minimum standards' debate. Should Government have the right to determine curriculum priorities through their pattern of funding? Needless to say this question is still able to raise considerable debate today.

3.2.3 Black social work training/white social work consolidation (1940-1958)

For various reasons already mentioned, the focus of professional social work training up until the 1940s had been on preparing white social workers to meet the needs of the white community.

Various training facilities for blacks only started developing in the 1940s, largely due to philanthropic, missionary and other church-related endeavours (McKendrick, 1987:182). Five training centres, catering for 'persons of colour' and offering diploma level training courses were established in various parts of the country. These were:

- The Minnie Hofmeyr Training Centre, established in 1931 and catering

for Coloured female social workers;

- The Jan Hofmeyr School of Social Work for 'non-Europeans' established in 1940 by the American Board Mission;
- The Strydom Training School for African social workers established in 1942 by the Dutch Reformed Church (Horrel, 1974:53); and
- Training centres opened at Mears and de Coligny (Transkei) (McKendrick, 1987:182).

McKendrick also notes that by 1960, these institutions were no longer operative (1987:182). Why these institutions were phased out could be due to the following reasons:

- (i) The state had for a long time been proposing alternative strategies for 'non-white' tertiary education as embodied in the Extension of University Education Act 1959.
- (ii) It is possible that the alternative and viable model of social work being offered at these institutions, particularly the Jan Hofmeyr School of Social Work, may have been perceived as a threat by those who argued for a university-based social work training (Marks, 1989:197).
- (iii) Also, the innovative Jan Hofmeyr curriculum outlines were ahead of the times, especially when viewed against the struggle of university social work departments jostling to gain academic recognition for their departmental autonomy (Marks, 1989:197).
- (iv) Fear of the status of the profession being lowered through non-university training.

Notwithstanding the forces which brought non-university black social work education to a halt, other than at the Minnie Hofmeyr Centre, white social work training continued to gain momentum.

The South African National Conference on the Post-War Planning of Social Welfare held in 1944 reaffirmed the generic nature of undergraduate social work education and its social service foundation (Muller,

1968:6). Two years later at another social work conference these aforementioned social work educational/training principles were once again endorsed. This conference also suggested that training be undertaken within the context of a three-year degree course; that a postgraduate education should be considered for specialized areas; and that an investigating committee review the training and employment of social workers (McKendrick, 1987:182-183).

The investigating committee subsequently presented its report in 1950. Two of its major findings were that social work posts had expanded phenomenally (probably due to the popular appeal of social work training as well as the special boost voluntary organizations received through the subsidy formula); and that social workers had been trained differently in terms of content and structure of courses at different training centres.

The main recommendations of this report reflected earlier stated social work training principles and resolutions taken at the previous conference.

Besides reiterating social workers' commitment to its generic undergraduate focus and its social science base, the report spelt out sociology, social work, psychology, social economics and a health-related subject as desirable compulsory subjects. The importance of field instruction, planned supervision, well developed field programmes and the extension of training centres was emphasized. Also, there appeared to be a growing concern over the training of black social workers. Diploma level education for blacks was to be expanded (McKendrick, 1987:183).

In summary then, the period 1940-1958 proved to be an important + or crystallizing the major features of social work education which continues to underlie present training. The focus was on refining and consolidating training for social workers at established universities. Black social work training appeared to be held in abeyance.

3.2.4 Stimulation of black professional training in a segregated context (1959-1969)

The period under survey was marked by increasing social engineering which was evidenced by Prime Minister Verwoerd's (1958-1966) preoccupation with Apartheid and with legislation designed specifically to control the country's black majority (Promotion of Black Self-Government Act, 1959).

Education proved to be a powerful arena in which apartheid manipulation could be exercised. The Eiselen Commission Report (1951) very clearly exposed the educational strategy of providing blacks with a brand of education which arrogantly presupposed the 'best fit' for the African culture (Rose and Tunmer, 1975:244-258). This report resulted in the Bantu Education Act of 1953 which prescribed a differential school education for Africans. Once control of African education at primary and secondary levels was achieved, government attention shifted towards the autonomous universities. Although the Holloway Commission Report focused on the administrative aspects of universities and not so much on apartheid in university training, it stimulated the formulation of the Extension of University Education Act of 1959. This Act heralded the government's attempts to provide separate university institutions for 'persons of colour' (Davenport, 1987:380). Hence, with these aims in mind the following developments took place:

- The University College of Fort Hare was placed under the control of the Minister of Bantu Education and reserved for African members of the Xhosa-speaking group;
- In 1960, two new university colleges were established - the University College of Zululand for African people belonging to the Zulu group; and the University College of the North (Turfloop) for Africans of Tswana, Sotho and Venda groups;
- The University College of the Western Cape was founded for Coloured people under the control of the Minister of Coloured Affairs;

- The University College of Durban was established for Indians, under the control of the Minister of Indian Affairs.

All the university colleges established for 'persons of colour' were directly subjected to government control, as contrasted with the white universities which maintained a greater measure of academic freedom via the Minister of National Education. Apartheid education transmitted through apartheid universities was thus founded on an ideological bias which upheld the government's policy of separate development. Segregation in education came to be justified through euphemisms such as 'separate but equal'; 'culturally sensitive' and stressing the 'ethnic, cultural, and language diversifications' of the 'many peoples' of South Africa.

3.2.5 Apartheid social work education: a critique

Notwithstanding the enormous cost of erecting and maintaining separate university facilities for 'persons of colour', segregated education was broadly justified on cultural and ideological grounds. Understandably, therefore, it was to be expected that these institutions would generate much tension and controversy. Some of the more notable tensions were:

- that 'persons of colour' had little choice regarding the kind of university they wanted to study at;
- that these 'ethnic' institutions were directly under government control which in turn, impinged on the scope of academic freedom enjoyed by these institutions;
- that the social work education and training initially given at these institutions was patterned on the curriculum of the University of South Africa, which at that time still had a strong therapeutic emphasis which suited First World rather than Third World needs (McKendrick, 1987:185);
- that students were suspicious about possible manipulation via course content presentation and were either reticent or discouraged from pursuing a more critical approach towards the establishment (Meyer,

1974:12-15) and that black social work students in particular, were not exposed to the same rich diversity and range of experiences in relation to practice placements and service resources as their white counterparts were. However, despite the aforementioned 'handicaps' which hampered learning in these segregated institutions, the number of African, Coloured and Indian social work graduates escalated rapidly.

Furthermore, these social work departments at these ethnic institutions have since made tremendous strides in their own growth and development. In this regard, the University of the Western Cape has established itself as the academic 'home for the left', and has taken up a challenging anti-apartheid stance (University of the Western Cape, Calendar: 1990; Small, 1987). Changes in faculty leadership and staff composition have also influenced the direction social work education has taken at these institutions. Social work departments appear to be adopting a more critical approach to social problems in the wider South African society (Mason, 1989:286). Undoubtedly international and internal pressure has also played its role in forcing schools of social work to commit themselves to a more democratic, egalitarian vision of social work practice.

Hence, these social work departments which emerged out of the stranglehold of 'apartheid reasoning' may hold exciting potential for the future growth and development of an authentic South African social work practice.

3.2.6 Further developments in social work education (1965-1979)

The fourteen years between 1965 and 1979 were turbulent ones in the socio-political development of South Africa. Large-scale resettlement manoeuvres left millions of blacks uprooted and unemployed. The government was making concerted attempts to stem the tide of urban influx and to cordon off blacks into their own homelands. The many voices of resistance were silenced through censorship, banning, arrests and detention. Student unrest was widespread, culminating in the Soweto riots of 1976 (Davenport, 1987; Gerhart, 1979). Against this historical

background, social work education and training was gradually undergoing a process of further refinement and consolidation which was modelled on Western standards.

Two important developments took place in 1965 which influenced the course of social work education. These were the investigation into social work education carried out by Annette Muller, and the implications of the new National Welfare Act which came into effect in 1965 (McKendrick, 1987:185-186). According to Muller (1965:189) the South African standard of generic undergraduate social work training compared favourably with Britain and the Netherlands (which are both highly urbanized and developed countries). It would appear that Muller overlooked the growing needs of South Africa's black population, or else made her recommendations in relation to white professional social work education and training. Muller recommended that the three-year course be extended by another year, failing which, a greater co-ordination of social work and science courses was deemed necessary. She also reported that in the absence of minimum standards, no consensus was apparent amongst the various training institutions as to basic course content.

The second major development of this period was the promulgation of the National Welfare Act of 1965 which had several implications. The two most important issues which directly affected social work education were:

- (i) the Act required that teachers of social work be registered social workers;
- (ii) provision was made for the protection of the title 'registered social worker', implying that only those persons who had completed an approved educational course could be registered.

Hence, this Act ensured the quality of social work teaching by insisting on registration. Registration of social workers was, on the other hand, tied up with the State's idea of an approved educational course. Thus, this development may be viewed as another attempt by the State to influence minimum standards.

Registration was permitted to such persons who had:

'satisfied all requirements for a Bachelor's degree or for a diploma at any university or college in the Republic after pursuing a course of study for that degree or diploma of not less than three years, which included not less than three courses in social work and either not less than three courses in sociology and not less than two courses in psychology, or not less than three courses in psychology and not less than two courses in sociology' (Government Gazette, Notice R1249; 1965).

Thus, for the first time a core curriculum was legislated.

Another important development during this period was the initiation of a Committee of Inquiry into Separate Legislation for the Social Work Profession, set in motion by the Deputy Minister of Social Welfare and Pensions. This decision came in the wake of a fast growing profession (by 1965 there were 3,728 registered social workers); a feeling that the profession had come of age; and a need for a regulatory structure to monitor the profession.

The Committee, comprising senior social workers and social work educators, published its report in 1976. This report was of singular significance for the profession as a whole, but more so for social work education. The committee proposed the creation of a statutory Social Work Council which would be responsible for regulating the social work profession, including the establishment of accreditation requirements.

3.2.7 The Council for Social and Associated Workers (established 1980)

The Social and Associated Workers Act of 1978 made provision for a statutory, non-racial Council for Social and Associated Workers. Registered social workers elected two-thirds of its members and the rest were appointed by the Minister of Social Welfare and Pensions.

It is to be expected that some measure of tension would exist between the official regulating body of a profession and the professional

constituency that it represents. This situation is further exacerbated by the reality of a fragmented fraternity, divided along racial and ideological lines (see Section 2.1.5).

In this regard, the President of the Council for Social and Associated Workers has made a plea for unity despite the obvious political, cultural, religious and language differences (Newsletter, August 1988, 7(2):5-9).

3.2.7.1 The Activities of the Council

In keeping with the Council's objects (Social and Associated Workers Act of 1978), the Council made the following far-reaching decisions:

- As from 1st January 1987, the Council ruled that four years would constitute the basic training period and that only those social workers who had successfully completed the required extended training would be eligible for registration as from 1991.
- As from 1989, it brought into effect a registration system for social work students in the second and subsequent years of study.
- In 1989, the Council embarked on a study to determine more detailed minimum standards of tuition and training for all courses of social work preparation.

Whilst the positive effects of these decisions are recognizable in that the quality of training in social work would be secured, the negative impact of over-regulation which stifles educational creativity should also be considered.

3.2.8 Social work education in the last ten years (1979-1989)

Major factors which influenced this past decade were:

- international pressure in the form of economic, political, cultural and academic sanctions;

- internal pressure as evidenced by increasing township violence, widespread unrest, guerilla warfare, bannings, detentions and the declaration of the state of emergency.

Social work education and training was also caught up in this tumultuous sequence of events. Social work educators, social work practitioners, and student social workers were forced to confront the predominant social issues of the day.

The International Schools of Social Work, by placing pressure on South African schools of social work forced these schools to rethink their mission statements and to take a stand against apartheid. Also, the Joint Universities Committee representing all the South African schools of social work has been challenged both from within its own ranks and from without (Mason, 1989:286).

Social work practitioners and educators at all levels have been challenged on such issues as relevant/appropriate social work strategies in a changing time (McKendrick, 1990; Patel, 1988; Small 1987; Cohen, 1984).

Executive social work personnel and leading practitioners have established an anti-apartheid forum concerning itself with more appropriate responses to South African practice needs (Agoss, May 1989).

Not only have conferences, research publications and journal articles taken up the anti-apartheid cudgels, but alternative social service structures have mushroomed all over the country (Patel and Taback, 1989). These new structures are committed to a democratic and non-racial future South Africa and emphasize a service delivery which is appropriate and relevant to the needs of its clientele.

At the same time conservative social work elements have sought to halt the change process. This feature is understandable in a confusing time of rapid change since some forces would want to hold on to the known and tried and tested ways of doing social work. In these unsettling but

challenging times the Council for Social Work has indicated a sense of urgency regarding accreditation requirements and the setting of minimum standards. However, as McKendrick noted in this regard, it may be wiser in times of flux to carefully 'test the waters' and observe how patterns of service delivery are evolving before stringent regulations are laid down (1989:250).

3.2.9 Summary

It would appear that the accelerated development of social work education and training was inextricably linked up with the State's strategy to alleviate white needs. Academic ambitions for recognition of social work's professional preparation dovetailed with political and welfare motivations to eradicate white poverty. Schools of social work adopted educational strategies which were based on Western-styled approaches to training. The State's idea of welfare as embodied in the subsidy norms and subsequent welfare legislation favoured a therapeutically oriented, First World approach to social service delivery. Thus the South African social services evolved with a distinct therapeutic orientation and schools of social work equipped their graduates accordingly. However, in the present-day context, black needs and Third World developmental issues have come to the fore, largely as a result of anti-apartheid pressure groups (internally and internationally).

In this present climate of change, it is highly unlikely that white welfare needs will remain a privileged priority. It is more likely that the welfare needs of all South Africans will gain precedence, with the developmental needs of the black majority receiving urgent attention. It is conceivable therefore, that the focus of social work activity should include both therapeutic and developmental aspects. Schools of social work would have to devise curricula to meet the challenges of a future South African social work practice. Thus curriculum planning and in particular, curriculum building could be viewed as an important locus for educational change strategies. With this aim in mind, the importance of curriculum building in social work education will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

CURRICULUM BUILDING IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

4.1 Introduction: a general overview

'Curriculum' comes from 'curre' (Latin) which means to run [a course]. The Pocket Oxford Dictionary describes curriculum as being an 'appointed course of study' (1978:202). This course of study presupposes some measure of planning and strategy in keeping with objectives and goals (Guzzetta, 1984:44). Setting out the strategies and objectives which guide curriculum design is not a mere technical exercise carried out in a neutral context (Freire, 1985; Van den Berg 1985; Guzzetta, 1984; Hokenstad, 1982; Maurice, 1981; Molteno, 1981).

It is reasonable to assume that any country's educational policy will in some measure reflect that country's overall national policy (Republic of South Africa: Interim Memorandum on the Report of the Human Sciences Research Council on the Inquiry into the Provision of Education in the RSA, 1981; Molteno, 1981). In South Africa the dominant controlling ideology of apartheid has been allowed to influence every facet of social living, particularly that of education (Mphahlele, 1978:3901).

It would appear that education has been used by those in power as a channel through which a particular understanding of reality is taught: a reality defined for social, economic and political purposes. In this regard, Bernstein states:

'How a society selects, classifies, distributes, transmits and evaluates the educational knowledge it considers to be public, reflects both the distribution of power and the principles of social control' (1971:47).

4.2 The aims of professional education

Already in 1954, Towle enunciated five aims for professional social work education. These aims, which still hold true today, are as follows:

- (i) To develop in students the capacity to think critically and analytically and to synthesize and generalize (1954:6).
- (ii) To develop feelings and attitudes that will make it possible for

the student to think and act appropriately (1954:8).

- (iii) To develop a capacity for establishing a sustaining, purposeful, working relationship (1954:9).
- (iv) To help the prospective practitioners develop a 'social consciousness and social conscience' (1954:10).
- (v) To ensure that students be oriented to the place of their profession in the society in which it operates (1954:16).

According to Towle's aims for professional social work education and training, learning objectives were certainly not narrowly circumscribed, in that aims (iv) and (v) specifically relate to the broader, macro realities of developing a social awareness and of contextualizing professional practice.

These professional aims have a strong value base. As principles they serve as practical guidelines. When curricula are developed in accordance with such guidelines their course objectives should, in part, reflect these wider aims. However, the manner in which these aims are interpreted and passed on to students is open to wide subjective variations. For example, an educator with a neo-Marxist orientation finding himself in a capitalist/competitive society which has influenced the style of social service delivery, will attribute a different meaning to a social analysis of that society in comparison to an educator who favours a capitalist/competitive society. Ultimately, it is assumed that the integrity of the educator will ensure that students' minds are opened and not indoctrinated.

4.3 The curriculum debate

4.3.1 The dynamic nature of curricula

'Social work curricula will inevitably change in the next decade and probably in profound ways in response to economic, political and theoretical contexts of practice and research...' (European Regional Group, 1983:13).

The dynamic, changing nature of any societal context is bound to impact on social work curricula and this process is what gave rise to the

American comprehensive, thirteen volume, Social Work Curriculum Study Report of 1959, edited by Boehm.

Bisno describes how the following factors gave impetus to this study:

- a society in ferment
- the emergence of a National Association of Social Workers
- the shortage of trained social workers
- the increased incidence of certain types of problems
- the criticism of the efficiency and effectiveness of particular social work practices and
- the relatively limited use of social workers in formulating welfare policy (Vol. II, 1959:4).

It is interesting to note how all these factors, descriptive of the American society at that time, are also applicable to South African society today (with the exception of one single National Association for Social Workers).

Given a similar contextual reality of ferment, flux, of questioning traditional patterns of service delivery in the light of new needs, the time may also be ripe for a South African national social work curriculum study to be launched. Such a study may be expedient in the light of changes towards a more democratic and non-racial society.

4.3.2 The international perspective

In the Eighties, conferences and international surveys revealed some disillusionment by the Third World countries with the Western approach to social work education and training (Kendall, 1986; Cohen, 1984; Midgley, 1981). For example, Kendall quotes the Tanzanian social work model as being an evolutionary one, adopting a developmental framework and moving towards rural transformation as its primary objective (1986:16-20). The curriculum of the Tanzanian social work model has been influenced by national objectives which espouse socialism.

In most of the developing countries, the emphasis appears to be on developmental social work such as adult education, rural self-help projects, family planning and community building, rather than on

therapeutic, individualized work (Quiroz-Martin 1986; Cohen 1984; Midgley, 1981).

However, some authors argue against a clear-cut dichotomy between a therapeutic and a developmental approach since therapeutically oriented skills and practices (e.g. casework) could be used within a developmental framework (Burgest, 1983; Lasan, 1981).

Thus indigenization does not necessarily mean throwing out all western approaches and theories but does involve a careful analysis of suitable theoretical frameworks and of necessary adaptations. Clearly some forms of social work will evolve which are unique to conditions prevailing in a given society, for example, rural or urban social work.

From the preceding discussions it would seem that social work cannot and should not be reduced to a purely scientific act. Social work may be viewed as a cultural affair (Small, 1987:11). Ultimately, social work is a fully human affair embracing the spiritual, cultural, political, economic, and social dimensions of human life. Although based upon a scientific foundation, the practice of social work is an art. Hence, the social work curriculum will have features of both science and art.

4.4 Principles of curriculum construction: A critique

Certain philosophical and pedagogical approaches influence the manner in which a curriculum is constructed. Defining the educational goals which guide curriculum construction can in some cases be problematic. How a goal is defined is dependent to some extent upon the nature of the outcome. For example, the goal of medieval monastic education was largely directed towards spiritual salvation and such a goal could not be defined through the techniques used to define the goal of becoming a good plumber (Travers, 1987: 29). Travers discusses two ways of defining educational objectives, that is, by means of an analytic approach, and by means of a literary approach (1987:29-41).

The analytic approach has, as its underlying assumption, the belief that goals can be broken down into behavioural components and analyzed. This approach attempts to clarify what learners should be able to do after achieving the objective, or while still in the process of learning.

Ralph Tyler is a leading exponent of this approach (1950). Some of the major arguments against this approach are that it is embedded in 'logical-positivism', that is, a philosophical model long since outdated; that it does not connect its educational objectives to a comprehensive statement of theory; and finally, that it fails to creatively incorporate Piaget's developmental insights into its learning sequences (Travers, 1987:34-40).

An opposing set of assumptions to curriculum design is embodied in the literary approach. This approach is based on sound literary skill and assumes that good literary description is the best technique for describing what mastery of an educational goal should mean (Travers, 1987:30). The work of John Dewey is a classic example of this approach to curriculum design. His manner of defining educational goals is a unique blend of descriptive imagery and developmental insights forged into a coherent statement of theory. Extracts from 'My Pedagogic Creed' provide such an example.

I believe that education cannot be unified in the study of science or so-called nature study because apart from human activity, nature itself is not a unity, nature in itself is a number of diverse objects in space and time, and to attempt to make it the centre of work by itself, is to introduce a principle of radiation rather than one of concentration.

I believe that literature is the reflex expression and interpretation of social experience; that hence it must follow upon and not precede such experience, it therefore, cannot be made the basis although it may be the summary of unification.

I believe once more that history is of educative value in so far as it presents phases of social life and growth, it must be controlled by reference to social life. When taken simply as history it is thrown into the distant past and becomes dead and inert. Taken as the record of man's social life and progress it becomes full of meaning.

I believe, however, that it cannot be so taken excepting as the child is also introduced directly into social life. I believe accordingly that the primary basis of education is in the child's powers at work along the same general constructive lines as those which have brought civilization into being.

...I believe that the study of science is educational in so far as it brings out the materials and processes which make social life what it is (Dewey, 1897:89-90).

25:10

However, despite the apparent richness of the literary approach, the analytic approach gained precedence. Some of the reasons for an analytic preference may well be that it created an impression of being a more scientific approach; that a seemingly logical framework for curriculum design was favoured above the more fluid, developmentally inspired literary method; and that Tyler's model, as an example of the analytic approach, was popularly pursued and advocated as a means for developing curricula (Travers, 1987: 34-36).

Social Work education and training appears to have become moulded by a Tylerian approach to curriculum design (Boehm, 1959; Comaroff, 1987). Guzzetta points out that Tyler's principles, seemingly neutral, fit a Western style of thinking which may not be appropriate in other regions (1984:44). He similarly highlights the dangers of educational objectives which explicitly seek ideological conformity. One such example is Freire's approach to education as a means to liberate the masses from oppressive forces (Guzzetta, 1984:45).

Despite the pros and cons of Tyler's model, his four questions have become a 'credo' for educators seeking points of departure for their curriculum planning (Tyler, 1959). These questions are:

- (i) What educational purposes should the schools seek to attain?
- (ii) What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
- (iii) How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
- (iv) How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

These four statements could therefore serve as orientating guidelines irrespective of which philosophical/pedagogical approach is ultimately adopted.

Perhaps it would be expedient in the light of South Africa's history of

education (Rose and Tunmer, 1975) to respond to Tyler's key questions in the following manner:

- (i) Educational purposes in the South African context should not be used as channels through which an Apartheid ideology is taught and endorsed.

'When I have control of Native Education, I will reform it so that Natives will be taught from childhood to realize that equality with Europeans is not for them' (Verwoerd addressing Senate in the 1950s: as quoted by De Villiers, 1979:63).

- (ii) Planned educational experiences which are geared towards the full unfolding of human potential should not be biased in favour of any racial, language, cultural or religious group. All students would benefit from carefully planned curricula taught by suitably qualified teachers in an environment conducive to learning (Rose and Tunmer, 1975; Sprocas Economics Commission Report, 1972:41-42).

'In a country like South Africa it is not sufficient that mutual respect and toleration as between different groups should be practised in the education system. They must be manifestly seen and known to be practised. Except where there is a very long and very solid tradition of toleration, suspicions of discrimination or bad faith are very likely to arise, and the more so where governments tend to represent one group only' (1961 Education Panel, First Report, as quoted by Rose and Tunmer, 1975:71).

- (iii) The careful structural organization of educational experiences would have to take into account the historical antecedents which have contributed to an unequal, biased educational system which favoured the white group over and above blacks. Thus, it would be essential that educators 'begin where students are at' and build curricula accordingly.

'Unequal pupil:teacher ratios, the use of double sessions in black schools, inequalities in the provision of textbooks; and discrimination in the salaries paid to teachers are all further features of an educational system which operates blatantly to the advantage of whites...' (Randall, 1972:42).

- (iv) Evaluation of the educational experience is an important quality-control prerequisite. Needless to say, measuring educational effectiveness in a fast-changing society is fraught with much difficulty. Educators would need to be more flexible as regards old base-lines, since educational needs are constantly changing (Midgley et al., 1986:70-86).

These statements are applicable both to the wider educational sphere as well as to the sphere of social work education in particular. It is apparent that careful curriculum construction could serve as a powerful reparative strategy to remedy past educational abuses (Midgley et al., 1986).

In this regard, Small suggests the following orientating principles as guidelines for a new social work paradigm in South Africa, and hence also for the design and nature of the social work curriculum.

- (i) 'consciousness of the necessity for construction' - a principle which implies a clearly formulated orientation towards constructing something new as distinct from the old, separatistic, racially-defined mode of thinking;
- (ii) 'against method' - a principle which, while accepting the legitimacy of the various methods of social work, does not support the technical use of skills and techniques at the expense of understanding the clients' persona.
- (iii) 'social work as a sub-species of philosophy'. Small justifies this principle by philosophically arguing that social work as a helping discipline is an indispensable part of human life (1987:10).

From the preceding discussion, it would appear that new assumptions are being articulated as a challenge to redefine the meaning of social work in a changing South African society (Marks, 1989:208-209). Who articulates these assumptions and for what purposes are important

considerations. Whose idea of the new, just, good or better society will prevail? The answer lies embedded in a complex web of political, economic and social forces. It is to be hoped the professional social work education will not be hesitant in developing its own critique about that 'better' South African society and that it will harness all its creative potential to pursue its mission (McKendrick, 1990; Marks, 1989; Patel, 1987).

Hannah Arendt, in the following words, urges all educators to rise to that challenge implicit in the whole process of education:

'Education is the point at which we decide whether we love the world enough to assume responsibility for it and by the same token save it from the ruin which, except for renewal, except for the coming of the new and young, would be inevitable. And education, too, is where we decide whether we love our children enough to expel them from our world and leave them to their own devices, nor to strike from their hand their chance of making something new, something unforeseen by us, but to prepare them in advance for the task of renewing a common world' (1963:196).

4.5 Curriculum analysis

Various studies have attempted to develop models for social work curriculum analysis: starting with the massive thirteen volume curriculum study edited by Boehm (1959) right through to more concise studies, for example, Alfred Stamm's Analysis of Undergraduate Social Work Programmes (1971) and in the more recent past, i.e. the eighties, the insights of Seipel (1986); Sheafor et al. (1985); Guzzetta (1984) and Hokenstad (1982).

The design of the thirteen volume curriculum study was based on two assumptions: firstly, that the curriculum should be looked at in its entirety and secondly, that Tyler's principles for curriculum design would guide the study (Boehm, 1959).

Some of the themes connected with the Boehm study were as follows:

- The curriculum should be seen as a whole and schools should ensure interrelationships among the parts;

- the practice of social work is based on social functioning at the interface between the individual and environment;
- theories in the sciences and social sciences should be carefully selected and adapted to suit social work needs;
- the importance of research in the curriculum;
- the development of a strong commitment to the profession with an articulation of its generic nature, together with an acknowledgement of its five methods, that is, casework, group work, community work, administration and research;
- the importance of a continuum through the differing levels of social work education.

Alfred Stamm (1972) analyzed the undergraduate social work programme by screening it through the following framework:

- (i) its educational objectives
- (ii) the nature of its liberal arts base and support course
- (iii) the actual duration and programme size of social work courses
- (iv) its field instruction component, that is,
 - student involvement
 - structure
 - credentials of field and seminar faculty sequence of courses and field instruction
- (v) its programme structure, that is,
 - programme designation
 - size of faculty
 - student-faculty ratio
 - recognition of graduates
 - programme-agency liaison
- (vi) its student counselling facility
- (vii) acculturation of students
- (viii) demographic aspects - in relation to location and community it served
- (ix) other collaborative programmes.

Stamm's approach is commendable in its clear-cut, objective methodology based on Tyler. However, Stamm's model for analysis, besides presenting the important logistics of the curriculum, yields very little about the

dynamics of the curriculum. It does not address questions such as: What kind of overall image is the school projecting through its curriculum?; Which pedagogical principles underlie course construction and why?; Does the curriculum show evidence of being future-oriented or is it rooted in retrospective analysis?. These questions relate to clarifying the meaning of the curriculum before a rational framework is to be formulated.

Other approaches to curriculum analysis include:

- (i) Seipil's study (1986) of social welfare curriculum which was directed at co-ordinators of policy sequence programmes. He found very little consensus among educators as to what the content and duration of policy courses should be. Despite curriculum policy guidelines and accreditation requirements, a laissez-faire doctrine appeared to be evident.
- (ii) Sheafor et al's New Zealand study (1985), which focused on content analysis using a content validation technique, that is, by evaluating social work job activities (using a job analysis questionnaire) against curriculum content, a 'goodness of fit' could be tested. The potential of this methodology as a powerful curriculum development tool has become apparent, since it highlights similarities and differences between curriculum content and the current needs of practice.
- (iii) McKendrick's (1980) and van Rooyen's (1986) South African studies, which were undertaken for different purposes. McKendrick in his study examined curricula in the light of manpower needs, whilst van Rooyen analyzed curricula for the purposes of establishing minimum requirements for the accreditation and registration of social workers.
- (iv) Guzzetta's (1984) study which was to develop a model for social work curriculum analysis, took six dimensions into account. This model provided a cogent, holistic framework which will be discussed in detail.

4.5.1 Guzzetta's model

Guzzetta's analytic model is based on the following six indicators:

- (i) Culture
 - exotic
 - indigenous
- (ii) Attitude (relation to time)
 - prospective
 - retrospective
- (iii) Mode (nature of action)
 - dynamic
 - static
- (iv) Scope (units of attention)
 - particular
 - comprehensive
- (v) Penetration (depth of study)
 - survey
 - profound
 - exemplar
- (vi) Construction
 - linear
 - holistic
 - thematic

These indicators will be discussed more fully later on. According to Guzzetta, even though a curriculum is always a social, political and cultural statement, it also comprises neutral elements:

'The central task in creating a framework or model for curriculum analysis and comparison is to isolate those characteristics which are common to all curricula and which remain themselves objective and neutral while accommodating a range of contrasting and even conflicting contexts. These aspects of characteristics must be applicable to all curricula, providing the basis for similarity and correspondence necessary for comparison. However, they also must embody the potential for ideological and cultural uniqueness necessary to protect the integrity of the curricula under analysis' (Guzzetta, 1984:45).

Although Guzzetta outlines six indicators for curriculum analysis, the

cultural indicator refers to the context rather than the curriculum itself.

(i) The cultural context

Some of the cultural aspects to be considered in setting the context of a curriculum are:

- the status and function of social work
- the predominant ideologies (economic, political and religious)
- the role and functions of professional organizations, and the availability and the kinds of resources.

Understanding the context of the curriculum will provide important insights as to what a curriculum is expected to accomplish (Guzzetta, 1984:46-47).

In analyzing the cultural aspects of a curriculum it is important to ascertain whether the culture represented by the curriculum is indigenous or exotic. Problems may arise in defining what is indigenous and/or exotic. A broad distinction may be made in the sphere of literature: 'imported' literature from outside the continent, e.g. America and Europe may be labelled as exotic; whilst literature emanating out of Africa may be viewed as indigenous (Africana). However, this distinction does not take cognizance of other cultural subtleties abounding in South African society.

The other five aspects of analysis, the attitude, mode, scope, penetration and construction are directly related to the curriculum.

The principles which underlie these elements are concerned with identifying and making explicit what is mostly taken for granted. These elements through which curricula are screened, may be screened for differing purposes. For example, an analysis which seeks to find similarities and/or differences with other curricula is different from an analysis undertaken for purposes of evaluation.

(ii) The attitude of the curriculum

The attitude indicator refers to the curriculum's time orientation. Does it reveal a prospective or a retrospective attitude?

A prospective curriculum is aimed at the future and emphasizes planning. It seeks to assist students in a realistic assessment of social needs and in the development of programmes to meet those needs. On the other hand, a retrospective curriculum is focused on the past and has evaluation as a major emphasis. A retrospective approach may be interpreted as being cautious and conservative, whilst the prospective orientation may be deemed to be progressive and in keeping with the times. However, the past may yield indispensable lessons on which future programmes could be meaningfully developed.

(iii) The curriculum mode

The curriculum mode refers to the nature of action implicit in a curriculum, that is, is it static or dynamic? A dynamic mode of curriculum would instil in students the sense that they are active participants in the building and shaping of society; whilst a static mode would seek to equip students with an objective stance of analysis, and with ways of influencing those in power, rather than take action themselves.

(iv) The scope of the curriculum

The scope of the curriculum refers to its selection of units of attention, that is, whether it is to be particular or comprehensive. Clearly the nature, duration and breadth of the course will influence the course designer's decisions regarding scope. Some course sequences need to be presented in a comprehensive manner to enable the student to gain an understanding of the total subject matter largely through a process of deductive learning.

A curriculum which adopts a particular perspective is concerned with more detail around a specific area of study. Course sequences which are particular, usually adopt specific applications and thereafter seek generalizations through a process of inductive reasoning. Case studies are an example of such an approach.

The scope of a curriculum suggests a specialist or generalist orientation to the profession as a whole.

(v) Penetration of the curriculum

Penetration refers to how deeply the content in a curriculum is examined. Does the curriculum show evidence of a survey, profound or exemplar approach?

The survey approach seeks to cover as much ground as possible in response to the 'knowledge explosion'. This approach represents the curriculum designer's decision for breadth.

Quite opposite to this, is the profound approach. The idea motivating this approach is to gain a thorough understanding of selected areas of study and to examine them in detail. Thus while the survey approach may be described as extensive, the profound approach is intensive, suggesting greater depth.

The exemplar approach seeks to gain the benefits of both the survey and profound approaches, attempting at the same time to minimize the shortcomings. A main feature of the exemplar approach is the selection of 'core samples' in order to determine the composition of a large mass (Guzzetta, 1984:49).

(vi) Construction of the curriculum

Construction refers to the basis on which the overall curriculum is built. It may be described as the programme skeleton from which content is hung, and it also determines what is to be included and how. Three forms of curricular construction, that is, linear, holistic and thematic will be discussed.

The linear approach organizes curriculum along a rational time-line. This approach is commonly adopted for presentation of historical content or in the discussion of human development, for example, the birth to old age sequence.

The holistic approach seeks to develop a highly integrated curriculum in which all parts relate to each other and are mutually supportive. Some programmes may, for instance, seek to convey a distinctive psychological orientation whilst others may adopt a predominantly sociological approach. Also, schools may opt for developmental rather than

therapeutic concentrations in their courses. According to Guzzetta, schools which aspire to a holistic construction try to maintain their overall image by selectively choosing content which supports the major integrating idea and by excluding contrary information as irrelevant.

The thematic approach organizes content according to selected topics or themes which may relate to each other or to major areas of social work activity.

In summary, these five aspects are by no means exhaustive. They have special reference to analyzing a specific curriculum rather than an entire programme. Other models may be more effective for wider comparisons (for example, comparing curricula in different countries). This model could be adopted by South African schools of social work in an attempt to analyze the social work curriculum content. Such an analysis would provide educators with an understanding of their school's approach to social work training; the kind of image they are projecting; the kind of practice they are preparing their graduates for; and will clarify the school's meaning of social work in a given context.

This model of analysis would also aid educators in clarifying their own assumptions. Points of dissonance and of collaboration with other educators involved in the same programme may become apparent. Educators may agree to disagree or arrive at a consensus about how course sequences could dovetail with each other in relation to a specific dimension (e.g. political, economic).

Guzzetta stresses that this model seeks to classify and understand curricula, rather than to pinpoint strong and weak areas. It is to be used as a tool for understanding how curricula are organized. Guzzetta's model (see Figure 2 overleaf) will be used as a 'key' to understanding the construction and nature of the Wits fourth year of social work education and training, presented in Chapter 5.

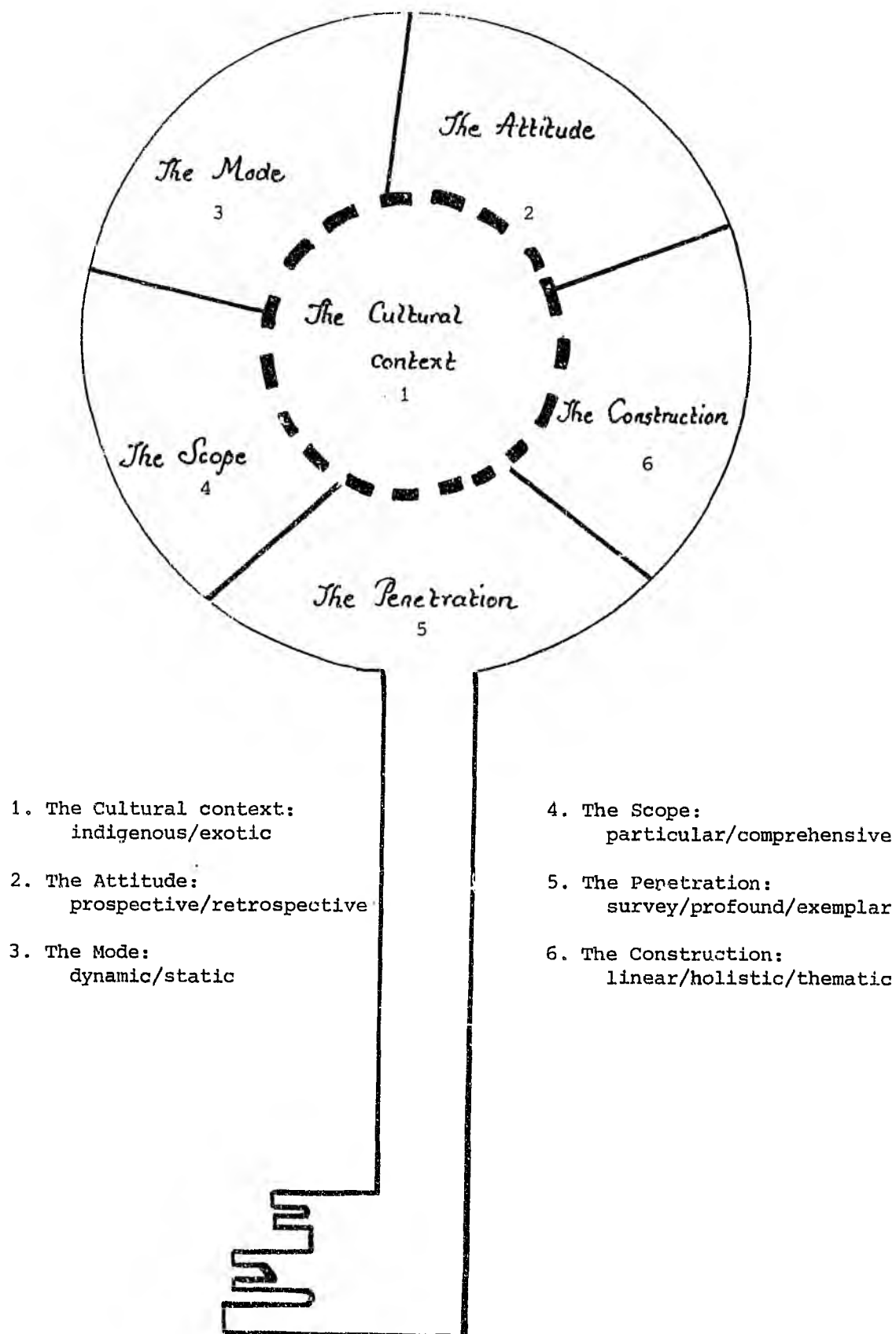


Figure 2 - Guzzetta's Model - a key to understanding the nature of the curriculum

CHAPTER 5

SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE FOURTH YEAR CURRICULUM

5.1 Social work education: an introduction

The earlier Chapters 1, 2 and 3 have highlighted how societal forces have shaped South African social work education. Despite relative autonomy to pursue some measure of academic freedom, university education has not escaped the influence of those who have the power, the privilege and the political leverage. The historical beginnings of the University of the Witwatersrand bear witness to this fact (Murray, 1982). Hence, the first part of this chapter describes the School of Social Work and its programmes in current and historical context as a background to an analysis of the fourth year curriculum.

5.2 The admission policy of the University of the Witwatersrand

'A study of admissions policies indicates that at its inception Wits very much reflected the prejudices of the society to which it belonged' (Murray 1982:298). Even though Wits never officially adopted a policy of excluding students on the basis of colour, such persons were not initially encouraged (Murray, 1982:298-317). It was only in the late 1930s that Wits adopted a more open admissions policy and this was directly related to a change in government which ushered in a new Minister of Education, Jan Hofmeyr. Nevertheless, despite financial and political pressure on Wits to refrain from challenging the status quo, the University has from this time forward reiterated its firm anti-apartheid stance (Facts on Wits, 1990:21-22; United Against Apartheid, September 1989; Wits Speaks Out, September 1988). Also, a clear statement of values and objectives has done much to clarify the Wits policy (see Appendix A:209). In addition, selection procedures which have placed blacks at an unfair disadvantage have been addressed and academic support programmes have been initiated to assist disadvantaged students.

5.3 The philosophy of the Wits School of Social Work

The Wits School of Social Work reflected the wider philosophy of the

University in its approach to student admissions. However, concerted attempts to attract black students gained impetus only in the late 1970s as evidenced by the relatively large number of black students who enrolled for the newly established postgraduate Higher Diploma programme.

Subsequently, over the past decade, more and more black students have been seeking admission to the social work programme.

The present Head of the School of Social Work, Professor B W McKendrick captured the spirit of the School in articulating its basic tenets (Opening Address, Wits School of Social Work, Golden Jubilee Conference, June 1987). These tenets may be summarized as follows:

- (i) The objective of social work education and training at the Wits School of Social Work is to prepare graduates with beginning competence for possible entry into relevant social work practice.
- (ii) The Wits School of Social Work rejects ideologies which promote sexism, racism or any kind of discrimination based on religion, national origin, culture or political affiliation.
- (iii) The Wits School of Social Work directs its energies into addressing four major areas which are considered central to a country's well-being in a developing society. These focal areas are:
 - the family, as the basic unit of a country and a nation
 - the school as the child's preparation ground to meet future challenges;
 - the work-place as the hub of economic and creative activity; and
 - the sphere of health care, since the emotional, social, intellectual and economic pursuits of individuals and communities are inextricably linked with sufficient and adequate health resources.
- (iv) The Wits School of Social Work espouses a multi-disciplinary approach in its education and training. It believes in the

profession's unique identity and purpose but at the same time realizes that a co-operative liaison with allied professions should be actively encouraged and nurtured.

5.3.1 The application of the School's basic philosophy

Translating guiding principles into practice is invariably a difficult task. The South African situation places heavier demands on schools of social work concerned with a more just and equal society. The prevailing apartheid ideology has corroded and fragmented crucial areas of living, for example:

- Family life has been seriously endangered and in many instances broken down as a direct result of forced removals, the system of migrant labour and other forms of economic exploitation which have received government sanction in the past (TRAC Newsletters, April - May, 1986; Platzky and Walker, 1986).
- Education in South Africa has had different goals for whites and for blacks. The standard and quality of education for white school children were aimed at the full unfolding of their potential, and this was reflected in adequate school space; sufficient equipment and available textbooks; suitably qualified teachers; state subsidization for schooling costs and the principle of compulsory education. However, the standard and quality of black education reflected a neglect of the aforementioned important considerations (Engelbrecht and Nieuwenhuis, 1988:167-168; Randall, 1972:42).
- The work-place has been the focal area of black exploitation. Job reservation practices, unfair dismissals and low wages were and still are rife today. Only recently in the past decade, have Trade Unions been able to address these issues with some measure of success (Frankel et al., 1988; Bozzoli, 1987; Jaffee and Jochelson, 1986:51-78).
- South Africa's lack of adequate health services recently reached crisis proportions, and fall far short of meeting primary health needs (Owen, 1988; De Beer, 1984; Seedat, 1984).

Thus, if the Wits School of Social Work is aiming to train its graduates to work effectively in these four main arenas, then the challenges which lie ahead are manifold. Graduates will also have to address policy issues which have a crippling effect on areas of social living. They would have to respond with meaningful strategies to address both 'systemic' and 'symptomatic' social issues.

5.4 A brief historical overview of the Wits School of Social Work

Hare and Hoffmann in their book Social Work Education at Wits (1987), have reviewed the historical development of social work education at this School, providing valuable insights into the personalities and events which have played a major role in shaping the very ethos of the present School of Social Work. In order to be concise, only the most salient historical features will be highlighted in relation to the duration of social work training, curriculum content, fieldwork development, research and the School's concern with increasing the representativeness of its student body.

5.4.1 The duration of social work studies

Four years of undergraduate social work training appeared to be the norm already from the earliest years at Wits (1937-1982).

For the first ten years, both degree and diploma courses in social studies (as it was called at the time), were conferred (Hare and Hoffmann, 1987:160-163). Variations in the duration of the training became prominent in the late Seventies, when curriculum adaptations were made in the light of changing South African needs.

In 1977, the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice was introduced and five years later the four-year degree was phased out to make place for the '3+1' option. This meant a three-year generic undergraduate training culminating in a BA (Social Work) degree, which was followed by a one-year postgraduate training, that is, BA (Social Work) Honours degree or a Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice. (Departmental Review, 1983-1988:4).

Currently, students are being prepared through a re-introduced four-year basic undergraduate degree, in keeping with the regulations as laid out

by the Council for Social Workers. The Council has decided that, as from 1991, only those graduates with a unitary four-year undergraduate preparation will qualify for registration (Departmental Review 1983-1986:6). The quality of the generic base of professional training will undoubtedly be reinforced by a compulsory extra year. On the other hand, the '3+1' option already successfully 'tested out' by Wits has proved its worth in practice (Departmental Review, 1983-1988:7). Meeting South Africa's unique blend of First and Third World needs would, however, need careful planning as regards meaningful and appropriate educational strategies.

5.4.2 Curriculum development milestones

The original social studies curriculum had no social work majors at its outset. This situation reflected the state of professional training for social work which was very much in its infancy stages. By the mid-1950s social work courses were further refined and consolidated and eventually emerged in their new found maturity in the early Sixties. The period 1968-1973 was marked by notable curriculum changes. The major subject in the third year was reduced to a choice between Psychology III and Sociology III, together with Social Work III. The Social Work III course was enriched by including a sequence on 'Human Behaviour and the Social Environment'.

By 1979, further academic developments had taken place - the training was restructured so as to provide a three-year Bachelors degree followed by Honours or Higher Diploma study in five fields of specialization.

The curriculum for the Honours and Diploma students was as follows:

Curriculum

- (i) Social Work with Individuals, Groups and Communities
- (ii) Social Work Research, Professional Education and Supervision
- (iii) *As per selected specialized field of theory and practice (see overleaf)
- (iv) *As per selected specialized field of theory and practice (see overleaf)

- (v) Field Instruction in Professional Social Work Practice in the Selected Specialized Field
- (vi) Honours students only:
Dissertation (a written report on an extended practical research project).

* Courses (iii) and (iv), the specialization courses, varied according to the five areas of specialization, as follows:

I. Child and Family Welfare

- (iii) Social Work Practice in Child and Family Welfare
- (iv) Legal, Institutional and Cultural Framework of Child and Family Welfare

II. Medical Social Work

- (iii) Medical Social Work Practice
- (iv) Legal, Institutional and Cultural Framework of Medical Social Work

III. Industrial Social Work

- (iii) Industrial Social Work Practice, including relevant Social and Labour Legislation
- (iv) Structure, Development and Function of Industrial Organizations

IV. Social Welfare Management

- (iii) Management of Social Welfare
- (iv) South African Social Welfare Systems

V. School Social Work

- (iii) School Social Work Practice
- (iv) The Institutional Framework and Educational Practice of Schools

(Hare & Hoffmann, 1987:104-105).

At the end of 1989, the Wits School of Social Work attempted to address the changing needs of a society moving towards a democratic and non-racial ideal, in its new four year curriculum plan. Contemporary issues and the development of an alternative welfare structure would

become key themes to be discussed within the framework of a course entitled: South African Social Work Practice. A total of 104 lecture periods (that is, 26 x 4-hourly weekly seminars) have been allocated to this course. This course is to be one of three theory sequences in the fourth year (the others being Advanced Social Work Methods, and Social Work Practice in Selected Fields). In addition, all students will undertake a course in Field Instruction in Social Work Theory and Practice, and write a dissertation (Memorandum: Proposed content of Social Work III and Social Work IV syllabuses in the 4-year curriculum: a base-line for discussion).

5.4.3 Fieldwork development

In the 1950s field supervision was recognized by the university and was allocated an official lecturing post. Thus it became established as an important course component. By 1973, the Field Instruction post had gained full lecturer status; rating schedules and assessment procedures had been developed; and for the first time an examination of field practice in the second, third and fourth years was introduced. Further refinement of the field instruction component lead to Field Instruction in Social Work Theory and Practice finally becoming an independent course.

5.4.4 Research development

Research received more emphasis under the guidance of Professor O Wagner. As early as 1959, students had to submit a dissertation on an approved topic as a qualifying requirement for purposes of the degree. In that same year the Masters programme was introduced, thus giving research an added boost.

Almost two decades later, Professor Ceciel Muller initiated the Centre for Social Development, which provided the scope for a community research programme, thereby facilitating much needed research into relevant community issues. This Centre has since closed down.

Other significant research developments were initiated by Professor McKendrick in the mid-Eighties. Research into alternative conceptual models for social work practice was brought into sharp focus and ongoing research bears evidence of innovative and creative endeavours in the

sphere of contemporary South African practice (Departmental Review 1983-1988:14-15).

5.4.5 The non-racial thrust

The Wits School of Social Work has made concerted attempts to admit students irrespective of their colour. In this respect, a major breakthrough was achieved during Professor Muller's leadership when the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice was introduced in 1977. The purpose of this diploma was to offer much needed training to practitioners at the advanced level, in policy development, administration, social planning, supervision, research and teaching. This Diploma also attracted those social workers who had no option but to do their undergraduate training at 'ethnic' separate universities and who wished to further their studies at a non-racial, open university.

Eighty per cent of the black sub-sample in this study had successfully completed this Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice.

The commitment to a truly democratic and non-racial thrust in this School of Social Work gained further impetus under the leadership of Professor B W McKendrick. He had the task of being the Joint Universities Committee's representative to the Board of the International Association of Schools of Social Work, at a time when international sanctions and academic boycotts against South Africa were at their peak. The fact that South African schools of social work were not ostracized from the international community may be largely due to the anti-apartheid record of some South African universities.

The Golden Jubilee Conference of the Wits School of Social Work (July 1987) proved to be a significant event in the history of social work conferences. For the first time, an alternative vision of welfare practice was being clearly articulated.

5.4.6 Summary

A brief, focused review of the history of the Wits School of Social Work has been sketched. Two threads running throughout this historical development have been the twin pursuits of academic excellence and localization. Social work education and training at Wits has been

constantly undergoing refinement in the light of new knowledge and the impact of the prevailing social conditions. It has tried through its training strategies and research endeavours to keep abreast of changing socio-economic and political realities, insofar as it affects the professional preparation of social workers.

5.5 The fourth year social work curriculum between 1979 and 1986

The educational objectives of the fourth year of study are clearly stated both in the School's Departmental Review 1983-1988; and in the Self-Analysis Report, 1985:3. These are as follows:

I. BA (Social Work) Honours degree

- (i) To acquire advanced generic knowledge, skills and values that will ensure more than minimal competence for responsible entry into social work practice with individuals, families, groups and communities. In addition, to acquire knowledge and skill in social work administration, research and supervision.
- (ii) To acquire advanced specific knowledge and skill for effective social work practice within a specific field.
- (iii) To develop scholarly qualities, such as the ability to think independently and to analyze and synthesize.

II. Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice

- (i) To acquire advanced generic knowledge, skills and values that will ensure more than minimal competence for responsible entry into social work practice with individuals, families, groups and communities. In addition, to acquire knowledge and skill in social work administration, research and supervision.
- (ii) To acquire advanced specific knowledge and skill for effective social work practice within a specific field.

(Self Analysis Report, 1985:3)

5.5.1 Principles of training and tuition

Some of the general principles which guide training and tuition in the fourth year of study are:

- (i) the syllabus is designed in direct relationship to the educational objectives. The syllabus includes methodology content and associated knowledge which aims at theoretical grounding and application of social work as a means for addressing human conditions effectively and appropriately;
- (ii) the major teaching format consists of the lecture/discussion approach. Tutorial groups are used as opportunities to integrate theory and practice. The Field Instruction programme serves as the central means through which social work knowledge, values and skills are integrated in the practice arena;
- (iii) two pedagogical concepts which underpin this professional preparation are those of accretion and progression. Accretion refers to the broadening of knowledge and the subsequent widening of theory to practice. Progression refers to the deepening of knowledge and skill;
- (iv) a generic approach to social work practice is taught and learned. However, appropriate selectivity of social work applications is also stressed and emphasized;
- (v) curriculum is viewed as a dynamic entity open to change and adaptation in the light of new knowledge and changing conditions. Curriculum evaluation/appraisal is undertaken at least once a year; and
- (vi) professional socialization, that is, the internalization of values and attitudes commensurate with the profession of social work, is actively translated into course content on values, ethics and through role-modelling.

(These principles have been adapted from the Self-Analysis Report, 1985: 4-6).

5.5.2 The course structure

The course structure for the fourth year of study has been laid out in Section 5.4.2. Furthermore a detailed illustration of the various

components of the Honours and Higher Diploma curriculum is presented in Appendix D:231-232.

5.5.3 Course outlines for the BA (Social Work) Honours and Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice

I Social Work with Individuals, Groups and Communities

- (i) Social Casework and Family Therapy Appendix E
- (ii) Social Group Work Appendix F
- (iii) Community Work Appendix G

II Social Work Research, Professional Education, and Supervision

- (i) Social Work Research Appendix H
- (ii) Professional Education Appendix I
- (iii) Supervision Appendix J

III Courses in the specialization 'Child and Family Welfare'

- (i) Course statement and outline Appendix K

IV Courses in the specialization 'School Social Work'

- (i) School Social Work Theory and Practice Appendix L
- (ii) Institutional Framework and Educational Practice of Schools Appendix M

V Courses in the specialization 'Medical Social Work'

- (i) Medical Social Work Practice
 - First sequence- Introduction to Medical and Psychiatric Social Work Practice Appendix N
 - Second sequence - Health in Relation to Age Appendix O
- (ii) Legal, Institutional and Cultural Framework of Medical Social Work
 - First sequence - Medical Sociology Appendix P
 - Second sequence - Community Health Appendix Q
 - Third sequence - Ethical Issues Appendix R

VI Courses in the specialization Industrial
Social Work

Appendix S

VII Field Instruction in Professional Social Work Practice
Field Instruction Manual

Appendix T

5.6 The Wits fourth year of social work education examined in the light
of Guzzetta's model for curriculum analysis

The six indicators which Guzzetta proposes as a framework for curriculum analysis have been previously discussed (see Section 4.5.1). The cultural context, attitude, mode, scope, penetration and construction of the fourth year curriculum have been assessed as follows:

5.6.1 The cultural context of the curriculum

The Wits School of Social Work has made a concerted attempt to indigenize its social work curriculum (McKendrick, 1990: Paper presented at the Joint Universities Committee on Social Work Conference, May 9-10; Proceedings of the Golden Jubilee Conference, 1987: July 6-7; Departmental Review 1983-1988: 14-15). Research output by staff and students reveal a concern with contemporary South African social work issues.

Where pertinent, local authors have been extensively referred to in various reading lists which accompany fourth year course outlines (see Appendix H:250; Appendix I: 264-266; and Appendix Q:324-330). However, course content and selected references also show a heavy reliance on American and British literature. This fact is not surprising since Britain and America have been in the forefront as regards the early establishment and consequent development of the social work profession. What is difficult to assess from the course outlines is how Western models are being adapted to suit local conditions. Indigenization does not necessarily mean the exclusion of foreign or imported knowledge, but the meaningful adaptation thereof (Burgess, 1983; Lasan, 1981).

Despite the paucity of South African social work literature, course content has been contextualized within the framework of the South African cultural reality (see for example, Institutional Framework and Educational Practice of Schools, Appendix M:287-293; Legal,

Institutional and Cultural Framework of Medical Social Work, Appendix P:315-322).

It would therefore appear that the Wits curriculum is both concerned with establishing a firm understanding of traditional models and at the same time, adapting these models to suit South African conditions.

5.6.2 The construction of the curriculum

The so-called basic tenets of the Wits School of Social Work contain the key philosophical elements and focal areas of concern which underscore the construction of its curriculum (see Section 4.3). In summary, the School espouses a non-racial and democratic stance, committing itself to building a more egalitarian society; the School recognizes the importance of developmental/preventive strategies which would address South Africa's Third World needs; and the School has targeted four areas of human living, which social work education and training would concern itself with, namely, the family, the work-place, the school and the sphere of health care.

Thus, the Wits School of Social Work, through the tenor of its curriculum, projects a progressive and innovative image (Departmental Review, 1983-1988, Section 10:15). Course Outlines which clearly suggest the aforementioned trends are:

Child and Family Welfare, for example, 'The central theme underpinning the courses is family-centred social work practice, with ecology as the practice metaphor. A major emphasis is prevention' (see Appendix K:272);

Field Instruction in Professional Social Work Practice, for example, training objective 4.2 states 'In order to develop specialized knowledge and skills related to each of the specializations, training will be designed to build on the generic knowledge and skills necessary for beginning competence in professional social work, acquired in undergraduate study' (see Appendix T:343);

Industrial Social Work, for example, 'A developmental paradigm will be offered which seeks to study the involvement of social work at the workplace' (see Appendix S:336);

Medical Social Work, for example, course objective (2) 'To provide basic medical information with regard to specific health issues and preventive measures with regards to each age group' (see Appendix O:302);

School of Social Work, for example, course objective (2) 'To gain an understanding of present-day educational framework as it relates to Black, White, Coloured and Asian education in South Africa' (see Appendix M:287).

Thus, the construction of the curriculum appears to be built around a holistic approach to social work in context which includes political, economic, historical and social dimensions.

At the same time, course outlines reveal both linear and thematic constructions. The course outline on Supervision (Appendix J:268) presents a linear approach in dealing with the sequence 'Function and Tasks of the Supervision in each Time Phase of the Field Placement' but also reveals a thematic approach in its choice of components of the Field Practice Course. For further examples see Supervision, Sections 3.1, 3.1.3, Appendix J:267-268; Social Casework, Appendix E:234; Social Group Work, Appendix F:236-238; and Social Work Research, Appendix H:251-252.

An example of a construction which attempts a combination of holistic-linear-thematic approaches is the Industrial Social Work course (see Appendix S:335-339). The course preamble indicates an ecological perspective; and the course sequence uses thematic 'core themes', which are discussed in a linear manner.

It is possible to conclude that the construction of the fourth year curriculum has a holistic, philosophical base but also applies linear and thematic ways of constructing its content.

5.6.3 The attitude of the curriculum

The philosophical theme and the 'image' which this curriculum projects appears to convey a prospective orientation. According to Guzzetta such a curriculum would be more future-oriented than past-oriented. However, it is not possible to capture the 'attitude' of the Wits curriculum only

from its course outlines.

Personal exchanges with the social work educators seem to indicate this prospective attitude. The course outlines appear to indicate a combination of both retrospective and prospective attitudes. For example, all the specialization courses afford much time to evaluating past models and assessing its strengths and weaknesses in relation to present needs.

Learning lessons from the past in order to address present and future problems is an important consideration in the entire curriculum. An example of this dual approach may be inferred from the School Social Work Assignment (Appendix L:280) which called for an evaluation of: different models of School Social Work practice; the role of the school social worker and the relevance of these models for disadvantaged communities. A further example is, Assignment 2 (Appendix L:280) which involved developing a programme plan for implementing a school social work service.

The Social Work Research course outline (Appendix H:257) showed strong evidence of a prospective attitude; whilst facets of the Social Group Work outline (Appendix F:236-238) in the discussion of models, showed a retrospective orientation.

Although the attitude may be future-oriented, a large amount of time is spent on evaluating past models and building up a knowledge base in order to implement meaningful and appropriate strategies.

5.6.4 The curriculum mode

Almost contrary to expectations in the light of previous discussion, the Wits curriculum appears to be concerned with the careful examination and analysis of models and theories (that is, a static mode). Guzzetta hastens to add that static does not mean passive (1984:48). This static mode is evident in all the course outlines to a greater or lesser degree. The Field Instruction in Professional Social Work Practice course (Appendix T:341-367), by virtue of its practice orientation would seem to imbue students with a greater sense of being 'part of the action' than the course sequence on Legal, Institutional and Cultural

Framework of Medical Social Work (Appendix P:315-317), which is concerned with developing a knowledge base through evaluation and analysis of health-related concepts. On the one hand, students are inspired with a sense of urgency as regards their active participation in the building of a more just and democratic society; and on the other hand, their potential impetuosity is curbed or disciplined through a concern with systematic enquiry, analysis and evaluation.

5.6.5 The scope of the curriculum

The selected units of attention in the Wits fourth year curriculum has been arranged around a 'specialization focus', that is, a particular scope has been adopted, albeit against a generic background. The knowledge, values and skills which this curriculum seeks to instill in its students have been oriented towards a specialized field of practice (see Section 4.4). All four specializations appear to focus on a particular area and broaden out sufficiently for generalizations to take place. One such example is the Legal, Institutional and Cultural Framework sequence which is evident in Child and Family Welfare, School Social Work, Medical Social Work and Industrial Social Work courses.

5.6.6 The penetration of the curriculum

Most course outlines reveal an exemplar approach to penetration. Content appears to be deliberately selected and organized so as to provide an extensive survey, while at the same time allowing for an in-depth examination. 'The procedure is akin to the taking of "core samples" in order to determine the composition of a large mass' (Guzzetta, 1984:49). A classic example of this approach is contained in the Industrial Social Work Practice course: '... programme of "core" seminars' (Appendix S:330). The course outline: 'Legal Institutional and Cultural Framework of Medical Social Work' (Appendix Q:323-330) shows evidence of a profound approach in that students are assisted towards intensive study of a specialized area. The exemplar approach which generally appears to be common practice in the Wits curriculum may indicate an option for a combination of 'width' and 'depth'.

5.6.7 The practice curriculum as screened through Guzzetta's indicators

- (i) The practice curriculum as presented in the 'Field Instruction in Professional Social Work Practice Manual' (see Appendix

T:340-366) locates itself at the very heart of the South African cultural context. Students are expected to familiarize themselves with the specific context in which they are selectively placed. 'Each candidate's field instruction programme will be individualized, and will aim to take into account the needs of the candidate, objectives and structures of the field instruction centre and course requirements' (see Appendix T:343). Thus the localized reality of a South African social work setting has a major impact on the testing out of theoretical knowledge or any other 'exotic' influences. Although students may be placed in specialized practice settings of their choice, they are expected to locate themselves within the wider institutional and cultural framework of South African society. The South African cultural context in which social work is being practised contains elements of indigenous and exotic influences and may be viewed as a cultural context in transformation.

- (ii) Students are encouraged to adopt a holistic approach to their practicum. Their various course specializations as indicated in Section 5.6.2, emphasizes the ecological metaphor as the context for practice. However, the construction of the practice curriculum also adopts thematic and linear approaches where they are best suited (see Appendix T, Section 9.2.3:348).
- (iii) The attitude of the practicum contains both retrospective and prospective elements. Students are expected to assess social problems and to construct meaningful programmes for dealing with them (prospective) (see Appendix T, Section 5.4.4:344). However, students are also encouraged to critically evaluate the pros and cons of existing and past programmes (retrospective).
- (iv) The mode of the practicum could be described as dynamic, since students are involved in a dynamic process of actively translating theory into practice and vice versa. Also, it is within the context of the practicum experience that students are imbibed with the feeling of being part of the action, of actively building that better society through the use of theoretical tools they have been equipped within the classroom (see Appendix T,

Section 5:343-344).

- (v) The scope of the practicum is particular in focus, since students are assigned to specialized settings. However, the educational objectives and the learning requirements are contextualized within a generic background.
- (vi) As regards content penetration, the exemplar approach is adopted. 'Cases' and practice activities are deliberately selected and organized so as to provide the student with core experiences from which further generalizations could be made.

5.6.8 The knowledge, values and skills of the fourth year curriculum

Despite having a specialization focus, the Wits fourth year social work curriculum is set against a generic background. The core body of knowledge, values and skills which underscore this curriculum are: social welfare policy and services; human growth, behaviour and the social environment; social work practice methodology and field instruction (McKendrick, 1987:195).

These four key curriculum areas which form the generic basis for professional preparation are brought into sharper focus in the fourth year of study. For example, course content on welfare policy and services is dealt with in the content of the four specializations. The same applies to content on human growth, behaviour and the social environment (see Appendix L:275-277; Appendix O:302-304).

Social work practice methodology is consolidated in the courses 'Social Work with Individuals, Groups and Communities' (see Appendices E:233-235; F:236-242; G:243-247), and 'Social Work Research, Professional Education and Supervision' (see Appendices H:248-267; I:262-266; J:267-270). Also, Field Instruction (see Appendix T:340-366) at the fourth year level is carried out within the context of a specialized field of choice with close monitoring of the field-theory integration process (Hare and Hoffmann, 1987; Lloyd, 1987; McKendrick, 1987). The Field Instruction component provides the major training ground for flexing skills which have been theoretically learnt in the classroom. At the same time practice experiences impact on the nature

of learning, setting in motion a cyclical process of integration and reintegration.

Social work values underpin the learning of all social work knowledge and skills.

According to Aigner (1984:7), all social workers should subscribe to the following two primary values:

- that people should have equal access to resources, services and opportunities for the accomplishment of their life tasks, alleviation of distress and the realization of their aspirations and values in relation to themselves, the rights of others, the general welfare and social justice;
- that professional relationships should be built on regard for individual worth and human dignity. The various specialization courses have taken up the values dimension in specific sequences related to ethics (see Appendix R:331-334).

Also, social work values are imparted via role modelling. In the South African context, social work values are extremely difficult to justify when societal norms militate against basic human rights, the dignity of all persons and social justice. Nevertheless, values and ethics remain a central feature of the core curriculum and South African social workers have to address the challenges of values which are detrimental to human life (Marks, 1989; Desai, 1988; Patel, 1987).

CHAPTER 6RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY6.1 Introduction

Research design refers to the logical strategy of the study, and includes the type of measurement techniques and the construction of instruments for collecting data (Finestone and Kahn, in Polansky 1975:38).

6.1.1 Research aimsAim 1

To establish:

- (i) a profile of social work graduates' work histories;
- (ii) their perception of social work;
- (iii) the nature of their present work tasks, and whether or not they believe these tasks to be appropriate;
- (iv) the nature of social work graduates' work circumstances especially in relation to:
 - the bureaucratic settings of social work practice
 - the systems of supervisory control over practitioners
 - the availability of resources, both tangible and intangible
 - institutionalized racism in the welfare field;
- (v) whether or not their professional education and training has prepared them to carry out their work tasks and to function effectively within their work circumstances.

Aim 2

To analyze the fourth year social work curriculum, offered at the University of the Witwatersrand, for the purpose of identifying its nature and the core body of knowledge, values and skills with which professional social work education seeks to equip each graduate for 'beginning practice competence'.

Aim 3

On the basis of data gathered from Aim (1) and Aim (2) above, to

formulate educational and training strategies which would address present and future practice.

6.1.2 Rationale and major research assumptions

The following statements reflect the rationale and assumptions which underlie this study:

- It is assumed that social work education and training should be orientated towards present and future practice needs.
- Despite the impact of dynamic, changing realities, some measure of 'fit' should ideally exist between social work education and social work practice.
- Some constraints inherent in the social work profession may be experienced as universal phenomena. However, institutionalized racism in the South African context, further exacerbates the impact of these constraints.
- It is suspected that social work education and training may not have equipped graduates with that knowledge and skill required to deal adequately with these practice constraints in a professional manner.
- It is suspected that social work education at an open liberal university in South Africa, equips graduates not only with a liberal value orientation but also with the knowledge and skills to intervene in social situations with a therapeutic rather than a social change focus.
- It is conceivable that such a social work education, which stresses egalitarian principles, may not equip graduates with the necessary skills to challenge and change those practice realities which prevent these same principles from being realized. Such a situation may engender frustration in graduates.
- Since South African society consists of developed and underdeveloped or developing population sectors, it would have a mix of both First

and Third World problems. It follows therefore, that social work strategies should be geared towards addressing both First and Third World needs and that these strategies would include both therapeutic and developmental dimensions.

- It is probable that most (if not all) social workers will experience some lack of 'fit' between professional education and their practice realities.
- Furthermore, it is possible that black social workers, because of the situation of racial disadvantage; unfair allocation of resources and inequality of access to resources would experience this lack of 'fit' to a greater degree than their white colleagues.

6.2 Research design

6.2.1 Classification

This research investigation could be classified as a quantitative-descriptive study. Quantitative-descriptive research studies

have as their major purpose the delineation of assessment of characteristics of phenomena, program-evaluation, or the isolation of key variables. These studies may use formal methods as approximations to experimental design with features of statistical reliability and control to provide evidence for the testing of "hypotheses" (Tripodi et al, 1969:38).

The following two criteria were used for classifying this research study as a quantitative-descriptive design:

Firstly, aim two (Section 6.1.1) is concerned with a retrospective analysis of the fourth year social work curriculum, and is therefore consonant with a programme-evaluation research approach. Programme-evaluation is one of the four sub-types of quantitative-descriptive studies (Tripodi et al, 1969:38).

Secondly, this present research study sought quantitative descriptions

amongst specified variables (e.g. correlation, frequency distributions, averages and measures of dispersion) (Babbie, 1983). Thus, this particular study involved the systematic collection of information as defined, measurable variables.

Finally, it is important to note that quantitative-descriptive studies cannot claim cause-effect relationships in the way experimental studies do.

6.3 Methodology

6.3.1 Sampling

6.3.1.1 The population

A random sample was drawn from the total social work graduate population of the University of the Witwatersrand for the period 1979 to 1986 inclusive. The research population comprised 252 graduates of whom 203 were Whites, 37 were African, 4 were Coloured and 8 were Indian. Thus whites outnumbered black (i.e. African, Indian and Coloured) by as much as four to one, and Africans (76%) constitute by far the majority of the black group.

The time period 1979-1986 coincided with increasing numbers of black social workers who, alongside their white colleagues, gained their fourth year social work qualification from Wits. Furthermore, this period represented the recent past in terms of recall of their fourth year social work educational experience. Although these years were marked by widespread unrest and political turmoil which to this day has not abated, it could be argued that this historical context is not an atypical one for social work research into the needs of a changing practice in changing times.

6.3.1.2 Stratification

The population of graduates was stratified into a black group and a white group in order to test out the assumption that blacks would experience a greater lack of 'fit' between social work education and

social work practice, than would whites.

6.3.1.3 Sample size

A disproportionate sample was randomly extracted from both black and white groups. A sample size of thirty graduates in each sub-group was randomly selected, one group serving as a comparison group to the other. The black sample consisted of 22 African, 6 Indian and 2 Coloured graduates.

6.4 Data Collection Techniques

A variety of data collection strategies were adopted. Information was gathered from reconnaissance interviews with social work practitioners and social work educators; an analysis of the fourth year social work curriculum at the Witwatersrand School of Social Work was undertaken; and personally administered questionnaires were utilized. The questionnaires constituted the major research tool.

6.4.1 The questionnaire administered to social work graduates

6.4.1.1 Motivation for choice

The personally administered questionnaire was chosen as the major research tool in order:

- to ensure a high response rate;
- to be able to clarify ambiguities in a uniform manner;
- to be able to probe for further information where necessary; and
- to be able to pick up both verbal and non-verbal cues.

6.4.1.2 Construction of the questionnaire

The administered questionnaire was designed to gather specific information related to the first research aim (see Section 6.1.1); from the social work graduates who had successfully completed their fourth year qualification at the Wits School of Social Work. Guidelines as to the actual content of the questionnaire came from information gained from reconnaissance interviews with both social work practitioners and social work educators; relevant literature; and the writer's own personal practice experience.

The questionnaire consisted of two major sections (Appendix C). Section 1 covered the following areas (Appendix C:212-223):

- identifying details
- work history
- general social work practice issues
- the nature and circumstances of graduates' work tasks.

Section 2 focused on social work education and covered the following themes (Appendix C:224-230):

- educational priorities
- general and specific assessment of the fourth year curriculum
- preparation for competency
- suggestions for a better 'fit' between social work education and social work practice.

Questions were presented in diverse ways: contingency type questions, open-ended questions, rank order questions and the use of Likert-type scales.

Whilst the unstructured responses provided qualitative data, the closed question responses allowed for greater ease in quantitatively processing the data.

6.4.1.3 Pre-testing the questionnaire

A pilot study was undertaken in order to pre-test the research tool. Ten randomly selected graduates (not included in the sample) from the same graduate population, constituted the pilot study sample. Data was manually processed, analyzed and identifiable trends emerged. Only minor changes in the actual formulation of questions were necessary.

6.4.1.4 Factors related to the administration of the questionnaire

Recruiting strategies: A stamped, self-addressed postcard which indicated respondents' willingness/unwillingness to participate in the research study was accompanied by a detailed letter of introduction (see Appendix B:210).

Non-participants: Of the thirty randomly selected black respondents, two were out of the country and one refused to respond to the questionnaire since 'social work has long lost its credibility in South Africa' (personal communication). This respondent had since left the profession. Three replacements were thus randomly selected from the remaining graduate population.

Four out of thirty randomly selected white respondents had emigrated. Two of the four replacements were not motivated to participate in the study (their reasons being 'no time') and two other replacements had to be selected.

Place and time: Interviews were set up largely at respondents' convenience, that is, conducted in their homes or places of work. The average length of time taken to complete this questionnaire was 90 minutes. Interviews were tape-recorded.

All interviews were conducted during the period April-June 1988. Extensive use was made of the researcher's own interviewing skill in obtaining focused yet spontaneous and comprehensive information.

6.4.1.5 Limitations inherent in using the administered questionnaire

- The length of time taken to complete the schedule may have influenced the level of respondents' concentration and interest and hence, the quality of the responses.
- The format of the various questions had their own limitations: for example, the Likert Scale was likely to introduce the bias of the 'Hawthorne effect', that is, respondents opting for a moderate rather than extreme scale point;
- classification of unstructured responses from open questions may have been contaminated by the researcher's own bias.
- the questions which relied on memory recall may have elicited faulty responses, for example, 'halo effect'.

6.4.1.6 Processing and analysis of data

The pre-coded questionnaire was transferred onto code sheets, verified and transposed as basic raw data onto the S.A.S. programme. The results were initially presented in the form of cluster analysis and frequency arrays. Tables and graphic forms were later developed to display data in a more distilled manner.

6.4.2 Informal interviews with social work educators

- (i) The dual purposes of these interviews were, namely:
 - To share the principal findings of this study with those social work educators of the Witwatersrand School of Social Work, who were directly involved in the teaching of the curriculum content which respondents had assessed.
 - To enrich the quality of the study with the valuable insights and perceptions offered by these social work educators concerning these findings.
- (ii) Six social work educators were interviewed.
- (iii) Method
 - Each social work educator was presented with a summarized copy of the principal findings and asked for their comments regarding the nature of these findings together with their suggestions for curriculum changes.
 - Each interview lasted approximately 45 minutes and was tape-recorded.
- (iv) Use of data

As indicated in (i) above, the data gained from these interviews was not intended to be formally incorporated into the study. However, where obvious contradictions have become evident, mention will be made in the discussion of the principal findings.

6.5 Fourth Year curriculum analysis

(i) Analytical tools

Six coding indicators were used, namely: cultural context, attitude, scope, penetration, mode and construction. These six main 'tools' were used as they were defined by Guzzetta (1984:42-51).

(ii) Sampling frame/unit of analysis

The sampling frame consisted of all the 1985 course outlines for the BA (Social Work) Honours degree and for the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice. These course outlines had remained constant in all major respects since 1979.

(iii) Identification of knowledge, values and skills

The generally accepted core body of knowledge, values and skills which forms the foundation for a generic, undergraduate training was used as a basis for analyzing curriculum content (McKendrick, 1987). The 1985 course outlines were assessed as to whether they manifested content in relation to social welfare policy and services; human growth, behaviour and the social environment; social work practice methodology; and field instruction.

(iv) Manifest/latent content

Inquiry centred on both manifest and latent content (Babbie, 1983:279). Feedback from social work educators, together with substantiating evidence from the School's departmental records, (Self-Analysis Report, 1988; Departmental Review, 1983-1988), provided latent information.

6.6 Limitations of the study

- The generalizability of the findings of this research study can only be extended to the social work graduate population of the University of the Witwatersrand.

- The time period during which this study was conducted reflected socio-economic and political crises and a process of change which may have influenced responses.
- The black/white stratification does not take cognisance of the subtleties which arise from religious, cultural and ethnic differences within these groups.
- The issue of recall which relies on the memory of respondents is always questionable.
- Respondents may have become sensitized to the fact that they were involved in a research study and may have given atypical responses.
- Whether or not the interviewer was perceived as identifying with the black or the white group, may have influenced the responses.
- The choice of research design has its own limitations. Quantitative-descriptive designs cannot lay claim, as do experimental studies, to cause-effect relationships. A quantitative-descriptive design can use formal methods as approximations to experimental design, with some features of statistical reliability and control.

6.7 Summary

This chapter has set out the aims of the study, stated the rationale and major assumptions and classified the type of research undertaken. Furthermore, the research population, sampling techniques and research tools were described. Finally, the major limitations of this study were outlined.

Chapter 7 will present and discuss the findings of this research study.

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- Whether or not the interviewer was perceived as identifying with the black or the white group, may have influenced the responses.
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Chapter 7 will present and discuss the findings of this research study.

CHAPTER 7PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS7.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the reader to the research findings. The structure for the logical presentation and discussion of these findings will be as follows:

7.2 THE RESPONDENTS (IDENTIFYING DATA)

7.3 RESPONDENTS' WORK PROFILE

7.4 HOW RESPONDENTS PERCEIVE THE NATURE AND PURPOSE OF SOCIAL WORK

7.5 RESPONDENTS' WORK TASKS AND WORK CIRCUMSTANCES

7.6 DESIRED PRACTICE

7.7 EDUCATIONAL PRIORITIES

7.8 RESPONDENTS' EVALUATION OF THE FOURTH YEAR CURRICULUM

7.9 SUGGESTIONS FOR A BETTER FIT BETWEEN EDUCATION AND PRACTICE

7.10 SUMMARY

Through the perspective of the social work practitioner one is led to an understanding of the actual nature of the work tasks; whether social work education and training has prepared practitioners to carry out these tasks; and whether they can optimize effective functioning within the constraints of their practice.

Also, practitioners make suggestions based on their experience as to how the curriculum of social work education and training could be modified, changed, or adapted to meet the challenges of present and future South African practice.

7.2 The respondents (identifying data)

The respondents comprised 60 graduates, 30 white and 30 black (that is, African, Indian and Coloured). All respondents in this study graduated from the University of the Witwatersrand, with a fourth year qualification in social work obtained between 1979-1986 inclusive.

7.2.1 Race, sex and present age

Table 1, below, shows respondents' sex and age by race.

Table 1 - Sex and age by race

Race		Age and Sex Characteristics														Total Sample
		20-25		26-31		32-37		38-43		44-49		50-55		56-61		
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
B L A C K	African N=22	-	-	-	-	-	07	-	20	-	02	-	05	02	02	38
	Indian N=6	-	-	-	07	-	02	-	02	-	-	-	-	-	-	11
	Coloured N=2	-	-	-	02	-	-	-	02	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
	White N=30	-	05	02	33	-	02	-	02	-	02	-	03	-	02	51
Total *		-	05	02	42	-	11	-	26	-	04	-	08	02	04	104

N=60; Males (M)=2; Females (F)=58;

* Totals exceed 100% because percentages have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

The race sub-group proportions of the black group show that the majority (74%) were African, 20% were Indian, and only 6% were Coloured. This is not proportional to the distribution of black social workers in South Africa, where 50% are African, 33% Coloured and 17% Indian (Council for Social and Associated Workers, 1986). Nevertheless, the proportions closely approximate the race distribution of all black fourth year social work graduates at Wits University.

The sex distribution of respondents is also different from that of the general social work population. While the distribution clearly shows the established trend of female predominance (McKendrick 1987; van Rooyen 1986), this trend is more striking in this sample where only two (4%) were males. However, this gender distribution is typical of Wits University fourth year social work graduates generally.

When the data in Table 1 is further processed, the median age of the respondents at the time of the study was 32-37 years, with a range from 20-25 to 56-61 years. Blacks, generally, were an older group, with a median age of 38-43 years, while that of whites was 26-31 years.

When data used to construct Table 1 is recalculated to compute mean age, the median trend is further supported: the mean age for all respondents was 35,9 years, while for blacks, it was 40,1 years and for whites 31,7 years. Hence, while there was no difference between the race sub-groups in gender distribution, the groups did differ noticeably in age, with blacks being older than whites.

7.2.2 Age at first qualification

The age difference between black and white respondents raises an interesting question: Did blacks come to social work education later than whites, or is the black sub-group a more experienced group of social workers? Data from the study shows that the latter is the case. First, there is no significant difference between blacks and whites at the age of obtaining a first social work qualification: for

blacks, this occurred at a mean age of 24,9 years, while the comparable figure for whites is 24,5 years. Secondly, it appears that the present age difference between blacks and whites arises primarily because blacks tended to have a longer time period between obtaining their first qualification (usually a three-year degree) and obtaining a fourth year qualification.

7.2.3 Year of respondents' first social work qualification

Table 2 - Year of respondents' first social work qualification

Years in Categories	Total %	Black %	White%
1950-1959	05	10	-
1960-1969	07	10	03
1970-1979	40	57	23
1980-1986	48	23	73
Total *	100	100	99

N=60

N=30

N=30

*Totals not always 100%, because figures are rounded off to whole numbers.

The majority of sample respondents (88%) graduated with their first qualification in the period 1970-1986. Far more blacks (77%) gained their first qualification in the period 1950-1979 than did whites (26%). The majority of whites (73%) gained their first degree in the period 1980-1986. Thus, not only were black respondents more mature in chronological terms, but they may have had more experience as social workers than their white colleagues.

7.2.4 The institution where respondents gained their first degreeTable 3 - The institution where respondents gained their first degree

Institution where Degree was first obtained	Locality	Respondents		
		Total	Black	White
		%	%	%
<u>Well-established University Schools</u>				
University of the Witwatersrand	Johannesburg °	52	20	83
University of Cape Town	Cape Town °	02	-	03
University of Stellenbosch	Stellenbosch °	02	-	03
University of South Africa	Pretoria °	05	03	07
<u>Non-University Schools and Colleges</u>				
Jan Hofmeyer School	Johannesburg °	05	10	-
Huguenot College	Wellington °	02	-	03
Minnie Hofmeyer College	Worcester °	02	03	-
<u>More recently established Black University Schools</u>				
University of the North	Pietersburg area +	17	33	-
University of Zululand	Kwa-Dlageswa +	15	30	-
Total *		102	99	99
		N=60	N=30	N=30

° largely urban

+ largely rural

* Totals not always 100% because figures have been rounded off to whole numbers

The institutions from which respondents graduated, differs along various dimensions, that is,

(i) well-established (50 years and more) university schools of social work located in urban environments comprising predominantly white but often racially open universities.

(ii) non-university schools and colleges, relatively well established, also located in urban environments but often unracial in character.

(iii) more recently established university schools situated in largely rural areas and training specifically black social work students.

The greater proportion of sample respondents (61%) graduated from urban, well established, university schools of social work. By comparison, 41% graduated from either non-university social work schools and colleges or from rural, more recently established, black university schools of social work.

Sixty-three per cent of the black group and nobody in the white group attended institutions which were located in rural or semi-rural environments. The entire white sub-group, except for one, attended those well-established university schools of social work, in comparison to 23% of blacks. The relatively small proportion of blacks who attended these institutions may be due to the Extension of University Education Act, 1959 which provided for separate institutions for people of colour and consequently placed restrictions on such persons attending racially open universities.

Of interest, is the fact that all of the black respondents who were initially trained in semi-rural environments, are presently employed in the metropolitan area of the Witwatersrand, concentrated largely in and around Johannesburg.

7.2.5 The year in which respondents gained their fourth year qualification at the University of the Witwatersrand

For the period under investigation, the fourth-year qualification could have been a four year BA(SW) degree, a BA(SW) Honours degree or the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice (see Section 1.4).

Having established that blacks gained their basic degree earlier than whites, it is of interest to find out whether they also gained their fourth year qualification earlier than whites.

Table 4 - The year in which respondents gained their fourth year qualification

Year	Total %	Black %	White %
1979	08	03	13
1980	25	37	13
1981	15	13	17
1982	13	13	13
1983	20	23	17
1984	12	03	20
1985	07	07	07
Total *	100	99	100

N=60

N=30

N=30

* Totals not always 100% because figures are rounded off to whole numbers.

The majority of the total sample (61%) gained their fourth year qualification during the period 1979-1982 with the rest of the sample respondents qualifying between 1983-1985.

The black and white sub-groups reflect this general trend. Of special note, however, is that by 1980, 40% of black respondents as compared with 26% of white respondents had gained their qualification. Thus, one may conclude that blacks had the potential to have had more post-fourth year qualification experience than their white colleagues.

7.2.6 The nature of respondents' fourth year qualification

The nature of these qualifications was essentially similar in core content but had differing educational objectives (see Section 1.4). It is of interest to quantitatively determine which respondents gained which qualification. This would further qualify the proposed baseline for comparison.

Table 5 - The nature of respondents' fourth year qualification

Fourth Year Qualification	Respondents		
	Total %	Black %	White %
Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice	53	83	23
BA (Social Work) (4 years)	30	10	50
BA (Social Work) (Honours)	17	07	27
Total	100	100	100
	N=60	N=30	N=30

Why is it that more than half (53%) of all sample respondents gained the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice, about one-third the four year BA(SW) degree, and the smallest proportion (17%) gained the BA(SW) Honours Degree?

The following two reasons, confirmed by respondents themselves were, that those who gained the Diploma were not eligible for the BA(SW) Honours degree; and that those who gained the BA(SW) four year qualification did so at a time when they had no other option available.

The issues of option and eligibility take on different meaning for black and white respondents in the South African context. More than three times as many blacks (83%) than whites (23%) gained the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice. How does one understand this disparity?

One reason could well be that the majority of black respondents who had obtained their first degree at largely rural, black universities (see Section 7.2.5) simply did not qualify for the academically more stringent Honours degree at an urban, open, well established institution such as Wits. The academic requirement for entry to Honours study is a minimum mark of 68% for the course Social Work III.

By comparison, more than three times as many whites (27%) gained this degree than did blacks (7%). The significant proportion of whites (50%) who gained the BA(SW) four year degree did so as the only option available at that time.

7.2.7 Persons economically dependent on respondent's salary

Table 6 - Persons economically dependent on respondent's salary

Dependent Persons	Respondents		
	Total%	Black %	White %
Own children	55	77	33
Parents	17	33	-
Legal partner/partners	27	20	33
Relatives/friends	17	33	-
Religious community	09	07	10
No-one	05	-	10
Not working	07	13	-
	N=60	N=30	N=30

Multiple responses (totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded off to whole numbers.

Of the 60 social workers in this sample, only three (5%) had no other person dependent on their salary. More than half (55%) had children dependent on their earnings and more than a quarter (27%), a partner similarly dependent. Seventeen per cent supported parents and a similar proportion provided financial help to relatives and friends. A small number of respondents assisted religious communities financially.

Black social workers differ from white social workers in the number and type of dependants whom they support. More than three-quarters of the black group (77%) had their own children to support, in contrast to one-third of the white group (33%). Since blacks were an older group, the likelihood of them having more children than the white group was greater.

One-third of the black sample and no-one in the white sample supported their parents financially. Cultural norms concerning the care of parents, relatives and friends may well have influenced black and white attitudes towards the giving of financial help. This is supported by the fact that one-third of black respondents also supported relatives and friends whilst no whites in this sample provided financial aid to such persons.

The only instances where whites provided more financial support to dependants than blacks, were in relation to their partners and to religious communities. However, the differences were not significant.

To sum up, it may be concluded that blacks in this sample have far more persons dependent on their salaries than their white colleagues. Irrespective of whether such support was essential, largely altruistic or culturally related, a black social worker's salary is being stretched to accommodate more demands than that of whites. This reality may in turn influence the black social worker's attitude towards job stability, rendering them more bound to their jobs through economic pressure than their white colleagues.

7.2.8 Those who are considering further social work studies

A commitment to further social work studies could be indicative of an ongoing interest in keeping abreast with changes in the professional sphere. It could also mean an adaptive response to what is perceived as an unsatisfying professional climate. Whatever the reason, it would augur well for the profession if those who pursue further studies are harnessed for effective manpower utilization in the field of social work, and not lost to more lucrative non-social work spheres.

Table 7 - Those who are considering further social work studies

Response	Total %	Black %	White %
Yes	57	53	60
No	39	37	40
No response	05	10	-
Total *	101	100	100
	N=60	N=30	N=30

* Totals not always 100% because figures are rounded off to whole numbers.

As indicated above, more than half (57%) of the total respondents would consider further social work studies. Both blacks (53%) and whites (60%) approximate each other in their desire to pursue further studies.

7.2.8.1 Reasons for not pursuing further social work studies

As Table 7 (above) shows, 39% of the total sample responded with a definite no to further social work studies. The reasons given by this group of respondents for not pursuing further studies in social work, may offer valuable insights into the state of the profession.

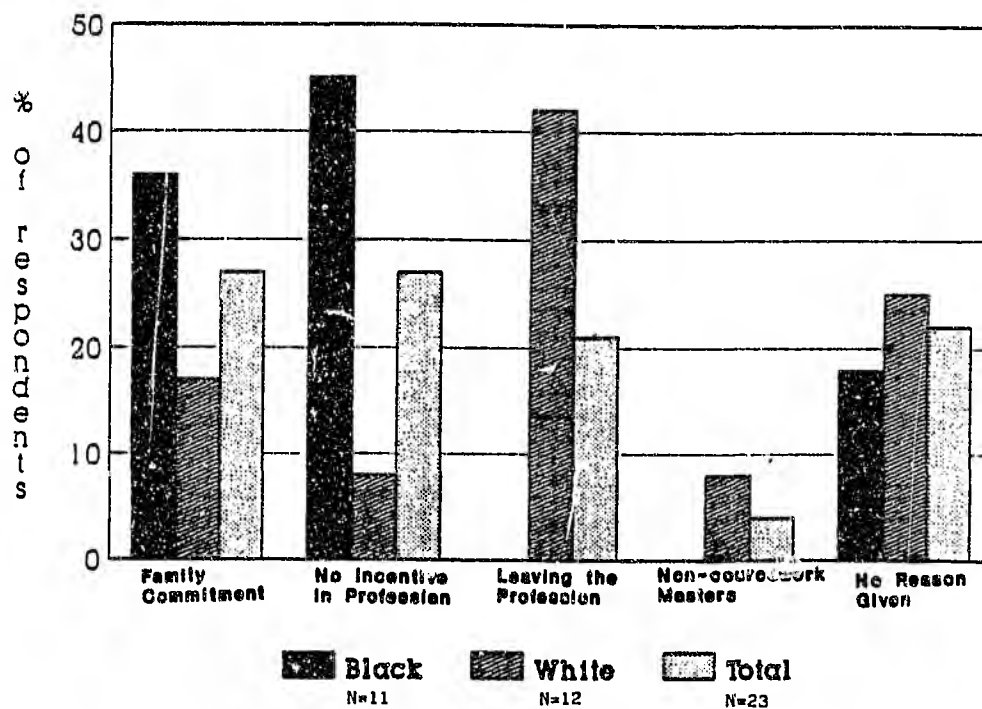


Figure 3 - Reasons for not doing further social work studies

According to Figure 3, more than half (52%) of all those not pursuing further social work studies, offer reasons which are directly related to the state of the profession. These are: no incentive in the profession (27%); leaving the profession (21%); and the fact that there is presently only a non-coursework Masters offered (4%). Furthermore, family commitments presented an important reason for no further studies by 27% of the respondents and 22% suggested no reason at all.

When one considers the black/white trend in relation to the general trend described above, then more whites (58%) than blacks (45%) were

unhappy about the state of the profession (no incentive, leaving the profession, non-course work Masters). Thirty-seven per cent more blacks than whites, suggested 'no incentive in the profession' as a reason for not doing further social work studies. A large proportion (42%) of whites intended leaving the profession and 8% of this same group felt disinclined to pursue the present non-course work masters degree. Blacks made no decision to leave the profession nor did they comment on the masters course. Family commitments were a big issue for 36% of blacks in comparison to 17% of whites. This issue may be a key factor in keeping more blacks in the profession, since a stable income may be viewed as a high priority irrespective of the nature of the work (see Section 7.2.7). The greater proportion of whites taking the final step of leaving the profession could mean that they are in fact economically more able to risk more job changes within and also outside the profession than their black colleagues. However, with the rising black middle class elite, and more lucrative options available, particularly in commerce and industry, the future potential loss of both black and white social workers may be greater than anticipated. Thus, important challenges lie ahead in addressing this disturbing trend.

7.3 Respondents' work profile

Only 5% of the total respondents had not practised as social workers since qualifying. The reasons offered were the following:

- (i) beginning salary too low
- (ii) entered employment outside of social work
- (iii) travelling/on vacation

7.3.1 Choice of job, field and method

Seventy-seven per cent of the sample claimed to be in their job of choice, 12% were not, and 12% failed to respond to this question. There were negligible differences in the black/white response pattern.

Those who were not in jobs of their choice wanted to be in another field of social work (medical social work, child and family welfare, school social work) and their preferred method of choice was largely the integrated casework, group work and community work approaches.

7.3.2 Total number of jobs held by respondents since qualifying with their professional degree

Table 8 - Total number of jobs held by respondents

Number of Jobs Held	Total %	Black %	White %
1	10	10	10
2	18	13	23
3	17	17	17
4	42	47	37
5	07	07	07
6	07	07	07
Total *	101	101	101
	N=60	N=30	N=30

* Total not always 100% because figures are rounded off to whole numbers.

Table 8 above clearly shows the modal tendency for 42% of the total sample to have been in four jobs. Close to half (45%) of all respondents had been in one to three jobs and 14% had been in five or six jobs.

The black/white sub-groups reflect more or less the same trend as that depicted for the total sample. Ten per cent more whites than blacks had a work history of two jobs each, whilst ten per cent more blacks than whites had a job record of four jobs each.

The fact that there is no marked difference in black and white job patterns raises some questions. Does this mean that job turnover patterns are the same? What was the average duration of these jobs?

When data in Table 8 is recalculated to establish the total number of jobs held by respondents (202), ninety-eight jobs were held by whites and one-hundred-and-four were held by blacks.

The fact that blacks had only slightly more jobs than whites suggests the following:

- (i) Blacks may be presenting a more stable work pattern, that is, having held more jobs and for longer periods of time.
- (ii) Whites may be reflecting a higher job turnover trend than blacks.

Further manual verification of data collected on respondents' job profiles reveals that some of the jobs held by respondents were non-social work jobs.

Table 9 - Number of social work and non-social work jobs held

Jobs Held	Total %	Black %	White %
Total social work jobs	87	92	82
Total non-social work jobs	13	08	18
Total	100	100	100
	N=202	N=104	N=98

Although the majority of jobs were in social work (87%), the black/white sample groups reveal a difference: more of the white sample had jobs outside the profession. Therefore not only do whites in this sample reflect shorter job duration records than blacks, but they also show a greater propensity towards non-social work employment.

7.3.3 The average duration of respondents' jobs

Since there appears to be some indication that blacks have a more stable work record than whites (see Section 7.3.2) some further verification is required.

The following data has been manually computed using the statistical formulae (Downie and Heath, 1974:44,46) that is, computation of the mean for group data:

$$\bar{x} = M' + \frac{\sum fx' (i)}{N}$$

Averaging the means when the number in each sample differs

i.e

$$\Sigma x = \bar{x} (N)$$

$$\bar{x}_T = \frac{\Sigma x}{\Sigma N}$$

Table 10 - The average duration of respondents' jobs

Job Number	Total Sample			Black			White		
	N	$\bar{x}$	Σx	N	$\bar{x}$	Σx	N	$\bar{x}$	Σx
1	60	2,02	121,20	30	2,65	79,50	30	1,40	42,00
2	54	3,18	171,72	27	5,06	136,62	27	1,30	35,10
3	43	3,12	134,16	23	3,96	91,08	20	2,15	43,00
4	35	2,73	95,55	19	3,11	59,09	16	2,28	36,48
5	06	3,00	18,00	03	1,50	4,50	03	4,50	13,50
6	04	3,12	12,48	02	1,25	2,50	02	5,00	10,00
Total *	$\Sigma N=202$	-	$\Sigma x=553,11$	$\Sigma N=104$	-	$\Sigma x=373,29$	$\Sigma N=98$	-	$\Sigma x=180,08$

Since $\bar{x}_T = \frac{\Sigma x}{\Sigma N}$:

- then the average mean for the total sample as a whole = $\frac{553,11}{202}$

= $\frac{2,74}{\rightarrow}$

- then the average mean for the total black sample

= $\frac{373,29}{104}$

= $\frac{3,59}{\rightarrow}$

- then the average mean for the total white sample

= $\frac{180,08}{98}$

= $\frac{1,84}{\rightarrow}$

Table 10 shows that the general trend for respondents was to maintain their first jobs for two years, and thereafter to hold all subsequent jobs for an average of 3 years. The average mean for all jobs is 2,74 years (see Section 7.3.3).

McKendrick (1967:203) reports that the average length of employment in all fields of social work was 14,59 months. Comaroff (1978) confirms this trend in her study. Thus, respondents in this study reflect a longer average job duration when compared with earlier studies cited above.

The black and white subgroups indicate job length differences. Blacks held their first four jobs for longer periods of time than their white colleagues. Whites, however, reflected a longer average job duration for their fifth and sixth jobs than their black colleagues.

The computed average mean for the total black sample was 3,59 years in contrast to the average mean for the white sample which was 1,84 years. Thus there is a clear indication that blacks held their jobs for longer periods of time than whites. Why they did so, is not as yet clear. However, further investigation into the actual nature of their job positions, fields of social work employment, and reasons for job acceptance and job termination may all contribute towards a clearer understanding of respondents' work record. These are examined in the following sections.

7.3.4 Nature of positions held

The actual nature of social workers' position may influence their perception of social work's purpose, the nature of social work practice and also may affect job stability patterns. For example, being a frontline practitioner may well predispose a social worker towards having a more direct services orientation, whilst being a manager or director may shift a social worker's focus to policy issues. The nature of respondents' job positions is shown in Table 11.

Table 11 - Nature of respondents' social work positions in different jobs

Nature of Social Work Position	Job Phase																					
	Job 1			Job 2			Job 3			Job 4			Job 5			Job 6			All Jobs			
	Total	Black	White	Total	Black	White	Total	Black	White	Total	Black	White	Total	Black	White	Total	Black	White	Total	Black	White	
	N=	60	30	30	54	27	27	43	23	20	35	19	16	6	3	3	4	2	2	Av. %	Av. %	Av. %
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	Av. %	Av. %	Av. %
Social Work Practitioner	89	97	80	83	96	70	66	61	70	64	58	69	100	100	100	25	50	-	71	77	65	
Social Work Supervisor	-	-	-	-	-	-	05	09	-	08	11	06	-	-	-	25	50	-	07	12	01	
Social Work Manager	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	06	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	02	-	
Social Work Director	-	-	-	02	03	-	02	04	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25	-	50	05	01	08	
Social Work Educator	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	04	-	03	-	06	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	01	
Private Practitioner	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25	-	50	04	-	08	
Non-Social Work Job	12	03	20	15	-	30	26	22	30	20	21	19	-	-	-	-	-	-	13	08	17	
Total Response *	101	100	100	100	99	100	101	100	100	101	101	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	102	101	100	

*Totals not always 100%, because figures are rounded off to whole numbers.

The general pattern as reflected in Table 11 highlights two main issues, firstly that social workers in this study showed a tendency to change jobs which affected their chances of promotion. Thus, probably more as a consequence of the first statement, they have remained largely at the practitioner level of social work. Although slightly more blacks than whites showed a tendency to occupy practitioner positions, blacks still outnumbered whites in the number of senior positions they held. Blacks, quite early in their job career, (see 'Job 3 column' of Table 11), occupied more senior positions than their white colleagues, which may in part be due to their possibly having had a more stable work history than whites.

Secondly, of special note, is the loss of social work manpower already at the 'Job 3' phase, that is, 26% of all respondents were in non-social work jobs; more whites (30%) than blacks (22%) reflected this tendency.

To sum up, the majority of respondents in this sample were largely engaged as 'frontline practitioners', which has implications for the focus and kinds of practice activities they were engaged in.

7.3.5 Fields of social work practice - first and present jobs

Table 12 - Field of social work practice - first and present* jobs

Field of Practice	First Job			Present Job *		
	Total %	Black %	White %	Total %	Black %	White %
Child, Family Field	31	35	26	43	44	42
Industrial Field	02	-	03	07	07	07
Medical and related	24	10	37	34	30	37
School	07	07	06	03	03	03
Statutory	22	36	07	10	16	03
Other (non-social work)	15	10	20	04	-	07
Total **	101	98	99	101	100	99

* For respondents who were not in practice at the time of this study, their most recent job was taken as their 'present' job.

Blacks N=30; Whites N=30; Total N=60

** Totals not always 100% because figures are rounded off to whole numbers.

More than three-quarters of all respondents had their first jobs in the child and family, medical and statutory fields. By contrast, only 9% had their first jobs in the school and industrial fields which are relatively more recently developed areas of social work practice. The child and family, medical and statutory fields are older, more established spheres of practice and also appear to be the main training ground for beginner social workers (Comaroff, 1978).

There was little difference (9%) in the black/white proportions of respondents who had first jobs in the child and family field. However, there were distinct black/white differences regarding those who had first jobs in the other two popular fields; whites (37%) outnumber blacks (10%) in relation to first jobs in the medical field, while the converse is true for the statutory field, that is, blacks (36%) outnumber whites (7%).

These differences may be due to the fact that a greater proportion of whites had their first jobs subsequent to their fourth year qualification, whilst the majority of blacks had their first jobs subsequent to their basic three year degree. Thus it was possible for more whites to be educationally better equipped to cope with a specialized setting like the medical field. Blacks, on the other hand, possibly sought, or were offered generically oriented employment in the child and family and statutory fields. Bursary contracts and availability of jobs could have been other determining factors in respondents' choices of field.

The present job situation shows a different emphasis in fields of choice. For example, 77% of the sample is now concentrated in two fields of practice namely, the child and family, and medical spheres. Smaller numbers of respondents were being employed in other fields as depicted in Table 12, with the exception of industrial social work. Of note, is the halved proportion of sample respondents who were being employed in the statutory field, that is, 10% in the present job as contrasted with 22% in the first job.

The black and white subgroups, for the most part, followed the trend of the group as a whole, with one notable exception: considerably more black respondents than whites were holding present jobs in statutory social work. However, as with first jobs, this may be a consequence of job availability.

A second feature of importance is that more than half of present jobs are in fields known to be characterized by high direct-service workloads, namely child and family welfare (43%) and statutory social work (10%), (McKendrick, 1980; Comaroff, 1978).

7.3.6 Fields of social work practice - length of first and present jobs

Do respondents hold some jobs in specific fields of social work longer than in others? Are there differences in respondents' 'first job duration' in a specific field as compared with their 'present job duration' in a specific field? Possible answers to these questions will be explored in the following section.

7.3.6.1 First jobs

Table 13 - Average job duration for first jobs in various fields

Field of Social Work Practice	Total Average (in years) *	Black Average (in years) *	White Average (in years) *
Child and Family	2,87 (N=19)	2,82 (N=11)	2,94 (N=8)
Industrial	2,00 (N=1)	-	2,00 (N=1)
Medical and related	1,10 (N=14)	1,50 (N=3)	1,05 (N=11)
School	1,62 (N=4)	2,00 (N=2)	1,25 (N=2)
Statutory	3,04 (N=13)	3,50 (N=11)	0,50 (N=2)

* Figures include two decimal places to show up differences related to differing N's more accurately.

The highest average number of years worked in first jobs in any one field, was in the statutory sphere (3,04 years). Child and family workers also showed a comparably high average number of years in their first employment (2,87 years). Of the popular fields of work, medical social workers revealed the lowest average number of years in their first jobs (1,1 years), but a contributory factor to this appears to be that some first jobs in this field were locum tenens positions. The industrial and school fields had fewer respondents working in them, so the averages of 2 and 1,6 years respectively, must be viewed with some caution.

Table 13 provides factual data that clarifies earlier speculation about the length of respondents' jobs. With the exception of jobs in the child and family field, mean first job length for blacks was greater than for whites, and this tendency was particularly marked in statutory social work. This data is congruent with earlier reported findings.

Previous data in Table 10 show that respondents generally, had a mean job length of 2,74 years, their first jobs averaging only 2,02 years. Black respondents had a mean job length of 3,6 years and a mean first job duration of 2,65 years, while the comparative figures for whites were 1,84 years and 1,4 years respectively (see Table 10).

When fields of first employment are analyzed, a feature that perhaps contributes to explaining this disparity is that blacks had more first jobs in statutory social work, and moreover they stayed in their first jobs in this field for an exceptionally longer time (a mean of 3,5 years).

7.3.6.2 Present jobs

Data already presented indicates that the mean length of all jobs is greater than that of first job positions. Does this mean that as social workers become older and more experienced, they become more stable in their work patterns? Data presented in Section 7.3.3 does not suggest this for the group as a whole - after the first job, job duration becomes fairly constant. For whites, the proposition does

hold true: job length increases with number of jobs. On the other hand, for blacks the opposite applies - with increased number of jobs, job duration becomes less.

In an attempt to throw light onto this paradox, an analysis can be made of respondents' present jobs, by field and by job length within these fields.

7.3.6.3 Average job duration for present* jobs in various fields

Table 14 - Average job duration for present* jobs in various fields

Field of Social Work Practice	Total Average**	Black Average**	White Average**
Child and Family	4,20 (N=26)	5,35 (N=13)	2,69 (N=13)
Industrial	0,50 (N=4)	0,50 (N=4)	0,50 (N=2)
Medical and related	3,90 (N=20)	4,83 (N=9)	2,65 (N=11)
School	0,50 (N=2)	0,50 (N=1)	0,50 (N=1)
Statutory	2,75 (N=6)	3,20 (N=5)	0,50 (N=1)

* For respondents who were not in practice at the time of this study, their most recent job was taken as their 'present' job.

**Figures include two decimal points to show up differences related to differing N's accurately.

Table 14 shows that the popular fields of present employment are the child and family, medical and statutory fields, with the length of present jobs (at the time of the study) in these fields being 4,2; 3,9; and 2,8 years respectively. From this, it may be concluded that respondents have become considerably more settled in their present jobs than they were in their first jobs. There is no field in which whites have a greater mean present job duration than blacks.

Further insight into these findings may be gained from an analysis of why respondents accepted jobs, and why they left them. The following sub-section will attempt this investigation.

7.3.7 Major reasons for job acceptance

Reasons why respondents accepted their jobs may offer some understanding of their expectations or motivations in seeking employment. It may also be suggested that reasons for job acceptance may influence job duration.

Table 15 - Major reasons for job acceptance in all respondents' jobs

Major Reasons for Job Acceptance	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Personal and Professional Growth-promoting</u>			
<u>Reasons</u>			
Interest in a field	33	30	35
To gain experience	16	12	19
Satisfying work conditions	10	05	14
Work is challenging	07	09	05
Able to study as well	02	03	01
Suitable job positions	02	03	01
Sub-total	70	62	75
<u>Reasons of Economic Necessity</u>			
Needed a job	21	28	14
Better pay	10	08	11
Bursary/contract	01	02	-
Sub-total	32	38	25
<u>Religious Reasons</u>			
Religious motivation	01	02	-
Total *	103	102	100

No. of reasons = 193 N=60	No. of reasons = 104 N=30	No. of reasons = 89 N=30
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* Totals not always 100% because figures are rounded off to the nearest whole number.

The reasons set out in Table 15 have been further classified into:

- (i) personal and professional growth-promoting reasons;
- (ii) reasons of economic necessity; and
- (iii) religious reasons

Seventy per cent of all the job acceptance reasons suggested by respondents were 'personal and professional growth promoting reasons'. Almost a third (32%) of all reasons offered for job acceptance were 'reasons of economic necessity'. Only one per cent of all reasons for job acceptance were 'religious reasons'. Hence, what respondents mainly sought from their jobs was personal and professional satisfaction, particularly the opportunity to work in a field of their interest. Nevertheless, more than a fifth of all reasons for accepting particular posts was that respondents needed a job. This may suggest that many respondents initially were not highly personally motivated to work in a particular position.

The broad trends described above hold true for both black and white subgroups. Despite this, it is notable that whites were more likely than blacks to choose jobs for personal and professional satisfaction reasons. Conversely, blacks were more prone than whites to take jobs for reasons of economic necessity, particularly because they needed a job and this was the only job available. When this latter insight is linked to earlier findings, such as the fact that blacks have more persons dependent on their salaries than whites (see Table 6), and that blacks have a longer average job duration record than whites (see Section 7.3.3); then it can be tentatively postulated that the greater economic pressure on blacks to have jobs may possibly contribute to their more stable work patterns.

7.3.7.1 Major reasons for job acceptance in first jobs and in present jobs

Table 16 below, shows a comparison of first and present jobs and reasons for job acceptance in these jobs.

Table 16 - Major reasons for job acceptance in first and present* jobs

Major Reasons for Acceptance	Total %		Black %		White %	
	First	Present	First	Present	First	Present
<u>Personal and Professional Growth Promoting Reasons</u>						
Interest in a field	31	34	11	23	50	44
To gain experience	26	14	19	13	33	15
Satisfying work conditions	02	09	04	10	-	07
Work is challenging	02	16	04	20	-	11
Able to study	-	02	-	03	-	-
Suitable job position	-	06	-	07	-	04
Sub-total	61	81	38	76	83	81
<u>Reasons of Economic Necessity</u>						
Needed a job	30	06	56	07	04	04
Better pay	04	12	-	17	08	07
Bursary contract	06	02	07	-	04	04
Sub-total	40	20	63	24	16	15
<u>Religious Reasons</u>						
Religious motivation	-	02	-	-	-	04
Total **	101	103	101	100	99	100
No. of respondents	N=51	N=57	N=27	N=30	N=24	N=27

*All social work jobs presently held

** Totals not always 100% because figures are rounded off to the nearest whole number.

Data in Table 16 confirms the trends identified in the previous section, as well as giving added understanding to them. While for the group as a whole, personal and professional satisfactions dominated reasons for job acceptance, this was not true for blacks in their acceptance of their first jobs, 63% of whom indicated that economic reasons motivated them taking their first job, particularly 'needing a job'.

Nevertheless, over time (from first to present job), black respondents showed a growing tendency to accept jobs for reasons of personal and professional satisfaction, possibly partly because they had reached a stage of increased financial security, or because with the passage of time, more attractive jobs became available to them.

In summary, a striking feature of social workers' work choice was that, when they were not pressurized into taking a job for financial reasons, their motivating force was personal and professional growth satisfaction. So important was this for them that other career-oriented reasons (except for 'better pay') did not feature. This phenomenon has been reported in previous studies (McKendrick, 1980; Comaroff, 1978).

7.3.8 Major reasons for job termination

Why respondents terminated their jobs may provide some insight into the relatively high job turnover of the respondent groups. Also, an understanding of these reasons may serve as a basis to formulate strategies that could be developed to counteract loss of manpower. Reasons for job termination are shown in Table 17.

Table 17 - Major reasons for job termination in all respondents' jobs

Major Reasons	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Dissatisfaction with Work and Salary Conditions</u>			
Dissatisfaction with work conditions (staff, time, opportunities)	26	29	23
Poor salary	09	10	07
Sub-total	35	39	30
<u>Adaptive/Coping Responses</u>			
Found a better position	07	06	08
Needed a break	03	02	03
Changed field of interest	06	04	07
Interest in job outside the profession	03	01	04
Further studies	09	09	09
Sub-total	28	22	31
<u>Personal and Family Reasons</u>			
Overseas travel	06	02	10
Marriage	02	02	01
Pregnancy	08	06	09
Religious reasons	02	01	03
Relocation of family	09	12	05
Sub-total	27	23	28
<u>Reasons Beyond Personal Control</u>			
Retrenchment	01	02	-
Closure	03	04	01
Bursary contract ended	09	09	09
Sub-total	13	15	10
Total *	103	99	99
No. of reasons	157	82	75
No. of respondents	N=60	N=30	N=30

*Totals not always 100% since figures are rounded off to the nearest whole numbers.

The major reasons as outlined in Table 17 are further classified as follows:

- (i) dissatisfaction with work and salary conditions
- (ii) adaptive/coping reasons, that is, found a better position; needed a break; changed field of interest; interest outside the profession; and further studies
- (iii) personal and family reasons
- (iv) reasons beyond personal control

From Table 17, a clear pattern emerges as to why respondents left their social work jobs. Of most importance was dissatisfaction with salary and work conditions (35% of reasons), which was to be anticipated in view of the fact that 21% of respondents accepted their jobs because they were compelled to find a job (see Table 15). Indirectly, the Table 17 figure regarding work dissatisfaction is probably an underestimate, since many respondents (as noted earlier) reacted to dissatisfaction with work conditions and salary with an adaptive/coping response, such as finding a new job, changing their field of interest, giving themselves a break or developing interests in jobs outside the profession. If the 28% of reasons classified as 'adaptive/coping' are added to the first group of reasons for resignation, then 63% of all reasons for job termination concern dissatisfaction.

Given a largely female respondent group (see Table 1), it was to be expected that personal and family reasons (27%) would influence resignation. The final group of reasons concerned circumstances over which the respondents had no control.

Thus, the overall picture presented by data in this section, is one of professionals leaving jobs largely because of work dissatisfaction and to a lesser degree because of family reasons.

The black and white subgroups reflected the general pattern of the group as a whole, especially when specific statements of work dissatisfaction are added to adaptive/coping reasons: 61% of all reasons for black resignations, and 61% in respect of whites. The difference, however, was that black respondents were more likely to give a reason of overt work dissatisfaction for leaving, while whites were more prone to give an adaptive/coping reason.

7.3.8.1 Major reasons for job termination in respondents' first and last* jobs

The shift, over time, of reasons for job acceptance (see Table 16) raised the following question: Was there also a concomitant shift, over time, of reasons for job resignations?

Reasons set out in Table 18 have been further classified in exactly the same manner, with the same rationale as for Table 17 (see Section 7.3.8).

Table 18 - Major reasons for job termination in first and last jobs

Major Reasons for Termination	Total %		Black %		White %	
	Black & White		First	Last	First	Last
	First	Last				
<u>Dissatisfaction with Work and Salary Conditions</u>						
Dissatisfaction with work conditions	38	33	27	30	48	36
Poor salary	06	07	08	10	04	04
Sub-total	44	40	35	40	52	40
<u>Adaptive and Coping Reasons</u>						
Found a better position	08	10	15	20	-	-
Needed a break	04	02	04	-	04	04
Changed field of interest	02	-	04	-	-	-
Interest in job outside the profession	-	02	-	03	-	-
Further studies	04	07	04	03	04	12
Sub-total	18	21	27	26	08	16
<u>Personal and Family Reasons</u>						
Overseas travel	09	06	04	03	13	08
Marriage	06	06	08	07	04	04
Pregnancy	06	06	08	03	04	08
Religious reasons	02	02	-	-	04	04
Relocation of family	12	14	19	20	04	08
Sub-total	35	34	39	33	29	32
<u>Reasons Beyond Personal Control</u>						
Bursary contract ended	05	06	-	-	09	12
Sub-total	05	06	-	-	09	12
Total **	102	101	101	99	98	100
No. of respondents	49	55	26	30	23	25

* In respect of respondents working at the time of the study the last job from which they resigned has been used; in the case of respondents not working, their last job is included in this category.

** Totals not always 100% because numbers are rounded to the nearest whole number

Data in Table 18 gives greater clarity to the trends already identified in the previous section and shows an interesting shift in reasons offered for resignation.

For the group as a whole, dissatisfaction with work and salary conditions remained the major cause for job resignations, followed by personal and family reasons; adaptive/coping reasons; and finally by one reason beyond personal control, that is, a bursary contract ending. The difference in Table 18, when compared to an earlier reported trend is that personal and family reasons have taken precedence over adaptive/coping reasons. This may be due, in part, to the increased number of marriages, pregnancies, and relocations amongst respondents, particularly blacks.

Another deviation from an earlier trend reported in Section 7.3.7, is that whites were now more prone to suggest dissatisfaction with work and salary conditions, rather than adaptive/coping reasons as reasons for job resignation. However, this shift in emphasis may not be of any significance when both categories of reasons are viewed as being 'general dissatisfaction reasons'.

Of note is the big difference in the number of black and white respondents who 'found a better position', that is, 20% of blacks resigned from their last jobs because they found a better position whereas no white respondent suggested this as a reason for resignation. It would appear that white respondents were not finding as many career oriented incentives in the profession as their black colleagues.

In general, the only reason beyond personal control which affected respondents was bursary contract ending and this affected 12% of whites only (whites being younger and more likely to be beginner social workers working off their bursaries than their older black colleagues).

7.4 How respondents perceive the nature and purpose of social work practice

7.4.1 The purpose of social work

How respondents do social work may be influenced by what they understand the profession's purpose to be. Preceding data offers valuable clues as to how respondents may interpret the purpose or mission of social work. For example, since most respondents are frontline practitioners, it could be assumed that they are concerned with direct service delivery (see Sections 7.3.3 and 7.3.4). Also, it appears that the majority are working in the child and family, medical and statutory fields, which have a history of traditional and therapeutically oriented models of practice (see Section 7.3.5.3).

Respondents were asked to rank the importance of the purposes of social work as outlined by the New Curriculum Policy Statement of the Council on Social Work Education (USA, 1985).

These purposes are set out as follows:

- (a) The promotion, restoration, maintenance or enhancement of the functioning of individuals, households, social groups, organizations, and communities by helping them to prevent distress and utilize resources. These resources may be found in people's intrapersonal and interpersonal capacities or abilities, or in social services, institutions and other opportunities available in the environment.
- (b) The planning, development and implementation of the social policies, services and programmes required to meet basic needs and support the development of capacities and abilities.
- (c) The pursuit of such policies, services and programmes through legislative advocacy, lobbying and other forms of social and political action, including providing expert testimony, participation in local and national coalitions and gaining public office.
- (d) The developing and testing of professional knowledge and skills relating to these purposes.

Respondents ranking of social work purposes has been set out in Table 19.

Table 19 - Respondents' ranking of social work's purposes in order of importance

The Purposes of Social Work	Rank Order											
	I			II			III			IV		
	B%	W%	T%	B%	W%	T%	B%	W%	T%	B%	W%	T%
(a) The promotion, restoration, maintenance or enhancement of the functioning of individuals, households, social groups, organizations, and communities by helping them to prevent distress and utilize resources. These resources may be found in people's intrapersonal and interpersonal capacities or abilities, or in social services, institutions and other opportunities available in the environment	63	57	60	17	27	22	13	07	10	03	03	03
(b) The planning, development and implementation of the social policies, services and programmes required to meet basic needs and support the development of capacities and abilities	37	27	32	53	43	48	10	23	17	-	-	-
(c) The pursuit of such policies, services and programmes through legislative advocacy, lobbying and other forms of social and political action, including providing expert testimony, participation in local and national coalitions and gaining public office	-	07	04	27	17	22	63	33	48	10	23	17
(d) The developing and testing of professional knowledge and skills relating to these purposes	-	03	02	03	07	05	13	30	22	83	40	62
No response	-	07	03	01	07	03	-	07	03	03	33	17
Total *	100	101	101	101	101	100	99	100	100	99	99	99

Black (B) N = 30

White (W) N = 30

Total N = 60

* Totals not always 100% because figures are rounded off to whole numbers.

Table 19 shows a clear pattern in the total group's perception of the importance of social work's purposes: most important were direct service functions, that is, purpose (a) followed by community work and administrative activities, that is, purpose (b), social action activities, that is, purpose (c), and last of all the development and testing of knowledge and skills to facilitate these purposes, purpose (d).

This general trend holds true for both the black and white subgroups with two notable variations:

Blacks were more likely to identify purposes (a) and (b) as of high importance than were whites; and blacks were less likely than whites to accord high importance to purposes (c) and (d). Of special note, is that twice as many blacks as whites gave the lowest importance rating to the development and testing of professional knowledge and skill, that is, purpose (d).

Hence, for the sample as a whole and especially for black respondents, emphasis is given to direct service itself, rather than to activities that might promote the ability to render more effective direct service. In view of the realities of South African circumstances (see Chapter 1), these findings appear puzzling.

The findings may be related to the way social work is generally being practised in South Africa, that is, with an overriding concern for direct service delivery and a neglect of policy issues which may alter the status quo (see Chapters 1 and 2). In the South African context, policy intervention may be equated with undesirable, political activism (see Section 1.3); thereby deterring social workers from such involvement. However, it is still not clear which factors actually shaped respondents' perceptions of social work's purpose. Were they viewing social work practice in real or in ideal terms? Alternatively, was the purpose of social work being shaped by an array of other influences, experiences and events? Possible answers to these questions will be explored in the next section.

7.4.2 Most significant factors which have shaped respondent's perception of social work's purpose

Respondents were asked to choose from a list of 36 possibilities those factors which significantly shaped their perceptions of social work's purpose (Question 0. Appendix C:217). These factors have been classified as follows:

- (i) Practice related influences, that is, agency supervisory experience as a qualified worker, influence of agency colleagues, perception of client need, experience of bureaucracy, experience of welfare legislation in practice, experience of welfare practice that is racially biased, experience of welfare services that are not co-ordinated.
- (ii) Civil-unrest related influences, that is, influence of township unrest, experience of the schools crises, experience of the effects of the state of emergency regulations, experience of children in detention, experience of bannings and detentions. experience of pressure from non-social work sources in practice.
- (iii) Group affiliations and related influences, that is, belonging to the following: civic, service, cultural, political, population or religious groups, professional social work association, an alternative professional association. an international social work association, or an international association other than social work.
- (iv) Personal and familial experiences and influences, that is, early life experiences, recent personal experience, influence of friends and relatives.
- (v) University education and related experiences/influences, that is, extra-curricular campus activities, influence of social work

students, influence of social work lecturing staff, university supervisory experiences, practice placement experience and agency supervisory experiences as a student.

- (vi) Media- and travel-related influences, that is, influence of the mass media, the alternative media and overseas travels.

Furthermore, Table 20 below reflects the mean proportion of the responses as per category.

Table 20 - Category of factors influencing respondents' perceptions of social work's purposes

Categories	Total Mean %	Black Mean %	White Mean %
Practice-related influences	64	62	65
Civil unrest-related influences	49	58	39
Group affiliations and related influences	19	17	20
Personal and familial experiences/ influences	41	36	45
University education and related experiences	39	31	47
Media and travel influences	26	17	34
	N=60	N=30	N=30

* Multiple responses (Totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded of to the nearest whole.

Table 20 clearly shows that practice-related influences play a major role in shaping respondents' perceptions of social work's purposes. The paradoxical nature of these findings is congruent with earlier

noted findings (see Section 7.4.1; Table 19). Respondents indicated that these influences shaped their idea of social work's purposes, but this did not necessarily mean that they acted accordingly. The second major category of factors which influenced respondents' ideas of social work's purposes, that is, Civil unrest-related influences, may shed light on the paradox noted above. It may be possible that respondents are deterred from acting on their beliefs for fear of reprisal, for example, harassment, detention or bannings.

When the category 'Group affiliations and related influences' is seen in conjunction with 'Personal and familial experiences', then it becomes apparent how strong identifying with a group and personal experiences impact on respondents' thinking about social work's purposes. Seen together, these aforementioned categories play a larger role than 'University education and related influences' as regards the shaping of respondents' perceptions of the purpose of social work. Whether 'Media and travel influences' are influencing respondents' ideas about social work's purposes in a particular direction, is hard to gauge. Nevertheless all these categories in Table 20 contain elements which may have the potential to influence respondents in a progressive or in a conservative manner. For example, despite the reality of a welfare system which many regard as inappropriate (Patel, 1987), some respondents may be reluctant to challenge that system. Also, some respondents, because of personal experiences (bannings, detentions), may either be motivated or de-motivated as regards initiating strategies to influence welfare policy. Similarly, 'Media- and travel-related influences' may evoke fear which could entrench old patterns of service delivery. On the other hand, it could engender innovative responses to a stagnant situation.

Thus, this array of influences has the potential to shape social work's purposes in divergent directions.

7.4.3 Respondents' views of current social work practice issues

What are respondents' general views on practice issues? Are these views related to what is actually happening in respondents' own practice, or are they related to what respondents feel ought to be happening?

Table 21 below presents respondents' views of current practice issues.

Table 21 - Respondents' views of current practice issues

Views on Current Practice Issues	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Socio-economic and Political Context</u>			
Racial division in social welfare perpetuates less adequate services to people of colour	74	80	67
Ethical social work practice implies a democratic value base (i.e. equal opportunities for services, non-discrimination as regards sex, race, colour or creed)	89	87	90
Social work in South Africa should not be 'non-political' (i.e. social workers should try to influence broader political issues)	85	93	77
Both state and private sector should assume primary responsibility for social welfare funding	57	53	60
The state should assume primary responsibility for social welfare funding	55	60	50
The private sector should assume primary responsibility for social welfare funding	07	03	10
Racial division permits a culturally sensitive social work practice	18	23	13
Racial division in social welfare does not perpetuate less adequate services to people of colour	02	-	03
Social work in South Africa should be 'non-political'	10	07	13
Ethical social work practice does not imply a democratic value base	05	-	10
<u>Client/Community Needs</u>			
South African social work practice is not addressing the social needs identified by people in the community	80	80	80
Social work practice has not appropriately addressed Third World developmental needs (housing, unemployment and poverty)	87	90	83
The poor and the disadvantaged should be a major target group for social work intervention	65	73	57
It is not unrealistic to think that social work practice could address such issues as housing, unemployment and poverty	80	83	77
South African social work practice is addressing the social needs identified by people in the community	07	07	07
Social work practice has appropriately addressed Third World developmental needs	04	07	-
The poor and the disadvantaged should not be a major target group for social work intervention	17	19	15
It is unrealistic to think that social work practice could address such issues as housing, unemployment and poverty	05	09	-
<u>Social Work Strategies</u>			
The developmental social work approach serves the majority of client needs (i.e. emphasizing group and community strategies)	74	80	67
The social casework approach serves the majority of client needs	12	07	17
<u>Social Work Education and Training</u>			
Social workers are not educationally equipped to practice effective social work in a changing South African society	69	67	70
Social workers are educationally equipped to practice effective social work in a changing South African society	17	17	17

N=60

N=30

N=30

Multiple Responses (Totals exceed 100%).

Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole numbers.

Table 21 which reflected respondents' views on current practice issues have been classified as follows:

- issues relating to the socio-economic and political context
- issues relating to client and community needs
- issues relating specifically to social work strategies
- issues relating specifically to social work education and training.

An examination of all those views which elicited a response of 50% and more (in all four categories) revealed the following trends:

- (i) sample respondents indicated the need for a more equitable and democratic welfare practice which is suggestive of an ideological shift in present welfare policy;
- (ii) those issues related to client and community needs with which respondents identified, were indicative of an aspiration to address broader social needs which respondents believed ordinary people regard as priorities (housing, unemployment and poverty);
- (iii) respondents indicated a preference for a developmental approach strategy, rather than a therapeutically oriented approach;
- (iv) the majority of sample respondents indicated that they were not educationally equipped to meet the needs of a changing South African practice.

In all cases, the majority of both black and white respondents identified with the trends noted above. However, instances where there were more than 10% differences between the black and white group underscored issues of which black respondents seemed especially aware: that racial division in social welfare perpetuated less adequate services to people of colour; that social work should not be 'non-political'; that the state should assume primary responsibility for welfare funding; that the poor and disadvantaged should be a major target group for social work intervention; and that a developmental approach was required in social work.

Overall, there were thus strong indications that respondents feel the need for a changed welfare practice.

7.4.3.1 Respondents' choice of the most important practice issues

In response to Question M (Appendix C:216), respondents were asked to select the three most important considerations for social work practice. These statements were selected from a choice of twenty-two factors (see Question L, Appendix C:215). The four statements which elicited responses of 28% and more were arbitrarily chosen as the four most important practice issues.

Table 22 - Most important practice issues

Practice Issues	Total %	Black %	White %
1. Racial division in social welfare perpetuates less adequate services to people of colour	55	60	50
2. Social work in South Africa should not be non-political	45	47	43
3. The developmental approach serves the majority of client needs	33	27	39
4. Social workers are not educationally equipped to meet the needs of a changing South African practice	33	37	28

N=60

N=30

N=30

Multiple responses (totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

When the data in Table 22 is analyzed, then the statements chosen by respondents as most important practice issues are interrelated and reflect the socio-economic and political realities of South Africa today. These results concur with earlier findings (See Section 7.4.2). These statements (which incidentally elicited a strong response of 69% and more as noted in Table 21) are thus doubly endorsed. The fact that South African social work practice has been up till now, racially

defined with a strong therapeutic orientation, is linked to the government's welfare policy. Therefore social workers committed to an equal and just welfare for all South Africans would have to include policy and political intervention strategies in their social work repertoire. It would appear that respondents do not feel educationally equipped to practise effectively in the changing South African context.

The black and white groups identified with the four statements in very much a similar way with one notable difference. Whites (39%), surprisingly identified with the developmental approach more strongly than blacks (27%). This latter finding is difficult to understand since more blacks (80%) than whites (74%) endorsed this approach in the previous section (see Table 21). However, it should be noted that the strength of responses in general, may have been diluted since respondents had a wide choice from which to select their priority statements.

It appears therefore, that respondents are aware that the policy context in which social work is presently being practised needs to be changed, and that the priorities of all South African people should determine major strategies to be adopted. Social workers may also require training to cope with the possible effects of changing policy, how to initiate such change, and how to implement appropriate strategies. The findings in this section concur with those expressed in Section 7.4.3.

Lastly, it should be noted that for the fourth year at least, sample respondents have been trained at a liberal, open university which espouses a non-racial and democratic philosophy. This fact could account partly for the sample's shared vision of a future welfare practice.

7.4.3.2 Respondents' motivations for having selected the most important practice issues

Respondents were asked to motivate their choice of 'most important considerations' for social work practice. When their unstructured

comments were analysed, one single theme predominated: they had had personal, first-hand experience in the field which influenced them to identify the considerations reported earlier in the previous section. This circumstance is important, for it means that respondents' views of priority change areas were not the product of theoretical or philosophical conjecture, but, on the contrary, were forged by respondents' own 'hands-on' experience of social work in South African society. The following quotations from respondents illustrate this observation:

'one has experienced that apartheid in social work is morally and ethically wrong';

'nothing will change until welfare policy changes';

'basic needs are not being met, we need to move towards broader approaches to social work';

'we lack the necessary training to challenge those bigger issues, to intervene at policy level';

'there is far too much "red tape" which prevents one from doing anything worthwhile';

'you can't casework people out of poverty';

'the whole welfare structure is wrong, we are doing patchwork';

'welfare is a political issue, with whites getting more benefits than blacks';

'when one challenges the "system" you are labelled as an "activist or communist"';

'social workers have become an apathetic bunch'.

Three of the four main areas for change and development identified by respondents (see Table 22) are supported by ample evidence from other sources, and have been copiously documented (see Sections 2.1.2; 2.1.3); the historical tradition of social work being relatively 'neutral' and disinclined to political activism has also been noted (see Sections 1.3; 2.1.4), and readily available statistics provide evidence of developmental need in areas such as housing, unemployment and education

(see Section 2.1.8). But what is transpiring in the day-to-day realities of social work practice? Are respondents practising social work in line with their strongly held convictions? The following sections report findings that may contribute to a fuller understanding of the dilemma which faces some social workers.

7.5 Respondents' work tasks and work circumstances

7.5.1 Respondents present social work activities

When one considers that the major aim of this study is to ascertain how respondents assess their professional education and training in the light of practice realities, then it becomes clear that a constituent part of this would be to assess practice realities. In this respect, an investigation into the actual nature of respondents' work tasks may shed light on the present state of social work practice.

7.5.2 Time spent on various social work activities

Respondents were asked to gauge the proportion of time that they spent on various social work activities in the course of an average month.

The various social work activities reflected in Table 23, have been classified as:

- (a) primary activities which include social casework, community work, report-writing, group work, crisis intervention and family therapy, and
- (b) secondary activities which encompass giving supervision, attending staff meetings, training staff, clerical tasks, social administration, travelling, receiving supervision, liaison with collaterals and research. The rationale for such a broad classification is to discriminate between activities which directly deliver services to clients and the supportive activities which enable direct service delivery. It should be noted that only a minority of respondents engage in secondary activities as their core tasks (see Table 23). These are the managers and directors who are involved in social

administration tasks and the supervisors giving supervision (see Table 11).

Table 23 - Average proportion of time spent on social work activities

Social Work Activity	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Primary Activities</u>			
Social casework	20	10	30
Community work	10	13	07
Report writing	07	09	05
Group work	06	05	07
Crisis intervention	04	04	04
Family therapy	02	01	03
Sub-total	49	42	56
<u>Secondary Activities</u>			
Giving supervision *	08	13	03
Attending staff meetings	07	07	07
Training staff development*	06	09	03
Telephone/letters/clerical	06	05	07
Social administration *	05	05	05
Travelling	04	04	04
Receiving supervision	03	03	03
Liaison with collaterals	02	01	03
Research activity	02	02	02
Sub-total	43	49	37
Unaccounted time (no response)	08	09	07
Total	100	100	100

N=60

N=30

N=30

* These secondary activities may be 'core activities' for some respondents.

** Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

Respondents as a whole spent 49% of their time each month on primary activities as contrasted with 43% of time spent on secondary activities. These findings are not surprising since respondents were largely frontline practitioners providing direct services to their clients (see

Section 7.3.4) and it is expected that the bulk of their energies would centre around these primary activities. Also, it is worth noting that in general, the most time per month was being spent on social casework in comparison with all other primary activities.

Interestingly, the most time given to secondary activities seems to centre around staff development: giving supervision (8%); receiving supervision (3%); attending staff meetings (7%); and training staff (6%). Generally, these staff-related secondary activities constituted 24% of all time spent.

Black and white respondents indicated different patterns of activity which tie in with the nature of their jobs presently held (see Table 11). For instance, blacks spent more time on secondary activities than they did on primary activities. Giving supervision (13%) appeared to be a core activity which even exceeded the amount of time spent on social casework (10%). The converse held true for whites: more time was spent on primary activities than on secondary activities. Whites spent the most time doing social casework (30%) and only 3% of time giving supervision.

In conclusion, one has to bear in mind that these findings are in fact the respondents' rough estimates of actual time spent on various activities. Generally, the overall picture is that despite pressing developmental needs, primary service activities seem to have a therapeutic emphasis.

7.5.2.1 Factors which determine respondents' present work activities

In response to Question R, (Appendix C:219) respondents indicated that the following factors, set out in Table 24, were the major determinants of their present social work activity. Respondents were asked to select five factors, but Table 24 reflects the total and the black/white breakdown of all these responses.

Table 24 - Determinants of respondents' work activities

Determinants	Total %	Black %	White %
Agency's own policy	64	70	57
Own personal decision	42	40	43
Work pattern serves client best	34	40	27
Caseload too heavy	33	33	33
Resources inadequate	30	30	30
Work pattern appropriate for agency goal	27	33	20
Work pattern serves organisational efficiency best	24	30	17
State subsidy requirements	22	20	23
Client values the type of services received	22	23	20
Supervisory instructions	20	17	23
Community values the type of services rendered	20	27	13
Supportive supervision/consultation available	20	23	17
Agency board open for professional guidance and expertise	14	17	10
Satisfaction with work pattern	12	13	10
Collegial support offered	12	10	13
Outcome of services rated 'successful' by workers	12	20	03
Staff resistance to change	10	10	10
Tradition	08	03	13
Supportive supervision/consultation not available	08	13	03
Agency board not open for professional guidance and expertise	09	07	10
No professional autonomy	05	07	03
Caseload with manageable limits	05	03	07
Work pattern non-threatening	05	07	03
Resources adequate	05	10	-
Educationally not equipped to work differently	04	-	07
Collegial support not offered	04	-	07
Worker not able to initiate change in work pattern (e.g. lack of 'know-how')	04	-	07
Acceptance of present welfare structure	04	07	-

N=60

N=30

N=30

Multiple responses (totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

The major determinants (those identified by more than 20% of all respondents) may be further classified into:

- (i) those factors over which the social worker has no direct control such as:
 - agency's own policy
 - caseload too heavy
 - resources inadequate
 - state subsidy requirements, and
- (ii) those factors over which the social worker has some measure of personal/professional control such as:
 - own personal decision
 - social worker's belief that work pattern serves client best
 - social worker's belief that work pattern is appropriate for agency goal and organizational efficiency
 - social worker's belief that client values type of services rendered.

It should be noted that those factors over which the social worker has no direct control, do impinge upon and influence those factors which suggest some measure of personal control. However, all these factors are fraught with inherent paradoxes. For example, data in Table 24 suggested that agency policy (as indicated by 64% of all respondents) and state subsidy requirements (22%) were two of the major determinants of respondents' work pattern which, incidentally, is predominantly casework oriented (see Table 23). Such a therapeutically oriented work pattern would appear inappropriate when weighed against the realities of heavy caseloads (33%) and inadequate resources (30%) which were also in themselves major determinants of respondents' work patterns. The issues of cost effective manpower and appropriateness of work patterns are at stake. At the same time those factors classified as being within the ambit of personal/professional control, appear to reinforce the pattern which emerges in the preceding discussion. Respondents claimed professional autonomy, that is, own personal decision as indicated by 42% of the sample; and then proceeded to endorse the other major determinants of work pattern by claiming that the work pattern served client best (34%); that work pattern was appropriate for agency goal (27%), and finally by

believing that the client valued the type of services rendered (22%). Objectively, a therapeutic work orientation may be wholly appropriate in some work settings but perhaps inappropriate in addressing wider developmental needs. The various fields of employment in which respondents work (see Table 11) are largely known for their direct service/therapeutic orientation, which does not preclude the fact that clients also have developmental needs.

Finally, when the nature of those determining factors beyond the immediate control of social workers is assessed, these factors would appear to have a greater objective reality about them than those factors over which social workers have some control.

In conclusion, these determinants suggested by respondents may be justified to some degree. However, it is also possible that respondents may have resorted to some measure of rationalization in order to protect their own professional integrity, or to suggest some element of autonomy. These factors seen in juxtaposition with one another create a jarring dissonance. Even if respondents had the skill to manage bureaucratic/organizational and practice constraints, it remains questionable as to whether they would be motivated and able to intervene in the areas which would bring about a more appropriate work pattern. Thus these findings would have to be viewed with some caution.

7.5.3 Respondents' rating of the outcome of their major work activity

'Success' in social work may be defined in terms of various criteria. In this instance, it is being defined as the respondents' reasonable assessment that social work intervention has assisted with the resolution and/or management of problems presented.

The major work activity was defined as that social work task which takes up the greatest proportion of respondents' time per month. According to Table 24, the largest proportion of time per month is taken up by social casework, followed by community work, report-writing and giving supervision.

Table 25 - Respondents' assessment of the success rate of their major work activity

Success Rate	Total %	Black %	White %
Successful in more than 75% of instances	34	39	29
Successful in more than 50% of instances	47	50	43
Successful in less than 50% of instances	20	11	29
Total *	101	100	101

N=60

N=30

N=30

* Totals are not always 100% because figures are rounded off to whole numbers.

Four-fifths of the sample rate their major work activity as fairly to highly successful and one-fifth rate their work as being successful in less than 50% of instances. Thus, generally, sample respondents seem to be fairly satisfied with the quality of their work.

Blacks (89%) reflect this general trend to a greater degree than whites (72%). These findings are unexpected, in view of earlier indications which suggest that client needs are often only being narrowly defined via therapeutically oriented services (see Section 7.4.2; 7.4.2.1) and that the strongest determinants of work patterns lie beyond the social workers' direct control (see Section 7.5.2.1). Perhaps these findings indicate that respondents were confident in their therapeutic skills despite realising that developmental strategies were lacking in their repertoire.

Of interest, is the number of whites (29%) who rate their work poorly in comparison to only 11% of blacks. Why are whites less satisfied with the quality of their work than blacks? A number of factors may confound the interpretation of these findings. For example, the high level of subjectivity surrounding evaluation of success; respondents' actual work experiences and the nature of their job position and last but not least, the fact that in a racially divided South Africa, black and white social workers could be dealing with different problems and needs.

Finally, it should be noted that the findings reported in this section should be viewed with some circumspection since respondents were making subjective judgements about the outcome of their own work, and moreover, they were making public their assessment to an outsider (the researcher). In such circumstances the possibility of distortion is high.

7.5.3.1 Factors which affect the outcome of respondents' major work activity

In response to Question T (Appendix C:220) respondents were asked to select the three most significant factors affecting the outcome of their major work activity from a choice of forty factors. All those factors which elicited a total response of 17% or more have been arbitrarily identified as 'principal factors' affecting work outcome and have been set out in Table 26, below.

Table 26 - Respondents' identification of principal factors affecting the outcome of their major work activity.

Principal Factors	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Social Worker has some Direct Control</u>			
Social worker competent in major work activity	27	27	27
Client responsive to type of social work intervention	27	20	33
Social worker's belief in appropriateness of work activity	25	20	30
<u>Social Worker has no Direct Control</u>			
Organizational flexibility	24	27	20
Resources not available	19	17	20
Caseload unmanageable	17	13	20
	N=60	N=30	N=30

* Multiple responses (totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded to whole numbers.

Bearing in mind that four-fifths of the sample rated their major work activity as fairly to highly successful and only one-fifth rated the outcome of their work poorly (see Table 25), then it is not surprising that respondents indicated that those factors over which they had some direct control affected their work outcome to a greater degree than those factors over which they had no direct control. Both subgroups supported this trend, whites more so than blacks. However earlier data (see Section 7.5.2.1) suggests the converse, thus rendering these particular findings highly suspect.

In conclusion, it thus becomes apparent that social workers in this sample find it very difficult to objectively appraise the outcome of their work.

7.5.4 The primary focus of respondents' major work activity

Respondents were asked to describe the primary focus of their major work activity in one of the following ways, that is,

- preventive: aimed at prevention of social ills
- promotive: aimed at promotion of optimal functioning of
individuals, families and communities
- therapeutic: treatment/curative approaches offered largely in the
'one to one' or small group situation.

Most respondents recognised that preventive and promotive aspects were not mutually exclusive, but responded to this question in terms of the stronger orientation of their work.

Table 27 : The primary focus of respondents' major work activity

Primary Focus	Total %	Black %	White %
Therapeutic	47	36	57
Preventive	27	32	21
Promotive	27	32	21
Total *	101	100	99
	N=60	N=30	N=30

* Totals not always 100% because figures are rounded off to whole numbers.

Although the above findings suggest a largely therapeutic focus, the preventive and promotive aspects appear to be unexpectedly large when weighed against the actual nature of major social work activities undertaken by respondents (see Section 7.5.2). This statement holds true for both subgroups, particularly blacks who claim an almost equal concentration of therapeutic/preventive/promotive aspects in their work.

7.5.5 The primary areas of knowledge respondents draw upon for their major work activity

Respondents were asked to select from a possibility of 35 choices (see Question V. Appendix C:221), those areas of knowledge which they used in carrying out their major work activity. The major activity was previously defined (see Section 7.5.3) as that social work task which took up the greatest proportion of respondents' time per month (see Table 23).

Data in Table 28 shows the response pattern of the sample in relation to all those knowledge areas which elicited a response of 3% and more.

Table 28 - Primary* areas of knowledge used by respondents in their major work activity

Primary 'Knowledge Areas'	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Knowledge gained from formal professional training</u>			
Social Casework theory	42	33	50
Psychological theory	28	13	43
Community work theory	28	43	13
Knowledge of social work in a specialized field	22	13	30
Group work theory	20	27	13
Systems theory	13	13	13
Organization and management theory	12	13	10
Supervision theory	07	13	-
Crisis intervention theory	05	07	03
Knowledge of the ethics of practice	05	07	03
<u>Knowledge gained from job experiences</u>			
Practice wisdom	17	07	27
Knowledge gained from seminars (other than university)	15	17	13
Knowledge and instruction from supervisors	12	10	13
Knowledge of agency policy and goals	12	13	10
Knowledge received from clients	07	03	10
Knowledge of the way the previous worker did the job	05	07	03

N=60

N=30

N=30

* All those knowledge areas which elicited a 3% and more response from the sample.

** Multiple responses (totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded off to whole numbers.

According to data in Table 28, sample respondents as a whole, and as subgroups, drew primarily on those knowledge areas which they have gained from their professional social work training, rather than from know. ge gained from practice experiences.

There is very little overall difference in the degree to which blacks and whites drew upon knowledge gained from their professional training. Nevertheless, whites who had casework as their major activity much more often than blacks (see Table 22) made considerably more use of social casework and psychological theory, and knowledge of practice within specialized fields. Blacks, despite not differing very greatly from whites in having community and group work as major activities (see Table 22) made much greater use of the theory of these two methods.

Interestingly, slightly more whites than blacks drew upon knowledge gained in practice. This latter fact is somewhat surprising since blacks in this sample have had a longer work record (see Section 7.3.3) than whites. Interestingly, only a small proportion (whites 10%; blacks 13%) drew on 'knowledge of agency policy and goals' in contradiction of earlier data (see Table 24) which indicated that agency policy and goals constituted one of the major determinants of respondents' work activities.

Finally, it appears that respondents were selectively choosing those knowledge areas from their professional training which met the direct service orientation of their jobs in the organizations. Thus the status quo was preserved in direct contrast to earlier expressed wishes (see Section 7.4.3). Whether or not respondents would like to change the present pattern of their social work activities will be explored in the following section.

7.6 Desired practice

7.6.1 Introduction

Respondents' actual practice reality, reported upon earlier, revealed a therapeutically oriented, direct services approach, which in general

was viewed as having been fairly successful. However, respondents also indicated that they were working within the confines of practice constraints and did have an alternative 'vision' of what social work practice should actually be. The following table sets out the average proportion of time respondents would like to spend on various activities.

Table 29 - Average proportion of time respondents would like to spend on various work activities

Social Work Activity	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Primary Activities</u>			
Community work	14	14	14
Group work	12	12	12
Social casework	11	07	15
Family therapy	05	05	05
Report-writing	05	06	04
Crisis-intervention	03	04	02
Sub-total	50	48	52
<u>Secondary Activities</u>			
Giving supervision	09	08	09
Training staff and development	07	10	04
Attending staff meetings	06	05	07
Research activity	05	05	04
Social administration	04	05	03
Liaison with collaterals	04	03	05
Receiving supervision	03	03	03
Telephone/mail/clerical	03	03	03
Travelling	02	02	02
Sub-Total	43	44	40
Unaccounted time	07	08	08
Total	100	100	100

N=60

N=30

N=30

* Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

Data in Table 29 have been classified into:

- (i) primary activities because they related to respondents' primary direct service tasks and
- (ii) secondary activities because they related to activities which enable the primary direct service.

When one compares data in Table 29 with previous data on respondent's actual work activity (see Table 23) then the following trend emerges: firstly, that respondents do not desire major changes to their broad work pattern (that is, division between primary and secondary activities); and secondly, that the changes suggested are indicative of a desired shift in emphasis, that is, doing less casework and according more time to group and community strategies. Thus, in order to bring about the desired changes in their practice, respondents would have to effect change at other levels.

The factors that prevent respondents from carrying out their practice in the way they deem fit, may shed light on respondents' dilemma.

7.6.2 Why respondents are not conducting their practice in the way they think best

From a possibility of 26 factors respondents were asked to rank ('1', '2', or '3') the three most important factors preventing them from conducting their practice in the way they thought best (Question X, Appendix C:222). All those factors which got a total response (that is, total responses irrespective of ranking priority) of 3% and more have been listed in Table 30.

Table 30 - Most important* factors which prevent respondents from conducting their preferred practice

Factors which Prevent Desired Practice	Combined Ranking		
	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Institutional/Organisational Factors</u>			
Agency policy	37	53	20
Organisational resistance to change	18	23	13
Supervisory control	10	13	07
Lack of resources	35	33	37
State subsidy requirements	18	23	13
<u>Discriminatory practice conditions</u>	17	27	07
<u>Sub-Total</u>	135	172	97
<u>Personal/Professional Factors</u>			
Overworked and stressed	37	27	47
Heavy workload leading to 'quick remedy' approach	13	13	13
Lack of training at broader intervention level	12	13	10
<u>Lack of assertiveness</u>	08	03	13
<u>Sub-Total</u>	70	56	83
<u>Total **</u>	205	228	180
	N=60	N=30	N=30

* Those factors which 3% and more respondents chose as being factors which prevent 'desired' practice.

** Multiple responses (totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded off to the nearest numbers.

The factors presented in Table 30 have been classified as institutional/organizational factors which may in themselves be viewed as bureaucratic policy constraints, and personal/professional factors.

Generally, bureaucratic constraints were viewed by respondents as a greater stumbling block to practising effective social work than personal and professional constraints. This held true for both black and white groups but in varying degrees. Blacks for example, experienced more than three times as many bureaucratic constraints than personal/professional constraints; whilst whites experienced these two categories of constraints as impacting more or less equally on their practice (that is, a 14% difference).

When one compares this data with earlier findings (see Table 24) then it becomes apparent that those factors over which respondents had no direct control and which determine present practice are the same factors, that is, institutional/organizational factors (see Table 30) which prevent desired practice. Thus, it may be deduced that if the pattern of South African social work practice is to be changed, then these factors need to be addressed. When respondents were asked about factors contributing to their present work activity (see Section 7.5.3.1); they legitimized their 'successful' role through claims of competence, value of service and autonomy (that is, personal/professional factors).

However, when they were asked about factors which prevented 'better practice' from taking place, they highlighted institutional/organizational factors as having played a greater role than personal/professional deficits. Whether these 'deficits' were real, or 'learned helplessness' it was difficult to assess at that stage. In fact, these personal factors could be indicative of the burn-out syndrome and could in part be due to the element of control emanating from institutional/organizational factor. Burn-out is described as '... a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do 'people work' of some kind' (Maslach, 1982:3).

This same author also suggests that the job setting may be perceived as a source of stress, for example, overload, lack of autonomy, supervisory control, institutional rules, lack of collegial support, agency policy and goals (Maslach, 1982:36;53).

In conclusion, the perceived obstacles to better practice may serve as guidelines for future educational strategies which could aim at developing stress management techniques, and imparting effective policy intervention strategies to equip social workers to address policy constraints.

7.6.3 Respondents' reactions to not being able to conduct their practice in the best possible manner

Having ascertained the degree of change that respondents would like to have initiated in their practice and the factors which prevented them from initiating this change, it would be of interest to highlight respondents' personal coping mechanisms in the face of perceived obstacles. Change agent effectiveness is not only a function of being educationally equipped, but of being motivated to pursue change and of being able to handle stress in a positive manner.

Respondents were requested to indicate their five strongest responses to the situation of not being able to practise in what they regarded to be the best possible manner (Question Y, Appendix C:223). All those responses which elicited a response frequency of 20% and more were earmarked as the strongest reactions. Data was calculated by taking the combined ranked responses and working out the proportions in relation to the total sample, the black sub-sample and the white sub-sample.

Table 31 - Respondents' five strongest reactions to not being able to conduct their preferred practice

Respondents' Strongest Reactions	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Non-Adaptive Responses</u>			
Becoming frustrated	45	37	53
Desiring to change one's job	37	40	33
Considering leaving one's profession	30	20	40
<u>Adaptive Responses</u>			
Feeling challenged	27	33	20
Mobilizing resources for change	27	33	20
	N=60	N=30	N=30

Multiple responses (totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

Table 31 has been further classified into adaptive and non-adaptive responses. The latter include becoming frustrated; desiring to change one's job and considering leaving one's profession. These responses have been described as 'non-adaptive' since they inhibit any desire to initiate meaningful change. Those responses described as 'adaptive' are, 'feeling challenged' and 'mobilizing resources for change' since they are motivating, positive factors.

Respondents, in general, showed a far greater tendency to resort to the non-adaptive responses than to the adaptive responses. This tendency was greater for the white respondents than for the blacks. These findings were congruent with earlier data. One possible reason for the differing reactions may well have been the economic factor, that is, blacks simply could not afford to have left the profession in the same way as whites could (unless financial incentives were more lucrative). Another reason could well be that blacks managed stress more positively than whites.

However, restrictive practice patterns have a ripple effect which extends not only to staff but to clients, agency and the profession as a whole.

7.6.4 Consequences to clients, agency, the profession and the professional staff when respondents are prevented from conducting their social work practice in the best possible manner

Respondents indicated responses which have been classified into four major categories for purposes of quantifying the data. These categories are:

- client needs not being met;
- professions' status diminishes;

- agency not fulfilling its purpose comprehensively;
- staff feeling irrelevant/inadequate in their work.

Table 32 - Major consequences to clients, agency, the profession and professional staff when respondents are unable to conduct their practice in the best possible manner

Consequences	Total %	Black %	White %
Client needs are not being met	85	80	87
Profession's status diminishes	84	67	100
Agency not fulfilling its purpose comprehensively	82	97	67
Staff feeling irrelevant/inadequate in their work	79	87	70
	N=60	N=30	N=30

Multiple responses (totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole numbers.

The great majority of all sample respondents indicated the abovementioned consequences of not having been able to conduct their practice in the way they thought best. Two notable differences in the black and white responses deserve to be mentioned.

All the white respondents indicated that the profession's status diminished, whilst only 67% of blacks indicated this consequence. On the other hand, more blacks (97%) indicated that agency purpose was not being fulfilled adequately in comparison to 67% of whites who forwarded this consequence. Also, blacks felt more irrelevant/inadequate. It appears, therefore, that in regard to professional practice that is not of the highest standard, whites seem more conscious of this leading to a lowering of professional status, while blacks are more concerned with agency resources not being used to its fullest extent. Nevertheless, both subgroups were aware that clients

are the 'casualties' when practice cannot be carried out in the best possible manner.

When the enormity of the consequences described above is viewed in relation to the reasons offered for poor practice, then it could be speculated that this cycle of ineffectiveness is being maintained by a number of other forces. Whether or not professional education and training has contributed towards an ineffective practice is of crucial concern to this study.

The following sections seek to highlight respondents' views on educational priorities and their assessment of the quality of the professional education and training they have received.

7.7 Educational Priorities

There are many ways of evaluating the nature and outcome of a professional preparation for social work, and one of these is to seek the practitioners' own assessment of their educational experience, as well as their views about educational priorities generally. These issues are reported upon in the following section.

7.7.1 Educational priorities which apply to social work

The following list of priorities set out in Table 33 shows those priority statements with which 60% or more of the respondents identified (see Question AA, Appendix C:224).

Table 33 - Respondents' views on major educational priorities

Educational Priorities*	Total %	Black %	White %
South African social work education should locate itself within the socio-political reality of the South African society	99	97	100
Social work educators and social work practitioners should jointly share the responsibility for curriculum planning	94	97	90
The educational focus should be on preparing students equally for counselling/therapeutic <u>and</u> social development roles	84	87	80
The core content of social work education needs revision in the light of practice demands	83	83	83
A specialist course in community work should be developed	82	77	87
There should be a wider range of specialization options at postgraduate level	80	93	67
Government policy and patterns of funding should not determine curriculum priorities	72	70	73
Generic training should be the norm for undergraduate social work education	70	67	73
Multidisciplinary training should receive greater emphasis in social work education	70	63	77
Measures of education effectiveness need refining	68	63	73
Specific content on racism deserves attention in the social work curriculum	65	70	60
	N=60	N=60	N=30

* 60% and more, cut off point

Multiple responses (totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole numbers.

Firstly, it is significant that 60% and more of respondents identified 11 educational priorities (see Table 33) which gave a relative indication of how strongly felt these statements were. Secondly, when analyzing the meaning and content of these statements, five main themes become evident:

- (i) Most priorities seem related to making education more pertinent to South African practice. These educational priorities would be the logical extension of those priority practice issues discussed in previous data (see Section 7.4.3), and in keeping with an array of theoretical literature pertaining to relevance in South African social work (see Section 1.3).
- (ii) Educators and practitioners should jointly be responsible for curriculum planning, and government policy and funding should not be the determinants. This viewpoint may be suggestive of respondents' idea of relevance which is connected (theoretically) to accountability to clients, rather than maintaining an undemocratic and unequal status quo in social work practice. Hence respondents suggested that practitioners know where practice difficulties lie, and could thus meaningfully inform educators.
- (iii) The undergraduate curriculum should prepare generalists, who can work both therapeutically and developmentally, but wider opportunities for specialization should exist at the postgraduate level. These wider options, according to respondents, were developmentally oriented courses such as rural social work and community social work.
- (iv) Community work is considered to be such a priority that respondents' believe a specialist course in this approach is required. As indicated earlier in this chapter, community work and community development strategies were felt needs by social workers faced with various community crises. It could be a foreseeable need that townships would require restructuring and upgrading, not without consulting, planning, and initiating together with community members. Thus social workers would have to have an array of community work skills to equip them to perform as facilitators, catalysts, advocates and brokers in this context.
- (v) More effective ways of evaluating the outcome of social work education are required. Just as social workers would have to be

accountable firstly to the people they serve, so schools of social work are accountable to the students who come for training, and are also answerable to the community into which these graduates are returned.

There appears to have been wide agreement on these priority issues between blacks and whites. There was a difference of more than 10% between the two groups on only three items: blacks emphasized the need for postgraduate specialization courses more than whites, and whites had a greater desire for specialist courses in community work and for multi-disciplinary training.

7.7.1.1 Respondents' selection of the three most important

In response to Question BB (Appendix C:225), respondents were asked to select three educational priorities which schools of social work should take due cognisance of. Forty per cent and more of respondents selected those priorities listed in Table 34 below.

Table 34 - Respondents' choice of the most important educational priorities

Educational Problems	Total %	Black %	White %
Social work education should locate itself within the socio-political reality of the South African society	60	60	60
Social work educators and social work practitioners should jointly share curriculum planning	52	60	43
The educational focus should be on preparing students for counselling/therapeutic and social development roles	40	33	47
Total *	152	153	150
	N=60	N=30	N=30

* Multiple responses (Totals exceed 100%).

These findings confirm an earlier trend noted highlighting once again those focal areas of concern which has been echoed throughout this study thus far.

7.8 Respondents' evaluation of the fourth year curriculum

7.8.1 Introduction

Given the actual nature of their present practice, respondents were asked to rate the effectiveness of their fourth year of study in preparing them for the work they presently undertake.

Table 35 - Respondents' overall assessment of their fourth year of study

Assessment Rating	Total %	Black %	White %
1. Completely ineffective	-	-	-
2. Partially ineffective	6,5	-	13,0
3. Neither effective nor ineffective	13,5	20,0	07,0
4. Partially effective	55,0	37,0	73,0
5. Fully effective	25,0	43,0	07,0
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0
	N=60	N=30	N=30

Respondents assessed their fourth year of study on a Likert Scale ranging from 1-5 (see Table 35). Eighty per cent of the sample rated their fourth year of study fairly highly, that is, from 'partially effective' to 'fully effective'.

Generally, blacks tended to rate their fourth year of study more favourably than whites, for example, 43% of blacks as compared with 7% of whites who rated their course 'fully effective'. Also no blacks rated their studies 'partially ineffective' whilst 13% of whites did so.

What accounts for the black/white differences in the rating of their fourth year of study? Previous data may offer some insights: blacks had come into the fourth year of study with a background of work

experience whilst the majority of whites had comparatively very little work experience. This fact may well contribute towards blacks being better able to make a more mature assessment. However, blacks may be biased in their assessment ('halo effect') since the majority saw their Wits education as being superior to their previous education received at a black, ethnic university. However, it is not objectively possible to compare an undergraduate with a postgraduate educational experience. Also, the effectiveness of training has to be viewed in relation to the actual work patterns of both sub-groups (see Table 23) and the fact that respondents drew upon therapeutically oriented theories to suit the nature of their work pattern (see Table 28).

Thus, it may be concluded, that the fourth year of study effectively equipped graduates to practice in a direct service, therapeutic welfare milieu. The problem arises when respondents suggested an alternative welfare orientation that is, more responsive to serving basic needs and therefore more developmental rather than therapeutic in approach; then, training was felt to be lacking (see Tables 33 and 34).

7.8.2 The effectiveness of various curriculum aspects of the fourth year of study

Respondents were asked to assess the effectiveness of various curriculum aspects of their fourth year of study. It was hoped that data would provide the necessary insights to plan for meaningful educational amendment and/or innovation in the future.

Table 36: Respondents' rating of the effectiveness of various aspects of the fourth year curriculum

Aspects of the Curriculum	Total %		Black %		White %	
	E/S*	N.E.*	E/S	N.E.	E/S	N.E.
<u>PRIMARY SOCIAL WORK ACTIVITIES</u>						
<u>Theory</u>						
Social casework theory	90	08	93	03	87	13
Group work theory	92	02	93	-	90	03
Community work theory	90	09	90	07	90	10
Theory - specialized field	57	33	57	26	57	40
Crisis intervention theory	79	18	80	13	77	23
<u>Practice Skills</u>						
Social casework practice skill	84	14	90	07	77	20
Group work practice skill	89	07	90	03	87	10
Community work practice skill	67	28	80	13	53	43
Practice skill in a specialized field	60	30	57	26	63	33
Practice skill in crisis intervention	45	32	67	20	23	43
<u>SECONDARY SOCIAL WORK ACTIVITIES</u>						
<u>Theory</u>						
Social work research theory	80	17	87	07	73	26
Professional education	59	20	57	10	60	30
Supervision theory	74	19	87	-	60	37
Organisational and management theory	40	50	43	37	37	63
Social work administration theory	55	38	67	26	43	50
Social work and South African law	50	44	50	40	50	47
Identification: Constraints of S.A. practice	52	17	43	37	60	37
Ethics of social work practice	42	-	43	37	40	50
<u>Practice Skills</u>						
Social work research practice skill	68	29	73	20	63	37
Education practice skill	60	25	77	03	43	47
Opportunity to give supervision	67	25	80	07	53	43
Opportunity to receive supervision	84	09	87	-	80	17
Practice skill in managing organizational constraints	39	55	40	50	37	60
Social work administration practice skill	52	43	70	23	33	63
Practice skill in managing practice constraints	47	50	57	43	37	57

N=60 N=60 N=30 N=30 N=30 N=30

Multiple responses (Totals exceed 100%).

Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

* E/S = combined 'effective' and 'satisfactory' response frequencies.

* N.E. = 'not effective' response frequency.

Data in Table 36 have been broadly classified into primary social work activities, that is, theories and practice skill areas which pertain to direct client service delivery and secondary social work activities, that is, theories and practice skill areas which support and enhance client service delivery.

A distinct pattern emerges in aspects of the fourth year educational experience that graduates evaluate as successful or unsuccessful. Firstly, two-thirds or more of respondents considered their education to have been 'effective' or 'satisfactory' in the theory and practice of the primary methods of social casework, social group work, community work, the theory of crisis intervention; as well as in the secondary methods of social work research and supervision theory (including the practice skill components of these latter two areas).

Secondly, close to one-third and more of respondents believed their education to have been 'not effective' in some areas that may have been considered critical to their effective functioning in specific jobs in South African social work practice. These included the theory and practice of social work administration; organizational and management theory and theory to identify practice constraints, as well as the skill in managing both organizational and practice constraints; social work ethics and social work and the law.

Finally, in all instances, white respondents were more likely than blacks to rate particular aspects of their education as 'not effective'. It should be remembered, however, that many more white respondents came to their fourth year of study at a younger age than blacks, and often - unlike most blacks - without experience of social work practice. It appears therefore, that fourth year students who are older and more experienced in practice may be better able to gain more from this year of education, and consequently evaluate it as being more effective. Some of the reasons why respondents rated this course as effective will be explored in the next section.

7.8.2.1 Why respondents rated curriculum aspects as effective

The unstructured responses which were elicited from the sample,

suggesting why respondents rated various curriculum items as 'effective', were quantified by means of a classification procedure. All responses were classified according to the 'reasons' listed in Table 37 below.

Table 37 - Reasons why respondents rated their curriculum as being effective

Reasons for an 'Effective' Rating	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Practice Relevance</u>			
Content perceived as useful/relevant in practice	31	30	31
Actual experience of theory/practice integration	25	28	21
<u>Content Presentation</u>			
Course comprehensively dealt with	20	16	24
Course also presented in a non-didactic manner	10	05	14
<u>Professional Growth</u>			
Course promoted professional growth	15	20	10
Total *	101	99	100

N=60

N=30

N=30

* Totals exceed 100% because figures are rounded off to the nearest whole number.

The reasons into which all responses were classified were further sub-divided into those reasons which pertain to practice relevance; content presentation and professional growth (see Table 37).

More than half (56%) of all reasons offered by respondents as influencing their rating were attributed to practice relevance. Thus, respondents were largely rating effectiveness in terms of how useful/meaningful theory could be in practice.

The second major category of reasons (i.e. 30%) were related to the manner in which course content was presented. Finally, it would appear that the promotion of professional growth in a course was also an important aspect to be considered. There were no significant black/white differences in this response pattern.

It will be recalled that the curriculum areas with which respondents were most satisfied related to core areas of basic professional practice methodology, both theory and practice (see Table 36), and that present data in this section supports the importance of theory and skills that can be used in practice and perceived as relevant.

7.8.2.2 Why respondents rated various curriculum aspects as not effective

Unstructured responses to Questions FF (Appendix C:227) were classified into the following six major categories of reasons:

- 'course not perceived as useful and relevant'
- 'no perceived experience of theory and practice integration'
- 'course dealt with superficially'
- 'course not interestingly presented'
- 'inability to recall content'
- 'course did not contribute towards professional growth'

Table 38 - Why respondents rated curriculum aspects as not effective

Reasons	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Practice Relevance</u>			
Course not perceived as useful and relevant	32	38	25
No perceived experience of theory/practice integration	12	02	21
<u>Content Presentation</u>			
Course dealt with superficially	29	30	28
Course not interestingly presented	06	06	06
<u>Professional Growth</u>			
Course did not contribute to professional growth	09	08	10
Other 'inability to recall content'	14	17	10
Total *	102	101	100

	N=60	N=30	N=30
No. of responses	137	53	84

* Totals exceed 100% because figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

As for the previous section, the reasons in Table 38 were similarly

further classified into practice relevance; content presentation and professional growth reasons. It would appear from data in Table 38 that respondents have used more or less the same criteria for rating their courses effective as well as for rating them not effective. Also, the largest proportion of reasons for rating a course not effective was attributed to practice relevance (44%), followed by content presentation (35%) and professional growth (9%); and lastly the inability to recall (14%). Both subgroups approximated this general trend with whites indicating a greater lack of practice relevance in their course items than blacks. Of particular note, is the high proportion (21%) of reasons, that whites attributed to 'no perceived experience of theory/practice integration' in comparison with blacks (2%). However, it has to be remembered that whites had had little, if any, work experience behind them at this stage.

Bearing in mind that the curriculum areas with which respondents were least satisfied, were those that were potentially directly useful to them in particular work situations, then two major circumstances reported in Table 38 assume added significance. For example, was some course material dealt with superficially because, within time constraints educators gave maximum time allocation to core social work methodology? An analysis of the course outlines (see Appendices E to T) provides conflicting evidence.

7.8.3 Assessment of professional education in relation to various competency areas

Baer and Federico (1978:85-89), in providing educational guidelines for the completion of a successful Baccalaureate programme suggest ten competency areas against which social work students should be assessed. They also imply that schools of social work should effectively prepare students for competency in these major areas. It is suggested that these competency areas may also have direct relevance for the South African situation. Although South African students are not directly assessed against the Baer and Federico's competency schedule as such, they are being prepared for competency in these areas to a lesser or greater degree in the course of their training. Respondents in this sample are thus assessing the school of social work's effectiveness in preparing them for competency (at postgraduate level) in these areas (see Table 39).

Table 39 - Respondents' ratings of their educational preparedness for competency in the following competency areas

Competency areas	Total: Mean Score	Black: Mean Score	White: Mean Score
<u>Direct Client Services Skills</u>			
(a) To identify and assess situations where the relationship between people and social institutions needs to be initiated, enhanced, restored or terminated	4,0	4,1 *(1 to 5)	3,9 (1 to 5)
(b) To develop and implement a plan for improving the well-being of people based on problem assessment and the exploration of obtainable goals and available options	4,0	4,2 (1 to 5)	3,8 (1 to 5)
(c) To enhance the problem-solving coping and developmental capacities of people	4,0	4,4 (1 to 5)	3,7 (1 to 5)
(d) To link people with systems that provide them with resources, services and opportunities	3,8	4,2 (1 to 5)	3,5 (1 to 5)
<u>Social Action Skills</u>			
(e) To intervene effectively on behalf of populations most vulnerable and discriminated against	2,6	2,8 (1 to 5)	2,5 (1 to 5)
(f) To promote the effective and humane operation of the systems that provide people with services, resources and opportunities	2,9	3,0 (1 to 5)	2,9 (1 to 5)
(g) To actively participate with others in creating new, modified or improved service, resource or opportunity systems that are more equitable, just and responsive to consumers of services, and work with others to eliminate those systems that are unjust	3,2	3,1 (1 to 5)	3,3 (1 to 5)
<u>Professional Self and Service Evaluation Skills</u>			
(h) To evaluate the extent to which the objectives of the intervention plan were achieved	3,6	3,8 (1 to 5)	3,5 (1 to 5)
(i) To continually evaluate one's professional growth and development through assessment of practice behaviour and skills	3,7	3,7 (1 to 5)	3,7 (1 to 5)
<u>Research and Ethical Social Work Practice Skills</u>			
(j) To contribute to the improvement of service delivery by adding to the knowledge base of the profession as appropriate and by supporting and upholding the standards and ethics of the profession	3,7	3,7 (1 to 5)	3,7 (1 to 5)

* (1-5) = range (Likert scale)

- competency areas (a), (b), (c) and (d) (see Table 39) were classified as DIRECT CLIENT SERVICE PRACTICE SKILLS since these areas of competence were rated and understood within the context of a therapeutically oriented, direct services approach;
- competency areas (e), (f) and (g) (see Table 39) were classified as SOCIAL ACTION SKILLS, since these areas of competence were understood and identified as such by the respondents. Also, these competency areas presuppose broader intervention skills and include skills such as advocacy and brokerage;
- competency areas (h) and (i) (see Table 39) were classified as PROFESSIONAL SELF AND SERVICE EVALUATION SKILLS, since they pertain to self evaluation and service evaluation;
- and finally, competency area (j) (see Table 39) was classified singularly as RESEARCH SKILL AND SKILL IN ETHICAL PRACTICE OF SOCIAL WORK since this area of competency presupposes the ability to add to social work's knowledge base and a firm commitment to the profession's ethical foundation.

A five-point Likert scale ranging from completely ineffective to fully effective was used:

5	4	3	2	1
fully	partially	neither	partially	completely
effective	effective	effective nor	ineffective	ineffective
		ineffective		

Data in Table 39 was calculated by computing the main scores for the black and white subgroup, and finally for the total sample. When one compares competency categories as delineated in Table 39, then the highest mean ratings are in the direct client service practice skill category. Respondents even rated professional self and service evaluating skills and research and ethical practice skills higher than

social action skills. The black and white trends approximated each other and reflected the general trend, although it was notable that blacks consistently rated direct practice skills competency higher than their white colleagues, perhaps because of the circumstances identified earlier.

The three competency areas which particularly call for social action skills are:

- To intervene effectively on behalf of populations most vulnerable and discriminated against;
- To promote the effective and humane operation of the systems that provide people with services, resources and opportunities;
- To actively participate with others in creating new, modified or improved service, resource or opportunity systems that are more equitable, just and responsive to consumers of services, and work with others to eliminate those systems that are unjust.

When one analyzes the nature of the aforementioned social action skills then the importance of networking, of advocacy and of brokerage becomes apparent. Also three crucial South African welfare facts are directly related to these competency areas, namely:

- that institutionalized racism has unfairly disadvantaged black welfare recipients (Small, 1987; Lowe, 1985; Cohen, 1984);
- that maximum use of existing welfare resources are not being fully exploited (Report on the New Welfare Policy Workshop, 1987);
- that more resources are needed to meet the growing developmental needs of the population (Patel, 1989; Slabbert, 1983).

In the light of the aforementioned, it is disconcerting to note the low mean ratings for these very pertinent competency areas (see Table 39). Has social work education and training unwittingly fallen into the trap of preparing students for jobs in organizations which promote or sanction therapeutic/maintenance roles? On the other hand, students may have been prepared for developmental roles to some extent, but might not have had the confidence or the actual training ground in which they could flex these social action skills.

Perhaps social work practitioners and educators have to be re-educated into thinking about social action as an important way of practising social work in the South African context, rather than seeing it as a risky option for the radicals.

Generally, it would seem that education and training has not as yet given sufficient weight to the necessary developmental skills which beginning social workers think they require, and has therefore failed to prepare these students in crucial areas of South African social work practice.

7.9 Suggestions for a 'better fit' between education and practice

7.9.1 Introduction

The search for a meaningful integration between theory and practice in social work is confounded by many constraints (see Chapter 1). Thus, when a 'goodness of fit' between theory and practice is considered, then no absolutes are being indicated, but rather that social work practice should be meaningfully informed by theory and vice versa. The ideal of education and training is to train not only for present, pragmatic demands, but also for future practice. Achieving the right balance between a future-oriented educational preparation which is at the same time rooted in the present, is no mean feat.

Hence, a careful analysis of the needs of practice and the relevant educational preparation for these needs is crucial to a reasonable 'goodness of fit'.

Table 40, represents respondents' views on how to improve this 'fit' between theory and practice.

Table 40 - Respondents' choice of statements* contributing towards a 'better fit'

Statements*	Total %	Black %	White %
<u>Core Skills and Theory Related to Primary Tasks</u>			
More community work practice skills	90	93	87
More group work practice skills	69	77	60
More casework practice skills	65	67	63
More community work theory	52	53	50
More group work theory	34	40	27
More casework theory	24	27	20
<u>Theory and Skills to Address Socio-political Context</u>			
More contextualization of social work practice, i.e. address First/Third World	80	83	77
Social work theory and practice in macro issues	77	77	77
Educate students for non-racialism in welfare	77	83	70
Train students to work with all indigenous groups	75	77	73
Community organisation as a specialist course	75	77	73
Practice skill in resolving ethical dilemmas	44	50	37
Rural social work theory	57	53	60
Rural social work practice	55	60	50
<u>Theory and Skill to Manage Organisational and Practice Constraints</u>			
Practice skill in affecting organisational change	78	83	73
Work problem management skills - large caseloads	67	57	77
Work problem management skills - scarce resources	63	63	63
Theory on organisations	40	43	37
<u>Theory and Skills Related to Secondary and Associated Tasks</u>			
More research into practice needs	77	83	70
More research into practice skills	62	77	47
More social work administrative practice skill	60	67	53
More opportunity to give supervision	57	57	57
More supervision theory	52	50	53
More opportunity to receive supervision	44	47	40
More research theory	39	40	37
More social work administrative theory	39	37	40
<u>Liaison</u>			
Increased liaison with practitioners	67	63	70

N=60 N=30 N=30

- * All those statements which elicited a total response of 20% and more. Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole number. Multiple responses (Totals exceed 100%).

It should be remembered that Table 40 was constructed from data obtained in response to Question HH (Appendix C:229) of the research schedule, where respondents could mark every item with which they strongly agreed. Nevertheless, insight is gained by examining those items indicated by large numbers of respondents.

Of the eight items that could lead to a better 'fit' between theory and practice, as indicated by 75% or more of respondents, most related to the sample's earlier noted wishes:

- to practise a more relevant social work (see Sections 7.4.2; 7.4.2.1);
- to resolve practice constraints affecting their present work (see Tables 24; 30);
- to emphasize community skills training (see Tables 33; 36);
- to gain skills in effecting organizational change (see Tables 36; 40);
- to contextualize social work in South Africa by educating students to work on macro-issues, non-racially, and with all indigenous groups (see Tables 21; 33).

Moreover, in respondents' opinion, schools of social work could inform themselves of these practice needs by conducting research in this respect.

The top priorities of respondents as a whole suggested more input in curriculum areas, which would help graduates to become more relevant with regard to priority needs in the South African context (see Sections 7.4.2; 7.7.1; 7.7.1.1).

When one considers those priority statements which were indicated by less than three-quarters but more than two-thirds of respondents then a similar trend emerges: more problem management skills regarding heavy caseloads and scarce resources is called for; more communication with practitioners so that practice needs become evident; and more group work practice skill. This latter statement is surprising in the light of previous data which suggest that core skills had been adequately given (see Table 36). However, when the distinction is made between therapeutic and developmental group work

approaches then the developmental deficits in group work skills could explain the paradox.

Black and white respondents reflect the general trend discussed above, with seven areas in which there is a 10% or more difference of opinion as to the strength of these priority statements. More blacks confirmed the need for: more group work theory; more practice skill in resolving ethical dilemmas; more rural social work practice skill; practice skill in affecting organizational change; more research practice skill and more social work administration practice skill. Twenty per cent more whites than blacks indicated the need for more problem management skills regarding large caseloads. These differences may be attributed to the practice situations respondents find themselves in and to their abilities (or lack of abilities) in resolving their practice dilemmas.

7.9.2 Most important factors chosen by respondents as contributing towards a 'better fit' and the reasons for their choice

Respondents were asked to select three items from forty-two possibilities (Question HH, Appendix C:229). However, all those factors which elicited a total response of 15% or more are presented for consideration in Table 41 below.

Table 41 - The most important* factors chosen by respondents as contributing towards a 'better fit'

Most Important Factors re 'better fit'	Total %	Black %	White %
More contextualization of social work practice i.e. relating social work to the South African socio-political context	42	47	37
Social work theory and practice in macro issues like poverty, housing, health and unemployment	35	40	30
More community work practice skill	25	23	27
More problem management skills - re large caseloads and scarce resources	22	10	33
Increased liaison with practitioners	20	17	23
More research into practice needs	17	23	10

N=60

N=30

N=30

* Those statements eliciting a total response of 15% or more. Multiple responses (Totals exceed 100%). Figures have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

These six factors are almost identical to those factors highlighted by 75% or more of respondents in the preceding section. Thus, these suggestions for a better 'fit' carry extra weight since they are doubly endorsed. Also respondents' choice of factors are consonant with earlier views expressed regarding practice issues (Section 7.4.3) and educational priorities (Section 7.7).

Respondents' motivations for choosing these factors reflect earlier noted trends, for example:

- Respondents affirmed their belief that social work practice should be contextualized within its socio-political context. By this they meant that practice cannot be divorced from the hopes, aspirations, and needs of all South Africans irrespective of race, colour or creed. Precisely in this context, social work practice is viewed as a change agent, being actively involved in transforming and renewing society.
- It follows therefore that social work practice and social work education should, in the view of respondents, be geared towards a contextualized, holistic understanding of South Africa's welfare problems, which would include both First and Third World realities. Thus, basic needs such as housing, food and employment should become priority areas of concern. At present, as respondents have indicated, social work practice is still very much entrenched in a therapeutic orientation.
- Community work skill, which includes social action techniques of advocacy, networking and brokerage, was viewed by respondents as a necessary educational strategy with which every social worker should be equipped in order to meet the needs of a society in transition.
- Respondents expressed the hope that scarce resources and heavy caseloads would be better addressed once structural changes have been made, that is, restructuring South Africa's welfare system so that existing resources can serve both therapeutic and developmental functions; using social work strategies which are not 'casework-bound' and which are appropriate to client needs. At the same time, respondents realistically saw the need to address these practice constraints in the present context.

- Respondents suggested that greater liaison between practitioners and educators may encourage exchange/debate about practice problems and how they could be addressed. It is acknowledged that education does not have all the answers to the problems which beset practice.
- Respondents suggested that research carried out by practitioners and educators would improve the 'fit' between education and practice.

In conclusion, when one critically assesses the nature of respondents' suggestions and motivations outlined above, then this study has come full circle. It has returned to the point of dysjuncture between present practice and present societal needs.

7.10 Summary

Most of the respondents in this sample were practising as frontline practitioners, carrying out therapeutically oriented direct client services within the context of traditional welfare organizations. Almost all of the respondents identified with the ideal of a social work practice which encompassed both therapeutic and developmental services and which could be delivered within a non-racial and democratic welfare system. However, respondents seemed ill-equipped to manage the existing constraints (institutional, organizational) in a professional manner. An assessment of their professional education and training revealed a solid foundation in all the methods of social work with some deficiencies in crucial areas. For example, respondents claimed that they lacked the theory and practice to change the existing constraining situation in South African social work practice. Nevertheless, respondents acknowledged that educational preparation is not the only answer to South Africa's present welfare/social work situation. Broad structural changes in the socio-economic and political dimensions are prerequisites for other meaningful changes to occur. Within this broad framework, social work education and training is but one of the many vehicles for the change process. Thus the challenge for schools of social work is to equip their graduates with the necessary knowledge, values and skills which would enable them to practise social work meaningfully, and appropriately in a changing context.

CHAPTER 8

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter will present and discuss (in a summarized form), the major findings of this study in relation to its aims and assumptions. Where applicable, reference will be made to relevant literature. The major conclusions and recommendations will be presented as a logical outflow of the principal findings.

8.2 The aims

The aims of the study were as follows:

Aim (1)

To establish:

- (i) a profile of social work graduates' work histories;
- (ii) their perception of social work;
- (iii) the nature of their present work tasks, and whether or not they believe these tasks to be appropriate;
- (iv) the nature of social work graduates' work circumstances, especially in relation to:
 - the bureaucratic settings of social work practice
 - the system of supervisory control over practitioners
 - the availability of resources, both tangible and intangible
 - the institutionalized racism in the welfare field;
- (v) whether or not their professional education and training has prepared them to carry out their work tasks and to function effectively within their work circumstances.

Aim (2)

To analyze the fourth year social work curriculum, offered at the University of the Witwatersrand, for the purpose of identifying its nature and the core body of knowledge, values and skills with which professional social work education seeks to equip each graduate for 'beginning practice competence'.

Aim (3)

On the basis of data obtained from Aim (1) and Aim (2) above, to formulate educational and training strategies which would address present and future practice.

8.3 Major assumptions and rationale

The study was motivated by the following hypothetical assumptions:

- (i) It was suspected that social work education and training may not have equipped graduates with that knowledge and skills to deal adequately with practice constraints in a professional manner.
- (ii) It was further suspected that social work education at a liberal, open university in South Africa, equips graduates with egalitarian principles, but not with the necessary skills to challenge and change those practice realities which bar these very principles from being realized.
- (iii) It was suspected that social work education equips graduates with that knowledge and skills to intervene in social situations with a therapeutic rather than social change focus.
- (iv) It was assumed that graduates are equipped for a social work practice which is geared primarily towards meeting First World, rather than Third World needs (that is, therapeutic roles have been over-emphasized and developmental roles have not received sufficient attention).
- (v) It was suspected that all social workers would experience some lack of 'fit' between their educational preparation and their practice realities. However, it was assumed that black social workers, who are more likely to be serving developmentally disadvantaged communities, would experience a greater lack of 'fit' than their white counterparts.

Aim (3)

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- (iii) It was suspected that social work education equips graduates with that knowledge and skills to intervene in social situations with a therapeutic rather than social change focus.
- (iv) It was assumed that graduates are equipped for a social work practice which is geared primarily towards meeting First World, rather than Third World needs (that is, therapeutic roles have been over-emphasized and developmental roles have not received sufficient attention).
- (v) It was suspected that all social workers would experience some lack of 'fit' between their educational preparation and their practice realities. However, it was assumed that black social workers, who are more likely to be serving developmentally disadvantaged communities, would experience a greater lack of 'fit' than their white counterparts.

8.4 Summary presentation and discussion of findings

8.4.1 A profile of social work graduates and their work histories

- (i) A random sample of sixty graduates was drawn from a population of 252 social work graduates of the University of the Witwatersrand, who had qualified during the period 1979-1986 inclusive (see Sections 6.3.1.1 and 6.6). The sample was further stratified into a black sub-sample (30) and a white sub-sample (30), for purposes of testing out assumptions related to black/white differences (see Section 8.3). Sample respondents comprised two males and 58 females (see Section 7.2.1). The fact that all respondents had successfully completed their fourth year of social work studies at the same school of social work (see Section 7.2.6) during a specific period of time, served as a baseline for comparison.

- (ii) The mean age for the sample, as a whole, at the time of the study was 35,9 years; for blacks it was 40,1 years and for whites it was 31,7 years (see Section 7.2.1). Since blacks had graduated with their first social work qualification much earlier than whites (see Section 7.2.2) and had subsequently practised as social workers before returning to a fourth year of social work studies (see Section 7.2.5), they subsequently also had more work experience than whites. This factor may allow blacks to make more mature assessments about their practice realities than whites. On the other hand previous research seems to suggest a contrary trend. For example, older personnel in organizational contexts indicate a tendency to become less critical of bureaucratic constraints than their younger, less experienced colleagues (Brager and Holloway, 1978; Toren, 1969).

- (iii) Respondents showed variations in the kinds of training institutions they attended for their first qualifications and in the nature of the fourth year qualifications they gained.

The majority of blacks (63%) had gained their first social work qualification from black, rural and not so long established institutions (Extension of University Education Act, 1959), while all of the white sample (except one), gained their qualifications at predominantly white, urban, established institutions (see Section 7.2.4). It is postulated that the nature of the learning environments may have impacted on the quality of the educational and training experiences of graduates (Jackson, 1976/1977; Meyer, 1974).

Furthermore, although three fourth year qualification options, that is, the BA (Social Work) four year degree, the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice and the BA (Social Work) (Honours) were available during the period under survey, it was interesting to note that 83% of blacks gained the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice (see Section 7.2.6). Fifty per cent of whites had gained the 'straight' BA (Social Work) four year degree, with smaller proportions (almost equal) gaining the 'Honours' and the 'Higher Diploma'.

Generally, all respondents valued the academically demanding Honours degree much more than the other options, despite the fact that all three qualifications had a similar course content.

Respondents who did not pursue the Honours degree may have not been eligible (a 68% minimum pass mark in the Social Work III course was required), or may have chosen a more practice-oriented qualification.

- (iv) Two findings which directly indicated a loss/wastage of social work manpower related to respondents' job turnover patterns and their tendency to take non-social work jobs. Thirteen per cent of all the 202 jobs held by respondents, since they gained their professional qualification, were non-social work jobs. Whites (18%) reflected this trend more than blacks (8%) (see section 7.3.2). Whites may have been responding to a situation in which

they were unable to find better positions within the social work profession (see Section 7.3.8.1, Table 18). Blacks, on the other hand cited 'finding a better position' as one of the reasons for terminating their jobs (see Section 7.3.8.1). This disturbing trend of opting for non-social work jobs, was manifested already early in respondents' work careers (see Section 7.3.4, Table 11).

The mean job length for the sample was 2,74 years. Blacks revealed a longer mean job length (3,6 years) than whites (1,84 years) (see Section 7.3.3). Some of the factors which many have accounted for the greater job stability amongst blacks may be related to the following: that they were older (see Section 7.2.1); that they held more senior positions (see Section 7.3.4); that they had more persons dependent on their salaries (see Section 7.2.7); and may not have been able to risk as many job changes as their white colleagues. Respondents in this sample reflect a longer mean job length than those reflected in earlier studies (Comaroff, 1978; McKendrick, 1969:203). Nevertheless, respondents' frequent job changing and the loss of their social work manpower to other professions militates against their potential development in becoming experienced, senior social workers. Thus this situation does not augur well for the profession. Factors which may contribute to this disquieting trend may emanate from respondents' work circumstances. For example, some of the major reasons for respondents terminating their jobs are related to 'dissatisfaction with work and salary conditions' (see Section 7.3.8.1).

- (v) Respondents were mainly employed in five spheres of social work practice, namely: the child and family, industrial, medical, school and statutory fields (see Section 7.3.5). The three most popular fields in which respondents had their first jobs, that is, the child and family, medical and statutory fields, were noted for being the main training ground for beginner social workers (Comaroff, 1978; Auret, 1970; Helm, 1964). The school and industrial fields were both more recently established spheres

of South African social work, hence the relatively small proportion of respondents who had their first jobs in these spheres.

Notable differences as regards black/white choices of their first jobs were that whites (37%) were concentrated in the medical field, whilst blacks (36%) were concentrated in the statutory field (see Section 7.3.5, Table 12). Since the majority of whites had their first jobs subsequent to their fourth year of training, they were probably better equipped to cope with specialized settings than their black colleagues. Blacks who had their first jobs after their three year qualification probably sought or were offered generic-orientated employment in the child and family, and statutory fields.

- (vi) The average length of respondents' jobs varied according to their different practice settings. For example average job length for first jobs in the three most popular fields were as follows:

mean job length in the statutory field	- 3,04 years
mean job length in the child and family field	- 2,87 years, and
mean job length in the medical field	- 1,1 years

(see Section 7.3.6.1).

The low average number of years spent doing medical social work may be due to the locum tenens positions held by respondents.

With the exception of jobs in the child and family field, mean first job length for blacks was greater than for whites and this tendency was at its strongest in statutory social work (see Table 12).

As regards present jobs, the mean job lengths in the child and family, medical and statutory fields are 4,2; 3,9 and 2,8 years respectively (see Section 7.3.6.2). From this, it may be concluded that all respondents had become considerably more stable in their present jobs than they were in their first jobs. There was no field in which whites had a greater mean 'present' job duration than blacks.

8.4.2 Respondents' perceptions of social work's purposes and their views on current practice issues

- (i) Respondents were asked to prioritize the four purposes as outlined by the New Curriculum Policy Statement of the Council on Social Work Education (U.S.A., 1985) (see Section 7.4). Interestingly, respondents attributed the most importance to direct service functions, followed by community work and administrative activities, social action activities, and last of all, the development and testing of knowledge and skills to facilitate these purposes. Both black and white sub-groups supported this general trend with blacks identifying with the general trend more strongly than whites. Thus, more emphasis is being given to direct service itself, rather than to activities which might enhance the quality of these services. Given the South African reality of a fragmented, unequal and inefficient service delivery (Report on the New Welfare Policy Workshop, 1987) and the constraining effects of a contentious welfare policy/welfare system (see Section 1.3), then these findings appear puzzling. However, respondents may in fact be reflecting the reality, rather than the ideal of how social work purposes should be prioritized in the South African context. The factors which shaped respondents' perceptions about social work's purposes may shed light on the aforementioned findings.
- (ii) The factors which respondents' indicated shaped their perceptions of social work purposes appear to be contradictory at first glance (see Section 7.4.1.1, Table 20). The various factors which have impacted on respondents' perceptions have been subsumed under the following categories:
- practice-related influences
 - civil unrest-related influences
 - personal and familial experiences
 - university education and related experiences
 - media and travel influences, and
 - group affiliations and related influences (see Table 20).

When these factors are analyzed, then it is possible to understand why respondents are reluctant to pursue the wider purposes of social work as outlined by the New Curriculum Policy Statement (see Section 7.4.1, Table 19). Despite knowing that both policy intervention and basic restructuring of the social service delivery system were important considerations, respondents may have been deterred from acting on their beliefs, for fear of reprisal (civil unrest-related influences constitute the second major category of factors which shape respondents' idea of social work's purpose). Thus the repressive nature of South African society (Patel, 1987) at the time this study was conducted, may have influenced these ambiguous responses.

- (iii) An examination of all respondents' views on current social work practice (those items which elicited a response of 50% or more) revealed the following trends (see Section 7.4.2, Table 21):
 - (a) sample respondents indicated the need for a more equitable and democratic welfare practice which is suggestive of an ideological shift in present welfare policy (Patel, 1988; 1987; Small, 1987; Cohen, 1984);
 - (b) those issues related to client and community needs with which respondents identified are indicative of an aspiration to address broader social needs which respondents believe ordinary people regard as priorities (housing, unemployment, health and poverty) (Wilson and Ramphela, 1989; Schlemmer et al., 1989; De Beer, 1984; Seedat, 1984);
 - (c) respondents indicated a preference for a developmental approach strategy, rather than a one-sided therapeutic oriented approach (Slabbert, 1983; Midgley, 1981);
 - (d) the majority of sample respondents indicated that they did not feel educationally equipped to meet the needs of a changing South African practice (Small, 1987; Cohen, 1984).

Both black and white groups identify strongly with the aforementioned viewpoints which indicated a desire for a major

shift in welfare policy and welfare practices. Also implied by respondents, is a corresponding shift in educational preparation to meet desired practice approaches.

Respondents' choice of the four most important priority practice issues (see Section 7.4.2.1, Table 22) are:

- (a) racial division in social welfare perpetuates less adequate services to persons of colour;
- (b) social work in South Africa should not be non-political;
- (c) the developmental approach serves the majority of client needs;
- (d) social workers are not educationally equipped to meet the needs of a changing South African practice (see Section 7.4.2.1).

When these findings are viewed in relation to the findings on social work's purposes (see Sections 7.4; 7.4.1.1) then the nature of respondents' ambiguity becomes more acute.

8.4.3 Respondents' work tasks and work circumstances

- (i) Respondents as a whole spend 51% of their time each month on primary activities (social casework, community work, report-writing, group work, crisis intervention, family therapy) as contrasted with 44% of time spent on secondary activities (giving supervision, attending staff meetings, training and staff development, social administration, travelling, receiving supervision, liaison with collaterals, research activity and clerical tasks) (see Section 7.5.2).

These findings are not surprising since respondents are largely frontline practitioners providing direct services to clients (see Section 7.3.4) and it would be expected that the bulk of their energies would centre around these primary activities. Also, in general, most time per month is spent on social casework in comparison with all other primary activities. Approximately 24% of all time spent per month is allocated to secondary activities

which are staff-related, that is, giving supervision (8%); receiving supervision (3%); attending staff meetings (7%); and training staff (6%) (see Section 7.5.2).

Blacks and whites indicate different patterns of activity which are commensurate with their present job positions (see Section 7.3.4, Table 11). For instance, blacks spend more time on secondary activities than they do on primary activities. Giving supervision appears to be a core activity which even exceeds the amount of time spent on casework. The converse holds true for whites. These findings have to be viewed for what they are, that is, rough estimates of actual time spent on various activities. Nevertheless, the overall picture is somewhat alarming when one considers the strong therapeutic emphasis in work activities despite the pressing developmental needs which have been noted (see Sections 7.4.2; 7.4.2.1; 7.4.2.2).

- (ii) The major determinants of respondents' work pattern (see Section 7.5.2.1) lie in forces beyond their direct control such as:
- agency's own policy
 - caseload too heavy
 - resources inadequate
 - state subsidy requirements

It has become clear from earlier discussions how state subsidy norms have influenced agency policies and hence, social work activities (see Section 2.1.3) (Vitus, 1987). However, it is not clear how heavy caseloads and inadequate resources could determine a largely casework oriented work activity, since these two factors should in fact, elicit a more cost-effective approach to social service delivery. It could be that these factors (which are practice constraints) are being responded to with a 'quick-remedy' approach (that is, therapeutic, casework activities).

Other determinants of respondents' work pattern lie within the domain of professional choice and judgement, namely personal

decision, belief that the work pattern serves client best, belief that the work pattern is appropriate for agency goals and belief that the client values the type of services rendered. Some 'reality-testing' of these aforementioned factors renders them suspect. Firstly, those determinants beyond the direct control of respondents have a constraining influence on the scope of their professional choices/autonomy. Secondly, it is questionable whether these beliefs endorsed by respondents are based on empirical evidence or whether they reflect some element of rationalization. There are no significant black/white differences in these findings. Finally, it would seem that those factors which are beyond the immediate control of respondents, impinge more strongly on respondents' work patterns than they care to admit.

- (iii) The predominant focus of respondents' major work activity was largely therapeutic, although respondents claimed that there were preventive and promotive aspects to their work (see Section 7.5.4). These latter two claims were surprising in the light of the actual nature of respondents' work activities (see Section 7.5.2).

Respondents attributed a high degree of success to their work (see Section 7.5.3) which was contradictory to earlier findings (see Section 7.4.2). Furthermore, the range of factors which determine the outcome of their activity (see Section 7.5.3.1, Table 26) are directly related to respondents' personal/professional choices within the ambit of their direct control. Yet previous data (see Section 7.5.2.1) indicated that the major determinants of respondents' work pattern lie beyond their direct control. The paradoxical nature of these findings may be related to the bias inherent in assessing the quality of one's own work. Thus, respondents may have had difficulty in objectively appraising the outcome of their work.

- (iv) The knowledge areas which respondents drew upon for their major

decision, belief that the work pattern serves client best, belief that the work pattern is appropriate for agency goals and belief that the client values the type of services rendered. Some 'reality-testing' of these aforementioned factors renders them suspect. Firstly, those determinants beyond the direct control of respondents have a constraining influence on the scope of their professional choices/autonomy. Secondly, it is questionable whether these beliefs endorsed by respondents are based on empirical evidence or whether they reflect some element of rationalization. There are no significant black/white differences in these findings. Finally, it would seem that those factors which are beyond the immediate control of respondents, impinge more strongly on respondents' work patterns than they care to admit.

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- (iv) The knowledge areas which respondents drew upon for their major

work activity seem to have been selected to support a largely therapeutic, direct service orientation (see Section 7.5.5). The differences in the black/white sub-groups were related to the nature of social work activities they carried out in practice (see Section 7.5.2, Table 23). For example, whites who did more casework than blacks, drew on casework theory, psychological theory and theory to practice in a specialized field, more often than blacks. Blacks, who indicated that they did more group work and community work than whites, drew on these related theories. Nevertheless, the dominant knowledge areas drawn upon were linked to a therapeutic service delivery which respondents paradoxically confirm as successful (see Section 7.5.3) and yet consider it to be not entirely appropriate (see Sections 7.4.2, 7.4.2.1, 7.4.2.2).

8.4.3.1 Whether or not respondents consider their work tasks to be appropriate

- (i) Given the opportunity, respondents would prefer to do more group work and community work rather than casework (see Section 7.6.1, Table 29). Otherwise, respondents indicated minor changes to their broad work pattern, that is, the division between primary and secondary activities. It could be that respondents were not considering major changes to their work pattern since they were constrained by practice realities which determined these work patterns (see Section 7.5.2.1).
- (ii) Respondents indicated that they were prevented from implementing those desired (minimal) changes by a formidable array of factors (see Section 7.6.2, Table 30). These factors lie both within the professional/personal realm and within the broader bureaucratic framework. It would appear that the bureaucratic constraints are viewed by respondents as a greater stumbling block to practising effective social work than personal and professional constraints. This trend holds true for both black and white sub-groups.

When one compares this data with that of Section 7.5.2.1, then it becomes apparent that those factors over which respondents have no direct control and which determine present practice are more or less the same factors which prevent desired practice. Thus, one may deduce that if the pattern of South African social work practice has to be changed, then these factors are to be addressed.

- (iii) When respondents' strongest reactions to not being able to conduct their practice in the way they deem fit are analyzed (see Section 7.6.3), respondents in general, show a far greater tendency to resort to 'non-adaptive responses', that is, becoming frustrated, desiring to change one's job, considering leaving one's profession; than to 'adaptive responses', such as, feeling challenged and mobilizing resources for change. This tendency is greater for whites than for blacks. These findings are congruent with earlier data which suggests that whites are more conscious of their personal stresses and inadequacies in their work situation than blacks (see Section 7.6.2).

Also, these findings may be further understood in the light of Maslach's (1984) burn-out theory. All those non-adaptive responses referred to earlier, are similar to those features which form part of the burn-out syndrome.

8.4.3.2 Whether or not graduates' professional education and training has prepared them to carry out their work tasks and to function effectively within their work circumstances

- (i) When analyzing the eleven educational priorities which 60% and more of respondents identified (see Section 7.7.1) the following five themes became evident:
 - (a) Most priorities seem related to making education more pertinent to South African practice. These educational priorities appear to be the logical extension of those priority practice issues discussed in previous data (see Section 7.4.2) and in keeping with an array of theoretical

literature pertaining to its relevance in South African Social Work (McKendrick, 1990; Patel, 1987; Small, 1987; Cohen, 1984; Louw, 1984; Slabbert, 1983; Louw, 1981).

- (b) Educators and practitioners should jointly be responsible for curriculum planning and government policy and funding should not determine curriculum design. This viewpoint may be suggestive of respondents' idea of relevance which was (theoretically) connected to accountability to clients and not to only maintaining government sanctioned welfare ideas (Vitus, 1987). Hence, respondents suggested that practitioners were closer to the clients and could meaningfully inform educators of client-centred practice needs.
- (c) The undergraduate curriculum should prepare generalists, who could work both therapeutically and developmentally, but wider opportunities for specialization should exist at the postgraduate level. These wider options, according to respondents, should be developmentally oriented courses such as rural social work and community social work. The rural dimension in South African social work practice had thus far been a neglected component (Wilson and Ramphela, 1989; Graaff, 1987).
- (d) Community work is considered to be such a priority that respondents believe a specialist course in this approach is required. As indicated earlier respondents felt the need to be equipped with community work and community development strategies. To meet the needs of communities in crisis, social workers would have to be equipped with an array of developmental skills including those of advocate, broker and catalyst (Cohen, 1984; Slabbert, 1983).
- (e) More effective ways of evaluating the outcome of social work education were required. Just as social workers should be accountable to the people they serve, so schools of social work should be accountable to the students who come for training and should also be answerable to the community into which these graduates are returned.

In general, there appeared to be widespread agreement between blacks and whites as to what constitutes educational priorities. These findings concur with the findings on 'priority' practice issues (see Section 7.4.2). Thus, respondents appear to be definite in their responses as to what constitutes the 'ideal' but were ambiguous when it came to assessing the reality.

- (ii) Respondents (80%) rated their fourth year of social work education at Wits, fairly highly (see Section 7.8.1). Blacks tended to rate their fourth year of study more highly than whites (see Section 7.8.1, Table 35). This latter finding may be related to the fact that blacks came into their fourth year of study with more work-related experiences and may have gained more from their educational experiences than their white counterparts. On the other hand, whites tended to be more critical of their fourth year of study. Thirteen per cent of whites rated their studies 'partially ineffective' whilst no blacks did so. In summary, the fourth year qualification may have adequately equipped respondents for the kind of social work activities they are presently doing (see Section 7.5.2) but not necessarily for the kind of social work activities they suggest they should be doing (see Section 7.4.2).

- (iii) In respect of the effectiveness of various curriculum aspects of the fourth year of study, data in Section 7.8.2, Table 36, have been broadly classified into primary social work activities, that is, theories and practice skill areas which pertain to direct client service delivery and secondary social work activities, that is, theories and practice skill areas which support and enhance client service delivery.

A distinct pattern emerged in aspects of the fourth year educational experience that graduates indicate as successful or unsuccessful. Firstly, two-thirds or more of respondents consider their education to have been 'effective' or 'satisfactory' in the theory and practice of the primary methods of social casework,

social group work, community work, the theory of crisis intervention as well as in the secondary methods of social work research and supervision theory (including the practice skill components of these latter two areas).

Secondly, close to one-third and more of respondents believe their education to have been 'not effective' in some areas that may be considered critical to their effective functioning in specific jobs in South African social work practice. These include the theory and practice of social work administration; organizational and management theory; theory to identify practice constraints as well as the skill in managing both organizational and practice constraints; social work ethics; and social work and the law.

Finally, in all instances, white respondents were more likely than black respondents to consider particular aspects of their education as not effective. This may be due to the reasons previously discussed.

Respondents' motivation for rating their curriculum effective or not effective were largely dependent on whether or not the course was perceived as being relevant to practice (that is, perceived integration of theory and practice). Other factors which influenced respondents' rating were related to content presentation, professional growth and whether content could be recalled.

- (iv) Baer and Federico's (1978:85-89) ten-point competency schedule was adopted as the basis for assessing whether or not graduates have been adequately prepared for competency in these areas. These competency areas had direct relevance for South African social work practice (see Section 7.8.3).

The various competency areas as presented in Table 38, were further classified into:

- direct client service practice skills

- social action skills
- professional self and service evaluation skills
- research skill and skill in the ethical practice of social work.

Respondents rated their educational preparedness in these competency areas on a five point Likert scale, ranging from completely ineffective to fully effective. When one compared competency categories as delineated in Table 38, then the highest mean ratings were in 'direct client service practice skills' category and the lowest were in the 'social action skills' category. Respondents even rated 'professional self and service evaluating skills' and 'research and ethical practice skills' higher than 'social action skills'. The black and white groups approximated each other and reflected the general trend. However, it was notable that blacks consistently rated direct practice skill competency higher than their white colleagues, perhaps because of their work experience.

The three competency areas which received the lowest ratings and were related to social action skills, were the following:
the ability to:

- intervene effectively on behalf of populations most vulnerable and discriminated against;
- promote the effective and humane operation of the systems that provide people with services, resources and opportunities;
- actively participate with others in creating new, modified or improved service, resource or opportunity systems that are more equitable, just and responsive to consumers of services, and work with others to eliminate those systems that are unjust.

Given the South African welfare context of racial discrimination (Small, 1987; Cohen, 1984; Slabbert, 1983) of welfare organizations which may have the tendency to put goals related to organizational efficiency ahead of humanitarian goals (Midgley, 1981; Brager and Holloway, 1978; Bailey and Brake, 1975); and of the lack of much needed resources

Patel, 1987; Vitus, 1987; Kalis, 1986); then skill in the abovementioned competency areas would become of vital importance for South African social workers. Yet, at the same time there are factors which hamper the flexing of skills in these areas (Khinduka, 1987; Small, 1987; Lowe, 1985). However, this should not deter schools of social work from equipping their graduates with the knowledge, values and skills to intervene at a social action level, wherever necessary. These findings support earlier findings which indicated that social workers were not equipped to meet the needs of a changing South African social work practice (see Sections 7.7.1, 7.4.2).

8.4.4 The nature of the fourth year social work curriculum offered at the University of the Witwatersrand

The nature of the fourth year curriculum had been assessed on two levels: firstly, using Guzzetta's (1984) model for analysis and secondly, by generally assessing the core curriculum content.

I. Guzzetta's analytical model comprises six indicators, namely: the cultural context, attitude, mode, scope, penetration and construction of the curriculum (see Section 5.6). These indicators have been fully discussed in general (see Section 4.5.1) and more specifically in relation to the fourth year curriculum (see Section 5.6).

In summary, the Wits curriculum, according to Guzzetta's model, may be described in the following manner:

- (i) The curriculum reflected an indigenous cultural context insofar as it attempted to contextualize its content within the South African framework. Also, course material showed that effort was made to integrate local research studies and publications in the content. However, the curriculum also revealed a heavy reliance on British and American literature, probably for reasons of keeping abreast with internationally recognized and established social work sources. Where relevant, Third World literature has also been included in the curriculum content.

- (ii) The curriculum could be described as having a prospective and a retrospective attitude. Course outlines showed that much time was spent on evaluating past models and assessing their strengths and weaknesses in relation to present needs (that is, a retrospective attitude). At the same time, the fourth year curriculum showed evidence of being future oriented, of concerning itself with anticipated, projected, needs (that is, a prospective attitude).
 - (iii) The curriculum construction could be described as being holistic in that the ecological metaphor is readily apparent in most course outlines. At the same time, course outlines also revealed both linear and thematic approaches to construction. Thus, despite the curriculum's holistic, philosophical base, other ways of constructing content are also adopted.
 - (iv) The curriculum mode could be described as being predominantly static in that it was concerned with the careful examination and analysis of theory and practice models in order to make informed judgements and recommendations. To a lesser degree, the curriculum also conveyed an active mode (that is, in the manner it involved students in being part of building up something new).
 - (v) The curriculum reflected a particular scope in that it was largely arranged around four specialization areas (see Section 5.5.3). However, this particular focus was undertaken within the context of a generic background, thus allowing for broader generalizations to take place.
 - (vi) Course outlines of the fourth year curriculum revealed an exemplar approach to penetration, which included elements of both 'width' and 'depth'. Content was deliberately selected to provide an extensive survey and yet included opportunities for the intensive examination of core samples.
- II. An assessment of the knowledge, values and skills of the fourth year curriculum revealed the following salient features:

- (i) Despite having a specialized focus, the knowledge, values and skills imparted in the fourth year are done so against a generic background.
- (ii) The following core curriculum areas are brought into sharper focus in the fourth year of study (McKendrick, 1987): social welfare policy and services; human growth, behaviour and the social environment; social work practice methodology and field instruction. The fourth year aimed at further crystallization and consolidation of knowledge, values and skills related to these four areas.
- (iii) The field instruction component of the fourth year, provided the main training ground for the flexing of social work skills which had been theoretically discussed and taught in the classroom (see Section 5.6.7). The cyclical learning process of theory/practice integration was facilitated by means of carefully monitored and selected training experiences.
- (iv) Social work values and ethics were dealt with in specific course sequences, for example, 'Ethical Issues' in the Medical Social Work course (see Appendix R). Furthermore, social work values were role-modelled throughout the educational preparation. The fourth year curriculum could be described as reflecting a strong egalitarian value base which encouraged a non-racial, equal and just welfare practice.

8.5 The findings in relation to the five major assumptions outlined in Section 8.3

- (i) The assumption that social work education and training may not have equipped graduates with knowledge and skills to deal adequately with practice constraints is supported by the following findings:
 - some of the major determinants of respondents' work pattern (see Section 7.5.2.1) are also perceived as the major constraints (see Section 7.6.2) which prevent 'desired' practice approaches.

The non-adaptive manner with which respondents reacted to these constraints (see Section 7.6.2) suggests that they may be ill-equipped in this regard.

- Also respondents specifically highlighted 'theory to identify practice constraints' as well as skill in managing both 'organizational and practice constraints' as curriculum deficits (see Section 7.8.2).

- (ii) The assumption that social work education at a liberal, open university in South Africa would appear to equip graduates with egalitarian principles is borne out by the following:

The majority of respondents identified with the ideal of a non-racial, and democratic welfare system which would be more responsive to unmet developmental needs (see Sections 7.4.2, 7.4.2.1). Institutionalized racism in welfare was specifically perceived as being unfair to persons of colour (see Section 7.4.2). Also curriculum analysis reveals the strong egalitarian value base (see Section 5.6.2).

However, it would appear that respondents were not effectively equipped with knowledge and skills to change unfair and undemocratic welfare practices (see Section 7.8.3). It is worth noting that the reluctance to challenge policy issues (see Section 7.4.1) or to address practice constraints (see Section 7.6.2) may not be entirely due to educational deficits, since other forces may deter respondents from reacting in professionally appropriate ways (see Section 7.4.1.1).

- (iii) The assumption that social work education has equipped graduates with a therapeutic rather than a social change focus may be corroborated by the following:

Respondents' major work activity had a largely therapeutic orientation (see Section 7.5.4) despite their awareness of unmet developmental needs (see Section 7.4.2). Furthermore, respondents rated this largely therapeutic orientation as being successful (see Section 7.5.3). Also, two-thirds of respondents rated those

therapeutically oriented curriculum areas as being effective (see Section 7.8.2) whilst knowledge and skill related to effecting organizational change was rated as not effective (see Section 7.8.2). More specifically, social action skills were given a low rating by respondents (see Section 7.8.3).

- (iv) The assumption that graduates have been equipped largely for First World rather than Third World needs is bound up with the previous assumption about social work's therapeutic orientation. The findings which endorse the therapeutic rather than social change focus also apply in considering the First World, therapeutic orientation of social work practice.

Respondents strongly identified with the prevalence of unmet developmental needs (see Section 7.4.2) and have suggested the need for developmental skills (see Sections 7.7.1; 7.8.2).

- (v) The assumption that all social workers would experience some lack of 'fit' between their educational preparation and their practice realities would require further qualification in the light of the findings. Respondents in this sample revealed a goodness of 'fit' between their therapeutically oriented education and their therapeutically oriented practice settings. However, respondents did indicate some lack of 'fit' between their practice realities and their 'ideal' of what their practice should be. It would appear that the absence of knowledge and skills to transform or change practice realities in the direction of the ideal, constitutes a major gap in education. There were no significant differences in the way black and white respondents experienced the 'fit' between education and practice. Thus, contrary to the initial hypothetical assumption, it would appear that black and white respondents in this sample share the same vision of future social work, experience the same frustrations in their practice arena and adopt more or less the same strategies in their work settings.

8.6 Major conclusions

- (i) The nature of South African social work practice is circumscribed
- Respondents have gained their social work practice experiences in traditional South African social work settings. These practice contexts have had their historical roots in welfare ideas which were largely shaped by white Afrikaner philanthropic gestures (see Section 2.1.1), political and social engineering endeavours (see Sections 2.1.2, 2.1.4) and social work academic influences (see Sections 3.2, 3.2.1). Together these forces moulded an interpretation of a western-styled therapeutically oriented social work practice which focused on the individual's adjustment to his environment rather than on wider social reform issues. Thus, largely as a result of historical antecedents, the meaning and purpose of social work came to be circumscribed. Developmental needs such as housing, education, health care and employment were not (according to official state welfare policy) part of social work's domain. Traditional social service organizations (subsidized by the government to practice social work in a particular way) developed their policies accordingly and perpetuated circumscribed patterns of service delivery.

Both black and white respondents were exposed to more or less similar work contexts, which were primarily concerned with individually-oriented direct client services. Blacks, however, because of their longer, more stable work records, may have become more socialized (than their white colleagues) into a 'culture' of typical South African social work practices. This latter conclusion is drawn from the fact that whites appear to be more critical of their practice constraints and work tasks, than blacks.

- (ii) Respondents' work tasks and work circumstances reflected the nature of their practice settings
- Respondents showed a predominant therapeutic, social casework approach to their practice. Despite aspiring to

developmentally-oriented work strategies (see Section 7.4.2), respondents were able to justify their therapeutic interventions. For example, the majority claimed that they were quite successful with this kind of social work activity (see Section 7.5.3). However, these activities were largely determined by outside forces. Respondents acknowledged that organizational constraints such as agency policy, subsidy requirements, heavy caseloads and scarce resources had a greater influence on determining their work pattern than those factors over which they had some professional control. Thus the actual success of respondents' work may be held questionable. At the same time, the fact that respondents were competent in their therapeutic activities could not be doubted, since they were more than adequately equipped for this role (see Section 7.8.2). Nevertheless, the crucial issue at stake is whether respondents' interventions were appropriate in relation to clients' needs. Recent research (Muller, 1990) reflects that developmental needs are a key concern in black communities. Therefore, it is not out of place to wonder whether clients' needs were not being 'tailored' to suit therapeutic intervention strategies.

- (iii) Respondents suggested minimal changes to their work pattern. They indicated a preference for more group work and community work rather than social casework

Given a choice, respondents indicated that they would prefer to do more group work and community work rather than social casework. Within the constraints of their practice realities respondents may be suggesting minimal changes to their work pattern. However, within the broader welfare context,

respondents have suggested major changes as regards the overall welfare policy and also suggested a developmental perspective in relation to social work activities. These findings may be indicative of the problems which may be encountered in any transitional period. For example, respondents' suggestions as regards the 'ideal' welfare practice are at present far removed from reality. Given the presence of a number of forces which may hamper changes towards the ideal, some accommodating strategies may have to be used, hence the need for slow, seemingly minimal but progressive changes. Black respondents appear to be moving in the direction of broader group and community work changes more so than whites.

(iv) Generally, respondents do not handle their organizational constraints in a professional manner

Respondents magnified those organizational constraints which determined their work pattern, as being major obstacles to changes in their work activities. These organizational/institutional constraints inherited from South African social work/welfare history (see Sections 2.1.2, 2.1.3, 2.1.4) reflect the impact of regulatory and controlling norms contained in welfare policies and bureaucratically systematized through organizational structures. Respondents, who were educationally not equipped to deal with these constraints, reacted to them in a non-adaptive manner. They reflected features of the burn-out syndrome (Maslach, 1982:36-53) such as frustration, wanting to leave their jobs or desiring to leave the profession altogether.

(v) Institutionalized racism is perceived as a practice constraint and is contrary to the profession's value base

Institutionalized racism in welfare has meant that 'persons of colour' do not have equal access to welfare resources. Furthermore, the availability and diversity of welfare services for whites far exceeds those provided for blacks (Kalis, 1986). Thus racial disparity in welfare services is related to the availability/absence of welfare resources. In a more egalitarian,

non-racial dispensation, it could be expected that welfare services would be distributed more equally, catering for welfare clientele on the basis of need rather than colour. Understandably, blacks experienced these aforementioned constraints more deeply than whites.

(vi) Supervisory experiences were not particularly noted as a constraint in practice

Of interest, is the fact that supervisory experiences were not experienced as a strong constraint in practice. It would appear that educational preparation had effectively equipped respondents with a positive understanding of the nature and purpose of the supervisory process. However, this does not mean that supervisors in the work contexts were entirely blameless. Failure to guide supervisees towards more appropriate service delivery is as great a fault as perpetuating old forms of practice just because they would appear more expedient. Supervisors, who were generally more experienced, older social workers may have been reluctant to challenge the status quo. More black respondents were giving supervision than white respondents in this sample.

(vii) There are ambiguities in respondents' perceptions of the purposes of social work and current practice issues

The majority of respondents identified with the ideal of a democratic, non-racial welfare system and recognized the need for social intervention at a political level. However, they refrained from acting in accordance with these principles for a variety of reasons which lie in the personal, political and professional spheres. Contrary to their widely held beliefs about the necessity for a 'changed' social work practice, respondents still ranked direct service functions as social work's primary purpose and placed social action and social policy activities last. This situation could be due to real and perceived resistances in the welfare system and also to respondents' own inabilities in this regard. Respondents have indicated that they lacked sufficient educational preparation as

regards social action and policy intervention skills.

- (viii) Since a variety of forces maintain the present pattern of welfare services, social work education is not solely responsible for the perceived lack of 'fit' between 'ideal' welfare practices and practice realities

Government welfare policy has favoured a racially defined, therapeutically oriented service delivery. Social service organizations dependent on government subsidies appear to have patterned their services accordingly. Schools of social work, dependent on these social service organizations as training/learning contexts have tended to equip graduates for therapeutic roles to 'fit' the demands of these work contexts. Social Workers competent in their therapeutic roles shied away from developmental demands for a variety of reasons, one of them being that they lacked training in this regard.

- (ix) Respondents generally rated their fourth year social work education positively, whilst also recognizing it to be deficient in preparing them to overcome organizational restraints and to do developmental work

Some conclusions have already been previously drawn about the nature of respondents' professional preparation. Some of the more specific conclusions could be summed up as follows:

- (i) In general, respondents rated their final year professional preparation, gained at Wits, in a positive manner.
- (ii) Respondents claimed that they have been adequately trained in all methods of social work, especially casework.
- (iii) Respondents believed that they had not been sufficiently prepared for community work roles and social action strategies such as networking, advocacy and brokerage.
- (iv) Respondents highlighted curriculum deficiencies which were critical to their effective functioning in South African social work practice. These deficiencies were:
 - Theory and practice of social work administration
 - Organizational and management theory
 - Theory to identify and address practice constraints
 - Social work and South African law
 - Social work ethics.

- (v) Respondents also highlighted the need for a Third World developmental approach in addressing macro issues such as housing, poverty, education and unemployment.
- (vi) Respondents acknowledged the need for social work education and training to equip them with both therapeutic and social development roles.

(x) Analysis of the fourth year curriculum did not always support respondents' perceptions of its deficiencies

Content analysis of the fourth year curriculum, together with feedback from social work educators, indicated that the curriculum deficits highlighted by respondents, were open to debate. Some of these alleged deficits could also be addressed by the employing organizations. For example, employing organizations could incorporate aspects of management/organizational theory, South African law, ethics and even skill in addressing practice constraints into their staff development programmes.

(xi) The fourth year curriculum embraced the core areas that are universally acknowledged to be basic to social work education

The core curriculum areas which form the generic basis for professional preparation are: social welfare policy and services; human growth, behaviour and the social environment; social work practice methodology and field instruction (McKendrick, 1987).

These four areas are consolidated and refined within the context of the fourth year of study. Each specialization course, for example, deals with human growth and the social environment; and welfare services/structures/policies from a particular focus. Social work practice methodology is dealt with within the context of Social Work with Individuals, Families and Communities. The practice component as embodied in the Field Instruction Manual, is the main training ground for the flexing of social work skills. Social work values are dealt with in a specific course sequence related to the ethics of practice and are role-modelled

in the classroom. Ethics and values are accorded, careful attention since South African social work practice has been moulded by values which are contrary to internationally accepted standards.

- (xii) On the basis of their practice experiences, respondents had definite opinions about how social work education could be altered to obtain a better fit between education and practice

Respondents believed that an improved 'fit' between education and practice would result from: greater contextualization of their educational preparation in relation to the socio-economic and political reality; increased liaison with practitioners in the field; research into practice needs; and educational strategies aimed at addressing practice constraints.

- (xiii) The Wits fourth year curriculum revealed a balance between an internationally acceptable theoretical foundation and the search for authentic, indigenous South African approaches to social work practice

When the Wits fourth year curriculum was screened through Guzzetta's (1984) analytical model, the following salient features became apparent:

- Content has been so organized as to provide a specialist focus against a generic background. The curriculum was concerned with providing a firm, theoretical foundation albeit based on Western theoretical models.
- The curriculum makes use of a diversity of approaches in the manner it selects and classifies its content.
- Although the curriculum is concerned with careful analyses and examination of past models it is at the same time future-oriented.
- Finally, the curriculum, despite its dependence on Western/International literature reflected attempts at indigenizing its content.

- (xiv) A 'lack of fit' exists between respondents' perception of an ideal welfare system which embraces a democratic, non-racial value base; and which addresses the therapeutic and developmental needs of all South Africans, and the reality of present South African practice which is racially defined and therapeutically oriented

The aforementioned conclusion does not need further elaboration in the light of preceding comments.

8.7 Major recommendations

- (i) That the South African welfare system be redefined in the light of strongly held views concerning the need for a non-racial and democratically constituted welfare system which would take cognizance of the needs of all South Africans

Besides respondents' clearly held viewpoints regarding the importance of a more equitable welfare dispensation, the present South African government is also facing strong pressure to change its political structures in keeping with a more democratic and non-racial system. Thus, the time is expedient for clearly defined recommendations in this regard. Some of the more important considerations could be:

- that the idea of welfare in South Africa be reformulated in the light of changing demands. For example, South Africa's blend of First and Third World problems does indicate that social work should address not only therapeutic but broader developmental issues;
- that the meaning and purpose of social work activity in the South African context be reformulated in the light of new practice demands;
- that the norms for government funding of welfare services be reformulated in keeping with more appropriate welfare/social work strategies.

In this instance, social work practitioners (who are close to the needs of welfare recipients) and social work educators (who are responsible for the education and training of social workers who ought to be able to make a meaningful contribution in a changing society) could play a leading, lobbying role in planning a new welfare dispensation.

(ii) That social workers adopt a unified code of ethics which would assist towards a general consensus concerning social work's meaning and purpose in a more equal, non-racial South Africa
 The absence of a unified code of ethics may be symptomatic of a wider, fragmented South African reality. However, social workers need to arrive at some consensual opinion about their own value base before they can make meaningful recommendations concerning change to the discriminatory and unequal welfare system which exists. The absence of a single, unified National Association of Social Workers is a serious indictment to the profession.

(iii) That social service organizations be challenged to re-examine their therapeutically-oriented patterns of service delivery in the light of increasing developmental needs
 In this instance, schools of social work could play a meaningful consultative role. Increased liaison between schools of social work (educators) and social service organizations (practitioners) could help to shape South African social work practice in ways which are more appropriate.

(iv) That schools of social work, noting the ambiguities/ambivalences prevalent both in the practice situation and in social workers themselves, devise appropriate educational strategies to equip graduates with the ability to professionally address these ambiguities and ambivalences
 In this regard, specific educational strategies could be developed through restructuring, or adapting the curriculum to meet these practice needs.

(a) The curriculum should therefore equip graduates with the following:

- the knowledge, values and skills to address a society in a state of transition
- the ability to work more innovatively within the twin contexts of both the First and Third World

- the ability to work professionally with multi-disciplinary teams in relation to broader welfare needs
- the ability to adopt the widest possible understanding of social work's purpose in the South African context
- the ability to intervene effectively in organizational contexts which hamper appropriate service delivery
- the ability to use social work methodology in a creative and appropriate manner related to the needs of the South African population
- a greater measure of professional assertiveness and confidence in dealing with ethical issues surrounding social work practice
- the ability to manage stress more effectively.

(b) That curriculum planning for the future be a joint exercise undertaken by social work educators and social work practitioners so as to improve the 'fit' between educational preparation and practice realities.

(c) That the fourth year curriculum (both the theoretical and practice components of the course) place greater emphasis on developing strategies which would address Third World issues such as housing, unemployment, education and poverty.

(d) That the fourth year curriculum place greater emphasis on demystifying policy formulation and policy intervention strategies.

(v) That social work educators and social work practitioners jointly plan ongoing social work strategies to address a society in transition

Given the reality of a society in transition and the many tensions involved in the change process, it is necessary that social workers are equipped with the knowledge, values and skills to handle transitional work. For example, such roles as

negotiating and bargaining will take on increasing importance in this climate. Also, education and training will have to take particular note of how graduates are equipped to deal with uncertainty, ambiguity and many paradoxes which will become even more acute in a transitional phase. Besides being equipped with the knowledge, values and skills to address resistances to the change process, social workers will also need to address the effects of too rapid change.

- (vi) That schools of social work adopt developmental models of social work practice which would suit South African conditions

There is a dearth of authentic practice models which would address developmental issues in the South African context. Hence, schools of social work should develop practice models which their students could test out in the field. Innovative experimentation and ongoing research in this area would assist in the clarification and refining of South African models of practice.

- (vii) That social work preparation whilst taking due cognizance of the need for therapeutic and developmental approaches, avoid the trap of dichotomizing these approaches

Given the compartmentalized, separatistic mental set which characterized South African thinking in the past, it would be quite easy for social work education to separate therapeutic and developmental training foci, rather than to treat them as complementary approaches.

8.8 Future Research

Bearing in mind the major findings, conclusions and recommendations of this study, future research would most usefully be oriented towards the needs of a society in transition, and the role of social welfare, social work and social work-education in this regard.

Appropriate studies could include:

- (i) A comparative study of the nature of social services rendered, the kinds of problems presented at social welfare organizations, and the wider needs of South African society, for the purpose of establishing the 'fit' between the population's needs and the existing welfare resources.
- (ii) A comparative study of 'traditional' and 'non-traditional' welfare organizations in relation to social work activities, organizational structure, and client evaluation of services rendered.
- (iii) An exploration of practice roles of volunteers and semi-skilled professional assistants in social service structures conducting developmental social work.
- (iv) Research into refining instruments which could be used to evaluate practice outcome measures related to social development roles.
- (v) Research related to clients' perceptions of treatment outcome.
- (vi) Research into differing cultural attitudes to 'welfare'.



UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

VALUES AND OBJECTIVES

The University of the Witwatersrand has a proud history of achievement and is an institution committed to meeting the challenges of the present and the future. It is an internationally accepted educational centre of excellence, which recognises its southern African setting and the need to meet international standards in this context. The University has set as its mission, and is dedicated to:

- the pursuit of truth;
- excellence in learning, research and scholarship;
- a flexible and appropriate response to the specific and pressing needs of all the people of South Africa today and in the future.

In fulfilling these aims, the University has as its most important objectives:

- to acquire, advance and impart knowledge;
- to maintain and enhance its already high standards of teaching, research and scholarship, and service;
- to attract to it vigorous academic and research staff of the highest quality;
- to recognise the grossly inadequate educational preparation of many of its students and to offer special assistance to such students to ensure that they can attain the standards of the University's degrees;
- to provide the community with high-calibre, well-educated and thinking people;
- to undertake fundamental research in order to advance knowledge and to conduct applied research so as to contribute to the general needs and welfare of the peoples of southern Africa and to the special needs of a developing country;
- to upgrade continually the quality of teaching and teaching staff;
- to oppose any form of outside interference which prejudices scholarship, research or teaching;
- to encourage freedom of speech on campus, eschew violence and promote a tolerance of different viewpoints, encourage frank inquiry and allow legitimate protest under the protection of the rule of law;
- to encourage in all its members, and in society, attitudes of understanding, tolerance and respect for others and to act as a forum for conciliation within a divided society.

The University rejects racism, racial segregation and discrimination on the grounds of race, gender, belief or nationality. It is committed to non-discrimination, particularly in the constitution of its student body, in the selection and promotion of its staff and in its administration.

**WITS FACES THE
CHALLENGES OF THE
FUTURE TODAY**



UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

1 Jan Smuts Avenue, Johannesburg

POWERS
2050 SOUTH AFRICAEnquiries
✓ 4 271 2554
011 716 1111

Reference

Enquiries

011 716 4142

Date: 29 February 1988

Dear Colleague

re: Research Study: 'How South African Social Workers Assess their Professional Education in the Light of Practice Realities'

I am undertaking the above-mentioned study in fulfilment of a MA(SW) degree at the University of the Witwatersrand. Professor B W McKendrick of the School of Social Work is supervising my research.

My research sample has been drawn from the social work graduate population of the University of the Witwatersrand School of Social Work (1979-1986). You are one of the sixty graduates randomly selected to participate in this study. I do hope that you will agree to do so. If you have not practised as a social worker since qualifying, I would still need your co-operation in completing a questionnaire which would take approximately 85 minutes.

To make things easier, I have enclosed a stamped, self-addressed postcard which I would like you to fill in and return to me as soon as possible. I could then arrange with you telephonically about the best time and place to meet with you.

All responses to the questionnaire will be dealt with in a confidential manner. I look forward to meeting you.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "C O'Brien".

Connie O'Brien
33 Florence Avenue
Bedfordview
2008

QUESTIONNAIREHOW SOCIAL WORKERS ASSESS THEIR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN THE LIGHT
OF PRACTICE REALITIES

(A study conducted by Connie O'Brien in fulfilment of the MA(SW)
degree at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg)

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No

Information regarding this questionnaire

- (i) This study assumes that various reality constraints may contribute to a lack of 'fit' between professional education and practice.
- (ii) The purpose of this study is to identify the major constraints and to suggest how the effective management of these constraints may be promoted through amended programmes of professional education and training.
- (ii) This questionnaire thus focuses on the present work circumstances of social workers and their assessment of their educational preparation in relation to both their actual and 'desired' work situation.
- (iii) All respondents would have qualified at the University of the Witwatersrand with a 4 yrs B.A.(SW) or a BA(SW) Honours degree or a BA(SW) Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice during the period 1979-1986.
- (iv) Your frank response to all questions will provide helpful data about the effectiveness of professional social work education in preparing you to meet practical demands.
- (v) All information will be treated in a confidential manner and there will be no possibility of your identity being revealed to other sources.
- (vi) Please answer each question in accordance with the instructions. Where necessary, the researcher will assist with clarification.
- (v) Approximately 90 minutes of your time is needed for the completion of this questionnaire.

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212

SECTION 1

A. Name of Respondent:

_____ 1. Surname
_____ 2. First Names
_____ 3. Mr/Mrs/Ms

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1:2 ☐
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1:4 ☐
1:5 ☐
1:6 ☐

B. Date of Birth:

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Day Month Year

C. Postal Address:

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1:8 ☐
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1:10 ☐
1:11 ☐
1:12 ☐
1:13 ☐

D. In addition to yourself, who else is supported (fully or partially) by your salary? (Mark all that apply)

___ own children
___ parents
___ legal partner
___ partner
___ relatives (i.e. aunts, uncles, cousins, nephews, nieces)
___ religious community
___ other (specify) _____
___ other (specify) _____

E.

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1:43 ☐

F. Please complete the following table:

Year and Institution in which you first qualified as a SW	Your age upon first qualification	Year in which you completed your 4yr degree or Honours or H.Dip. in Adv. SW		Your age upon second qualification	Are you considering or presently engaged in further studies in SW or have you already completed further studies? If 'yes' state degree + field of interest	Are you considering or presently engaged in further studies in another profession or have you (1:22) already completed further studies? If 'yes' state degree + field of interest
		Year	Hons. BA(SW)			
					(1:21)	(1:23)

1-18

G. Please complete the following schedule in time sequence with regard to all your paid jobs (both in and out of social work) from the time you first qualified as a social worker until now.

Job No.	Dates during which jobs held	Nature of job e.g. secretary/clerk/social worker	Which field of social work e.g. child & family/medical/school	Major reason for accepting job	Major reason for terminating job
1	(1:24)	(1:25)	(1:26)	(1:27)	(1:28)
2	(1:29)	(1:30)	(1:31)	(1:32)	(1:33)
3	(1:34)	(1:35)	(1:36)	(1:37)	(1:38)
4	(1:39)	(1:40)	(1:41)	(1:42)	(1:43)
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1:43 ☐

F. Please complete the following table:

Year and Institution in which you first qualified as a SW	Your age upon first qualification	Year in which you completed your 4yr degree or Honours or H.Dip. in Adv. SW				Your age upon second qualification	Are you considering or presently engaged in further studies in SW or have you already completed further studies? (1:20)		Are you considering or presently engaged in further studies in another profession or have you (1:22) already completed further studies?	
		Year	BA(SW)	Hons.	H.Dip.		If 'yes' state degree + field of interest	If 'no' give a reason	If 'yes' state degree + field of interest	No
							(1: 21)		(1: 23)	

1-18

G. Please complete the following schedule in time sequence with regard to all your paid jobs (both in and out of social work) from the time you first qualified as a social worker until now.

Job No.	Dates during which jobs held	Nature of job e.g. secretary/clerk/social worker	Which field of social work e.g. child & family/medical/school	Major reason for accepting job	Major reason for terminating job
1	(1:24)	(1:25)	(1:26)	(1:27)	(1:28)
2	(1:29)	(1:30)	(1:31)	(1:32)	(1:33)
3	(1:34)	(1:35)	(1:36)	(1:37)	(1:38)
4	(1:39)	(1:40)	(1:41)	(1:42)	(1:43)
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INSTRUCTION

If you have never practised as a social worker continue to answer all questions except Questions Q to Z inclusively which refer to present social work activity or social work undertaken in last 5 years.

If you have practised as a social worker, please skip Question H and answer from Question I onwards.

H. Since completing my final social work exams, I have never practised as a social worker for the following reason(s). (Mark as many items as apply):

- 1:44 ☐ 1. I have a baby/child/children/dependant to care for
- 1:45 ☐ 2. I am a full-time housewife
- 1:46 ☐ 3. I was pregnant
- 1:47 ☐ 4. I had to undergo military training
- 1:48 ☐ 5. I assisted my spouse in his/her business
- 1:49 ☐ 6. I could not obtain a social work job in my field of interest
- 1:50 ☐ 7. I found the beginning salary for social workers too low
- 1:51 ☐ 8. I have continued studying
- 1:52 ☐ 9. I have entered employment outside of social work
- 1:53 ☐ 10. I have been travelling/on vacation
- 1:54 ☐ 11. Other (Specify) _____

I. Mark one of the following statements that apply to your present social work job:

- 1:55 ☐ 1. My present social work job was the job of my choice.
- ☐ 2. My present social work job was not the job of my choice.

J. If you marked I(2), which field and/or social work method would be the job of your choice? (e.g. child and family welfare/school social work/community work/casework)

- 1:56 ☐ _____ 1. (Specify field)
- 1:57 ☐ _____ 2. (Specify method)

THE PURPOSES OF SOCIAL WORK

K.1 Rank in order of importance to you the following four statements about the purposes of social work (i.e. "1" for most important, "2" for second most important and "3" for the third most important)

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1:58 ☐ | The promotion, restoration, maintenance or enhancement of the functioning of individuals, households, social groups, organisations, and communities by helping them to prevent distress and utilize resources. These resources may be found in people's intrapersonal and interpersonal capacities or abilities, or in social services, institutions and other opportunities available in the environment. |
| 1:59 ☐ | The planning, development and implementation of the social policies, services and programmes required to meet basic needs and support the development of capacities and abilities. |
| 1:50 ☐ | The pursuit of such policies, services and programmes through legislative advocacy, lobbying and other forms of social and political action, including providing expert testimony, participation in local and national coalitions and gaining public office. |
| 1:51 ☐ | The developing and testing of professional knowledge and skills relating to these purposes. |

K.2 Briefly motivate why you ranked any of the above purposes in question K.1 as '1', i.e. most important.

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SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE ISSUES

L. Circle those statements which reflect your views about current social work practice issues (Mark all that apply).

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| 2:1 ☐ | 1. The social casework approach serves the majority of client needs. |
| 2:2 ☐ | 2. The developmental social work approach serves the majority of client needs (i.e. emphasizing group and community strategies). |
| 2:3 ☐ | 3. Racial division permits a culturally sensitive social work practice. |
| 2:4 ☐ | 4. Racial division in social welfare perpetuates less adequate services to people of colour. |
| 2:5 ☐ | 5. Racial division in social welfare does not perpetuate less adequate services to people of colour. |
| 2:6 ☐ | 6. The state should assume primary responsibility for social welfare funding. |
| 2:7 ☐ | 7. The private sector should assume primary responsibility for social welfare funding. |
| 2:8 ☐ | 8. Both state and private sector should assume primary responsibility for social welfare funding. |
| 2:9 ☐ | 9. The poor and the disadvantaged should be a major target group for social work intervention. |
| 2:10 ☐ | 10. The poor and the disadvantaged should not be a major target group for social work intervention. |
| 2:11 ☐ | 11. Social workers are not educationally equipped to practise effective social work in a changing South African society. |
| 2:12 ☐ | 12. Social workers are educationally equipped to practise effective social work in a changing South African society. |
| 2:13 ☐ | 13. Social work in South Africa should be "non-political" i.e. social workers should not try to influence broader political issues. |
| 2:14 ☐ | 14. Social work in South Africa should not be "non-political" i.e. social workers should try to influence broader political issues. |
| 2:15 ☐ | 15. Ethical social work practice implies a democratic value base (i.e. equal opportunity for services, non-discrimination as regards sex, race, colour or creed). |
| 2:16 ☐ | 16. Ethical social work practice does not imply a democratic value base (i.e. equal opportunity for services non-discrimination etc.). |
| 2:17 ☐ | 17. It is unrealistic to think that social work practice could address such issues as housing, unemployment and poverty. |
| 2:18 ☐ | 18. It is not unrealistic to think that social work practice could address such issues as housing, unemployment and poverty. |
| 2:19 ☐ | 19. Social work practice has appropriately addressed Third World developmental needs (housing, unemployment and poverty). |
| 2:20 ☐ | 20. Social work practice has not appropriately addressed Third World developmental needs (housing, unemployment and poverty). |
| 2:21 ☐ | 21. South African social work practice is not addressing the social needs identified by people in the community. |
| 2:22 ☐ | 22. South African social work practice is addressing the social needs identified by people in the community. |
| 2:23 ☐ | 23. Other (specify) _____ |
| | 24. Other (Specify) _____ |
| | 25. Other (Specify) _____ |

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M. Of the items you circled in answer to Question L select the three statements which you feel are the most important considerations for social work practice (indicate the numbers).

2:24 ☐

2:25 ☐

2:26 ☐

N. Briefly motivate your choice of the three statements in answer to Question M.

2:27 ☐

2:28 ☐

2:29 ☐

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this column

0. Mark with an "x" all those persons, events, experiences and situations that have significantly shaped your perceptions about the purpose of South African social work practice.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 2:30 ☐ | ☐ 1. early life experiences |
| 2:31 ☐ | ☐ 2. recent personal experience |
| 2:32 ☐ | ☐ 3. friends |
| 2:33 ☐ | ☐ 4. relatives |
| 2:34 ☐ | ☐ 5. belonging to a professional social work association |
| 2:35 ☐ | ☐ 6. belonging to an alternative professional association |
| 2:36 ☐ | ☐ 7. belonging to an international social work association |
| 2:37 ☐ | ☐ 8. belonging to an international association (not social work) |
| 2:38 ☐ | ☐ 9. belonging to a civic group (specify) _____ |
| 2:39 ☐ | ☐ 10. belonging to a service group (specify) _____ |
| 2:40 ☐ | ☐ 11. belonging to a political group |
| 2:41 ☐ | ☐ 12. belonging to a population group |
| 2:42 ☐ | ☐ 13. belonging to a cultural group |
| 2:43 ☐ | ☐ 14. extra-curricular university campus activities |
| 2:44 ☐ | ☐ 15. influence of social work students |
| 2:45 ☐ | ☐ 16. influence of social work lecturing staff |
| 2:46 ☐ | ☐ 17. university supervisory experiences |
| 2:47 ☐ | ☐ 18. practice placement experience as a student |
| 2:48 ☐ | ☐ 19. agency supervisory experiences as a student |
| 2:49 ☐ | ☐ 20. agency supervisory experience as a qualified worker |
| 2:50 ☐ | ☐ 21. influence of agency colleagues |
| 2:51 ☐ | ☐ 22. perception of client need |
| 2:52 ☐ | ☐ 23. experience of bureaucracy |
| 2:53 ☐ | ☐ 24. experience of welfare legislation in practice |
| 2:54 ☐ | ☐ 25. experience of welfare practice that is racially biased |
| 2:55 ☐ | ☐ 26. experience of welfare services that are not co-ordinated |
| 2:56 ☐ | ☐ 27. influence of mass media |
| 2:57 ☐ | ☐ 28. influence of alternative media |
| 2:58 ☐ | ☐ 29. influence of overseas travels |
| 2:59 ☐ | ☐ 30. influence of township unrest |
| 2:60 ☐ | ☐ 31. experience of schools crises |
| 2:61 ☐ | ☐ 32. experience of the state of emergency regulations |
| 2:62 ☐ | ☐ 33. experience of children in detention |
| 2:63 ☐ | ☐ 34. experience of bannings and detentions |
| 2:64 ☐ | ☐ 35. experience of pressure from non-social work sources in practice |
| 2:65 ☐ | ☐ 36. influence of one's religious beliefs |
| 2:66 ☐ | ☐ 37. Other (specify) _____ |
| | ☐ 38. Other (specify) _____ |
| | ☐ 39. Other (specify) _____ |

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218

P. Of the items you marked with an "x" in Question 0 above, select the three most significant factors which have shaped your perception of the nature and purpose of social work (Indicate the number below):

2:67 ☐

2:68 ☐

2:69 ☐

Q. What are you presently doing in practice? (If you are not currently in practice, answer this question in respect of your most recent social work job.)

Indicate the proportion of time spent on the following work activities in the course of an average month.

3:1-2 ☐

3:3-4 ☐

3:5-6 ☐

3:7-8 ☐

3:9-10 ☐

3:11-12
☐

3:13-14 ☐

3:15-16 ☐

3:17-18 ☐

3:19-20 ☐

3:21-22 ☐

3:23-24 ☐

3:25-26 ☐

3:27-28 ☐

3:29-30 ☐

3:31-32 ☐

3:33-34 ☐

Activity	Nature of Activity	% of time
1. Social Casework		
2. Family therapy (family counselling)		
3. Group work		
4. Community work		
5. Research activity		
6. Social administration		
7. Crisis intervention		
8. Giving supervision		
9. Receiving supervision		
10. Report writing		
11. Telephone/letters/clerical		
12. Attending staff meetings/conferences		
13. Liaison with collaterals		
14. Travelling		
15. Training staff, development programmes		
16. Other (specify)		
17. Other (specify)		
Total		100

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3:35 ☐3:36 ☐3:37 ☐3:38 ☐3:39 ☐3:40 ☐3:41 ☐3:42 ☐3:43 ☐3:44 ☐3:45 ☐3:46 ☐3:47 ☐3:48 ☐3:49 ☐3:50 ☐3:51 ☐3:52 ☐3:53 ☐3:54 ☐3:55 ☐3:56 ☐3:57 ☐3:58 ☐3:59 ☐3:60 ☐3:61 ☐3:62 ☐3:63 ☐3:64 ☐

R. Which of the following factors determine the pattern of your activities given in answer to Question Q? Circle the five most significant factors in your opinion.

1. State subsidy requirements
2. Agency's own policy
3. Supervisory instructions
4. Tradition
5. Own personal decision
6. Educationally not equipped to work differently
7. Satisfaction with work pattern
8. Work pattern serves client best
9. Work pattern serves organisational efficiency best
10. Collegial support offered
11. Collegial support not offered
12. Staff resistance to change
13. Worker not able to initiate change in work pattern (e.g. lack of "know-how")
14. No professional autonomy
15. Caseload too heavy
16. Caseload within manageable limits
17. Work pattern appropriate for agency goal
18. Work pattern non-threatening
19. Resources adequate
20. Resources inadequate
21. Client values the type of services received
22. Community values the type of services rendered
23. Outcome of services rated "successful" by workers
24. Supportive supervision/consultation available
25. Supportive supervision/consultation not available
26. Agency board open for professional guidance and expertise
27. Agency board not open for professional guidance and expertise
28. Acceptance of present welfare structure
29. Non-acceptance of present welfare structure
30. Other (specify) _____
31. Other (specify) _____
32. Other (specify) _____
33. Other (specify) _____
34. Other (specify) _____

5. Success rate of your major activity. Rate the outcome of the activity in which you spend the greatest proportion of your time. (Tick appropriate statement).

3:65 ☐3:66 ☐3:67 ☐

- ___ 1. Successful in more than 75% of instances
- ___ 2. Successful in more than 50% of instances
- ___ 3. Successful in less than 50% of instances

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- T. Tick the three most significant factors affecting the outcome of your major work activity.
- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 4:1 ☐ | ☐ 1. Clients responsive to type of social work intervention. |
| 4:2 ☐ | ☐ 2. Clients not responsive to type of social work intervention. |
| 4:3 ☐ | ☐ 3. Social worker competent in major work activity. |
| 4:4 ☐ | ☐ 4. Social worker not competent in major work activity. |
| 4:5 ☐ | ☐ 5. Supervision controlling. |
| 4:6 ☐ | ☐ 6. Supervision supportive. |
| 4:7 ☐ | ☐ 7. Community support for work activity of agency. |
| 4:8 ☐ | ☐ 8. Lack of community support for work activity of agency. |
| 4:9 ☐ | ☐ 9. Support from fellow social workers. |
| 4:10 ☐ | ☐ 10. Lack of support from fellow social workers. |
| 4:11 ☐ | ☐ 11. Organisational flexibility. |
| 4:12 ☐ | ☐ 12. Organisational rigidity. |
| 4:13 ☐ | ☐ 13. Agency policy endorses major activity. |
| 4:14 ☐ | ☐ 14. Agency policy does not endorse major activity. |
| 4:15 ☐ | ☐ 15. State subsidy requirements encourage major activity. |
| 4:16 ☐ | ☐ 16. State subsidy requirements do not encourage major activity. |
| 4:17 ☐ | ☐ 17. Social workers' belief in the appropriateness of major work activity. |
| 4:18 ☐ | ☐ 18. Social workers' lack of belief in the appropriateness of major work activity. |
| 4:19 ☐ | ☐ 19. Caseload within manageable limits |
| 4:20 ☐ | ☐ 20. Caseload unmanageable |
| 4:21 ☐ | ☐ 21. Client problems chronic on arrival. |
| 4:22 ☐ | ☐ 22. Client problems not chronic on arrival. |
| 4:23 ☐ | ☐ 23. Clients motivated for involvement in treatment programme. |
| 4:24 ☐ | ☐ 24. Clients not motivated for involvement in the treatment programme. |
| 4:25 ☐ | ☐ 25. Social workers' competence in intervening at broader social levels. |
| 4:26 ☐ | ☐ 26. Social workers' lack of competence in intervening at broader social levels. |
| 4:27 ☐ | ☐ 27. Resources available. |
| 4:28 ☐ | ☐ 28. Resources not available. |
| 4:29 ☐ | ☐ 29. Individualized, personal focus of intervention appropriate. |
| 4:30 ☐ | ☐ 30. Individualized, personal focus of intervention not appropriate. |
| 4:31 ☐ | ☐ 31. Developmental social work approach appropriate. |
| 4:32 ☐ | ☐ 32. Developmental social work approach not appropriate. |
| 4:33 ☐ | ☐ 33. Highly specific client population being served. |
| 4:34 ☐ | ☐ 34. No highly specific client population being served. |
| 4:35 ☐ | ☐ 35. Worker and client appraisal of successful treatment outcome congruent. |
| 4:36 ☐ | ☐ 36. Worker and client appraisal of successful treatment outcome not congruent. |
| 4:37 ☐ | ☐ 37. Educationally equipped to make agency more responsive to client needs. |
| 4:38 ☐ | ☐ 38. Educationally not equipped to make agency more responsive to client needs. |
| 4:39 ☐ | ☐ 39. Reasonable Administrative work load. |
| 4:40 ☐ | ☐ 40. Administrative tasks take up too much time. |
| | ☐ 41. Other (specify) _____ |
| | ☐ 42. Other (specify) _____ |
| | ☐ 43. Other (specify) _____ |

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4:41 ☐
4:42 ☐
4:43 ☐
4:44 ☐

U. How would you describe the primary focus of your major work activity? (Mark one only).

- ☐ 1. Preventive
☐ 2. Therapeutic
☐ 3. Promotive
☐ 4. Other (Specify) _____

V. Which areas of knowledge do you draw from for your major work activity? (Rank the three most important areas of knowledge which you draw from with "1" being most important, "2" next most important and "3" third most important.)

4:45 ☐
4:46 ☐
4:47 ☐
4:48 ☐
4:49 ☐
4:50 ☐
4:51 ☐
4:52 ☐
4:53 ☐
4:54 ☐
4:55 ☐
4:56 ☐
4:57 ☐
4:58 ☐
4:59 ☐
4:60 ☐
4:61 ☐
4:62 ☐
4:63 ☐
4:64 ☐
4:65 ☐
4:66 ☐
4:67 ☐
4:68 ☐
4:69 ☐
4:70 ☐
4:71 ☐
4:72 ☐
4:73 ☐
4:74 ☐
4:75 ☐
4:76 ☐
4:77 ☐
4:78 ☐
4:79 ☐
4:80 ☐

- ☐ 1. Social casework theory.
☐ 2. Community work theory.
☐ 3. Social group work theory.
☐ 4. Sociopolitical theories.
☐ 5. Role theory.
☐ 6. Psychological theories.
☐ 7. Crisis intervention theory.
☐ 8. Learning behaviour theory.
☐ 9. Systems theory.
☐ 10. Organisation and management theory.
☐ 11. Practice "wisdom".
☐ 12. Knowledge and instructions from supervisors.
☐ 13. Knowledge and instructions from colleagues.
☐ 14. Knowledge and instructions from non-social work professionals.
☐ 15. Knowledge of the way the previous worker did your job.
☐ 16. Agency in-service training.
☐ 17. Knowledge gained from seminars, lectures, literature.
☐ 18. Knowledge of social work practice in a specialized field.
☐ 19. Knowledge of South African law.
☐ 20. Knowledge of the South African Welfare Structure and Policy.
☐ 21. Knowledge of agency policy and goals.
☐ 22. Knowledge of the peoples of South Africa i.e. (their cultures, beliefs, customs).
☐ 23. Knowledge of Social Work as practised in other Third World, developing countries.
☐ 24. Knowledge of the politics of practice.
☐ 25. Knowledge received from clients.
☐ 26. Knowledge received from civic/political organisations.
☐ 27. Knowledge of the ethics of practice.
☐ 28. Knowledge of the effects of racism on people's lives.
☐ 29. Knowledge of one's own prejudices and biases.
☐ 30. Knowledge of the advantages of your major work activity.
☐ 31. Knowledge of the disadvantages of your major work activity.
☐ 32. Family therapy theory.
☐ 33. Supervision theory.
☐ 34. Social administration theory.
☐ 35. Research theory.
☐ 36. Other (Specify) _____
☐ 37. Other (Specify) _____
☐ 38. Other (Specify) _____

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W. If you had complete control over your work pattern how would you distribute your time in order to do your job most effectively? (Indicate desired % of time in a normal month.)

	Work Activity	Desired % of time per month
5:1-2 ☐	1. Social casework	
5:3-4 ☐	2. Family therapy/famil. counselling	
5:5-6 ☐	3. Group work	
5:7-8 ☐	4. Community work	
5:9-10 ☐	5. Research	
5:11-12 ☐	6. Social administration	
5:13-14 ☐	7. Crisis intervention	
5:15-16 ☐	8. Giving supervision	
5:17-18 ☐	9. Receiving supervision	
5:19-20 ☐	10. Report writing	
5:21-22 ☐	11. Telephone/letters/clerical	
5:23-24 ☐	12. Staff meetings/conferences	
5:25-26 ☐	13. Liaison with collaterals	
5:27-28 ☐	14. Travelling	
5:29-30 ☐	15. Other (Specify) _____	
	16. Other (Specify) _____	
	17. Other (Specify) _____	
	Total	100%

X. Which of the following circumstances are of greatest influence in preventing you from conducting your practice in the way suggested in your answer to Question W? (Rank the three most important factors "1" for most important, "2" for next most important, "3" for third most important.)

5:31 ☐	1. Agency policy.
5:32 ☐	2. State subsidy requirements.
5:33 ☐	3. Supervisory control.
5:34 ☐	4. Organisation's resistance to change efforts.
5:35 ☐	5. Educationally not equipped to propose change effectively.
5:36 ☐	6. Lack of resources.
5:37 ☐	7. Have sufficient resources.
5:38 ☐	8. Discriminatory practice conditions.
5:39 ☐	9. Non-discriminatory practice conditions.
5:40 ☐	10. Lack competence in group work.
5:41 ☐	11. Lack competence in community work.
5:42 ☐	12. Lack competence in casework.
5:43 ☐	13. Overworked and stressed.
5:44 ☐	14. Heavy caseload inspires quick "remedy" approach.
5:45 ☐	15. Heavy caseload inspires creative, alternative strategies.
5:46 ☐	16. Caseload within manageable limits.
5:47 ☐	17. Have not kept abreast with new developments in practice.
5:48 ☐	18. Lack assertiveness.
5:49 ☐	19. Client resistance.
5:50 ☐	20. Colleague resistance.
5:51 ☐	21. Personal resistance.
5:52 ☐	22. Feeling apathetic.
5:53 ☐	23. Fear of appearing controversial
5:54 ☐	24. Fear of losing one's job.
5:55 ☐	25. Lack professional training in intervention at broader social levels.
5:56 ☐	26. Tradition
5:57 ☐	27. Other (Specify) _____
	28. Other (Specify) _____
	29. Other (Specify) _____

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Y. As a person and as a social worker, what are your strongest responses to the situation of not being able to conduct your practice in the way you think best?
(Rank the five strongest responses in order of importance i.e. "1" most strongest, "2" next most strongest "3" third most strongest, "4" fourth most strongest and "5" fifth most strongest)

- | | | |
|------|--------------------------|--|
| 6:1 | ☐ | 1. Conflict avoidance behaviour. |
| 6:2 | ☐ | 2. Risk taking behaviour. |
| 6:3 | ☐ | 3. Conforming behaviour. |
| 6:4 | ☐ | 4. Deviant organisational behaviour (i.e. rule breaking). |
| 6:5 | ☐ | 5. Over-identification with the client. |
| 6:6 | ☐ | 6. Withdrawal from client's real needs. |
| 6:7 | ☐ | 7. Becoming physically ill |
| 6:8 | ☐ | 8. Working harder. |
| 6:9 | ☐ | 9. Using consultation/supervision. |
| 6:10 | ☐ | 10. Pursuing further professional social work studies. |
| 6:11 | ☐ | 11. Becoming frustrated. |
| 6:12 | ☐ | 12. Experiencing role-conflict. |
| 6:13 | ☐ | 13. Desire to change one's job. |
| 6:14 | ☐ | 14. Feeling apathetic, alienated. |
| 6:15 | ☐ | 15. Feeling of powerlessness. |
| 6:16 | ☐ | 16. Considering leaving social work profession. |
| 6:17 | ☐ | 17. Rationalization of actions. |
| 6:18 | ☐ | 18. Feeling threatened. |
| 6:19 | ☐ | 19. Feeling challenged. |
| 6:20 | ☐ | 20. Searching for alternative social work strategies to handle the "system". |
| 6:21 | ☐ | 21. Searching for non-social work strategies to handle the "system". |
| 6:22 | ☐ | 22. Becoming more politicized in one's social work approach. |
| 6:23 | ☐ | 23. Becoming depoliticized in one's social work approach. |
| 6:24 | ☐ | 24. Forming coalitions to plan for change. |
| 6:25 | ☐ | 25. Mobilizing resources for change. |
| 6:26 | ☐ | 26. Becoming depressed. |
| 6:27 | ☐ | 27. Other (Specify) _____ |
| | | 28. Other (Specify) _____ |
| | | 29. Other (Specify) _____ |
| | | 30. Other (Specify) _____ |
| | | 31. Other (Specify) _____ |

Z. What are the major consequences to your clients, your agency, your profession and your professional staff/colleagues for not being able to conduct your practice in the way you think would be most effective?
(Briefly list the major consequences in the space provided below.)

- | | | |
|---------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 6:28-29 | ☐ | (a) <u>Clients</u> _____ |
| 6:30-31 | ☐ | (b) <u>Agency</u> _____ |
| 6:32-33 | ☐ | (c) <u>Profession</u> _____ |
| 6:34-35 | ☐ | (d) <u>Professional Staff</u> _____ |

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SECTION 2

SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

AA The following statements refer to possible educational priorities. Which, in your opinion, should apply to social work education?
(Mark all those priorities with which you strongly agree.)

- 6:36 ☐ 1. The educational focus should be on preparing students for social development roles.
- 6:37 ☐ 2. The educational focus should be on preparing students for counselling/therapeutic roles.
- 6:38 ☐ 3. The educational focus should be on preparing students equally for counselling/therapeutic and social development roles.
- 6:39 ☐ 4. Government policy and patterns of funding should not determine curriculum priorities.
- 6:40 ☐ 5. Government policy and patterns of funding should determine curriculum priorities.
- 6:41 ☐ 6. Social work educators should bear the major responsibility for curriculum planning.
- 6:42 ☐ 7. Social work practitioners should bear the major responsibility for curriculum planning.
- 6:43 ☐ 8. Social work educators and social work practitioners should jointly share the responsibility for curriculum planning.
- 6:44 ☐ 9. Disadvantaged students should be actively recruited.
- 6:45 ☐ 10. Disadvantaged students should not be actively recruited.
- 6:46 ☐ 11. Multidisciplinary training should receive greater emphasis in social work education.
- 6:47 ☐ 12. Multidisciplinary training should not receive greater emphasis in social work education.
- 6:48 ☐ 13. The core content of social work education needs revision in the light of practice demands.
- 6:49 ☐ 14. The core content of social work education does not need revision in the light of practice demands.
- 6:50 ☐ 15. Measures of educational effectiveness needs refining.
- 6:51 ☐ 16. Measures of educational effectiveness does not need refining.
- 6:52 ☐ 17. Generic training should be the norm for undergraduate social work education.
- 6:53 ☐ 18. Generic training should not be the norm for undergraduate social work education.
- 6:54 ☐ 19. There should be a wider range of specialization options at postgraduate level.
- 6:55 ☐ 20. The present range of specialization options (i.e. child and family welfare, school social work, industrial social work, medical social work) is appropriate for South African practice needs.
- 6:56 ☐ 21. A specialist course in community work should be developed.
- 6:57 ☐ 22. A specialist course in community work need not be developed.
- 6:58 ☐ 23. Specific content on racism deserves attention in the social work curriculum.
- 6:59 ☐ 24. Specific content on racism need not receive attention in the social work curriculum.
- 6:60 ☐ 25. Specific content on feminism deserves attention in the social work curriculum.
- 6:61 ☐ 25. Specific content on feminism need not receive attention in the social work curriculum.
- 6:62 ☐ 27. South African social work education should locate itself within the socio-political reality of the South African society.
- 6:63 ☐ 28. South African social work education need not locate itself within the socio-political reality of the South African society.
- 6:64 ☐ 29. Other (Specify) _____
30. Other (Specify) _____
31. Other (Specify) _____

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5:65-66 ☐

6:67-68 ☐

6:69-70 ☐

6:71 ☐

- BB Select from your answers to Question 4A those three educational priorities which, in your opinion, deserve special attention from schools of social work. (Indicate the numbers in the spaces below.)

- CC Assess the effectiveness of your fourth year of social work study in preparing you for the work that you presently undertake. (Indicate with "x" on the scale.)

5 4 3 2 1
fully partially neither partially completely
effective effective effective ineffective ineffective
nor
ineffective

- DD In terms of effectiveness in preparing you for your present work, assess each of the following aspects of the fourth year social work curriculum as effective, satisfactory or not effective. (Tick appropriate colour

Aspect of the Curriculum	Effective	Satisfactory	Not effective
7:1 ☐ 1. Social casework theory			
7:2 ☐ 2. Social casework practice skill			
7:3 ☐ 3. Social work research theory			
7:4 ☐ 4. Research practice skill			
7:5 ☐ 5. Professional education theory			
7:6 ☐ 6. Professional education practice skill			
7:7 ☐ 7. Supervision theory			
7:8 ☐ 8. Opportunity to give supervision			
7:9 ☐ 9. Group work theory			
7:10 ☐ 10. Supervision received			
7:11 ☐ 11. Group work practice skill			
7:12 ☐ 12. Community work theory			
7:13 ☐ 13. Community work practice skill			
7:14 ☐ 14. Theory for social work practice in a specialized field			
7:15 ☐ 15. Practice skill in a specialized field of social work practice			
7:16 ☐ 16. Organisational and management theory			
7:17 ☐ 17. Practice skill in managing organisational constraints			
7:18 ☐ 18. Crisis intervention theory			
7:19 ☐ 19. Practice skill in crisis intervention			
7:20 ☐ 20. Social work administration theory			
7:21 ☐ 21. Social work administration practice skill			
7:22 ☐ 22. Social work in relation to South African law			
7:23 ☐ 23. Identification of constraints in South African social work practice			
7:24 ☐ 24. Practice skill in management of constraints in practice			
7:25 ☐ 25. Ethical social work practice in our South African society			
7:26 ☐ 26. Other (Specify)			
27. Other (Specify)			
28. Other (Specify)			

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EE Please give a full motivation as to why you rated any curriculum
aspects in Question DD as "effective" in preparing you for your
present work.

7:27 ☐

7:28 ☐

7:29 ☐

7:30 ☐

7:31 ☐

7:32 ☐

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FF Please give a full motivation as to why you rated any curriculum aspects in Question DD as "not effective" in preparing you for your present work.

7:33 ☐

7:34 ☐

7:35 ☐

7:36 ☐

7:37 ☐

7:38 ☐

7:39 ☐

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PREPARATION FOR COMPETENCY

GG Please indicate how effectively your fourth year of professional education has prepared you for competency in the following areas stated below. (Mark with an "x" on the scales presented.)

7:40 ☐

5	4	3	2	1
fully effective	partially effective	neither effective nor ineffective	partially ineffective	completely ineffective

a. To identify and assess situations where the relationship between people and social institutions needs to be initiated, enhanced, restored or terminated.

7:41 ☐

5	4	3	2	1
fully effective	partially effective	neither effective nor ineffective	partially ineffective	completely ineffective

b. To develop and implement a plan for improving the well-being of people based on problem assessment and the exploration of obtainable goals and available options.

7:42 ☐

5	4	3	2	1
fully effective	partially effective	neither effective nor ineffective	partially ineffective	completely ineffective

c. To enhance the problem-solving coping and developmental capacities of people.

7:43 ☐

5	4	3	2	1
fully effective	partially effective	neither effective nor ineffective	partially ineffective	completely ineffective

d. To link people with systems that provide them with resources, services and opportunities.

7:44 ☐

5	4	3	2	1
fully effective	partially effective	neither effective nor ineffective	partially ineffective	completely ineffective

e. To intervene effectively on behalf of populations most vulnerable and discriminated against.

7:45 ☐

5	4	3	2	1
fully effective	partially effective	neither effective nor ineffective	partially ineffective	completely ineffective

f. To promote the effective and humane operation of the systems that provide people with services, resources and opportunities.

7:46 ☐

5	4	3	2	1
fully effective	partially effective	neither effective nor ineffective	partially ineffective	completely ineffective

g. To actively participate with others in creating new, modified or improved service, resource or opportunity systems that are more equitable, just and responsive to consumers of services, and work with others to eliminate those systems that are unjust.

7:47 ☐

5	4	3	2	1
fully effective	partially effective	neither effective nor ineffective	partially ineffective	completely ineffective

h. To evaluate the extent to which the objectives of the intervention plan were achieved.

7:48 ☐

5	4	3	2	1
fully effective	partially effective	neither effective nor ineffective	partially ineffective	completely ineffective

i. To continually evaluate one's professional growth and development through assessment of practice behaviour and skills.

7:49 ☐

5	4	3	2	1
fully effective	partially effective	neither effective nor ineffective	partially ineffective	completely ineffective

j. To contribute to the improvement of service delivery by adding to the knowledge base of the profession as appropriate and by supporting and upholding the standards and ethics of the profession.

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HH What could schools of social work do to bring about a "better fit" between social work education and training and social work practice? (Mark all those statements with which you strongly agree.)

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 8:1 ☐ | ☐ 1. More casework theory. |
| 8:2 ☐ | ☐ 2. Less casework theory. |
| 8:3 ☐ | ☐ 3. More casework practice skill. |
| 8:4 ☐ | ☐ 4. Less casework practice skill. |
| 8:5 ☐ | ☐ 5. More group work theory. |
| 8:6 ☐ | ☐ 6. Less group work practice skill. |
| 8:7 ☐ | ☐ 7. More group work practice skill. |
| 8:8 ☐ | ☐ 8. More community work theory. |
| 8:9 ☐ | ☐ 9. Less community work theory. |
| 8:10 ☐ | ☐ 10. More community work practice skill. |
| 8:11 ☐ | ☐ 11. Less community work practice skill. |
| 8:12 ☐ | ☐ 12. More research theory. |
| 8:13 ☐ | ☐ 13. Less research theory. |
| 8:14 ☐ | ☐ 14. More research practice skill. |
| 8:15 ☐ | ☐ 15. Less research practice skill. |
| 8:16 ☐ | ☐ 16. More supervision theory. |
| 8:17 ☐ | ☐ 17. Less supervision theory. |
| 8:18 ☐ | ☐ 18. More opportunity to receive supervision. |
| 8:19 ☐ | ☐ 19. Less supervision. |
| 8:20 ☐ | ☐ 20. More opportunity to give supervision. |
| 8:21 ☐ | ☐ 21. Less opportunity to give supervision. |
| 8:22 ☐ | ☐ 22. More social work administration theory. |
| 8:23 ☐ | ☐ 23. Less social work administration theory. |
| 8:24 ☐ | ☐ 24. More social work administration practice sk |
| 8:25 ☐ | ☐ 25. Less social work administration practice sk' |
| 8:26 ☐ | ☐ 26. More contextualization of social work practice i.e. relating social work to the South African socio-political context |
| 8:27 ☐ | ☐ 27. Less contextualization of social work practice. |
| 8:28 ☐ | ☐ 28. More problem management skills re: large caseloads. |
| 8:29 ☐ | ☐ 29. More problem management skills re: scarce resources. |
| 8:30 ☐ | ☐ 30. More research into practice needs. |
| 8:31 ☐ | ☐ 31. Less research into practice needs. |
| 8:32 ☐ | ☐ 32. Theory on organisations. |
| 8:33 ☐ | ☐ 33. Practice skill in effecting organisational change. |
| 8:34 ☐ | ☐ 34. Practice skill in resolving ethical dilemmas in social work practice. |
| 8:35 ☐ | ☐ 35. Social work theory and practice in macro issues like poverty, housing, health, unemployment. |
| 8:36 ☐ | ☐ 36. Rural social work theory. |
| 8:37 ☐ | ☐ 37. Rural social work practice skill. |
| 8:38 ☐ | ☐ 38. Train students to work with all indigenous groups. |
| 8:39 ☐ | ☐ 39. Educate students for a non-racial social work practice. |
| 8:40 ☐ | ☐ 40. Include community organisation as a specialist course. |
| 8:41 ☐ | ☐ 41. Social work schools should be more adequately staffed. |
| 8:42 ☐ | ☐ 42. Increased liaison with practitioners. |
| 8:43 ☐ | ☐ 43. Other (Specify) _____ |
| | ☐ 44. Other (Specify) _____ |
| | ☐ 45. Other (Specify) _____ |

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II Which three of the items you marked in response to Question HH
are the most important for schools of social work to bring about
a better "fit" between social work education and training and practice?
(Indicate the numbers of the items in the spaces provided below.)

8:44-45 ☐

8:46-47 ☐

8:48-49 ☐

JJ Motivate why these items are considered most important in your opinion.

8:50 ☐

8:51 ☐

8:52 ☐

8:53 ☐

8:54 ☐

8:55 ☐

8:56 ☐

Thank you for your co-operation.

APPENDIX D - COURSE STRUCTURE FOR THE BA(SOCIAL WORK) HONOURS DEGREE AND
THE HIGHER DIPLOMA FOR ADVANCED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE (1979-1986)

(A)
SOCW 501, Social Work with
Individuals, Groups and
Communities (Paper 1 of
Honours examination)

An integrated-methods approach
to Social Work Theory and
Practice with individuals,
families, small groups and
communities: (a) general
introduction to theoretical
and philosophical bases of
Social Work; (b) general
systems theory as a conceptual
framework for social work
theory and practice; (c)
nature, structure and dynamics
of social casework, family
treatment and social group
work and community work; (d)
process approach to social
treatment with emphasis on
the concomitant practice
approaches in social casework,
family treatment, social group
work and community work.

(B)
SOCW 501, Social Work
Research, Professional
Education and Supervision
(Paper 2 of Honours
examination)

Introduction to basic
concepts, methods and
procedures essential to
designing and executing a
research report; nature of
social work research; problem
identification and formulation;
use of available data;
research design and
methodology; processing and
analysing data. Introduction
to the philosophy and practice
of social work education;
historical development and
aims of social work education
internationally and in South
Africa; curricula and their
construction; audio-visual
teaching media; the
teaching-learning transaction.
Introduction to the
theoretical concepts
underlying the practice of
supervision as a process of
social work in both social
work training and staff
development; aims of
supervision; methods of
supervision; requirements for
supervision in student
training and in staff
development; evaluation and
assessment; consultation.

(C)
SOCW 505, Field Instruction in
Social Work Practice (Paper 3
of Honours examination)

Individualized social work
field instruction programmes
in a welfare or allied
organization, under the
supervision of an experienced
practitioner. The programmes
include work with individuals,
families, small groups and
larger community groups
(Total: 480 hours).

*For the period under survey 1979-1986, the course structure
for the Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice
and the B.A.(SW) Honours degree, was as follows:*

- (A) SOCW 501: SOCIAL WORK WITH INDIVIDUALS, GROUPS AND
COMMUNITIES
- (B) SOCW 503: SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH, PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION AND SUPERVISION
- (C) SOCW 505: FIELD INSTRUCTION IN SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE
- (D) ONE OF FOUR SPECIALIZATIONS VIZ. CHILD AND FAMILY WELFARE (SOCW 509, 519;
INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK (SOCW 511, 514)
MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK (SOCW 513, 516)
SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK (SOCW 515, 518)

(E) A RESEARCH DISSERTATION ON AN APPROVED TOPIC, FOR EXAMINATION PURPOSES

* A requirement which applies only to the Honours students.

(Course Structure adapted from the Departmental Review 1983-1988).

(D)

Child and Family Welfare:

SOCW509, Social Work Practice in Child and Family Welfare (Paper 4 of Honours examination)

Family life education and counselling; social work practice with the family group in reconstruction and aftercare services; social work practice in substitute care services.

SOCW 510, Legal, Institutional and Cultural Framework of Child and Family Welfare

(Paper 5 of Honours examination)

Introduction to concepts in child and family care; organization of child and family care services; legal provisions and procedures relating to child and family welfare.

Industrial Social Work

SOCW 511, Industrial Social Work Practice

(Paper 4 of Honours examination)

The introduction and administration of social work services in industry; theory and practice of social work in industrial settings; South African social welfare and labour law.

SOCW 514, Structure, Development and Function of Industrial Organizations

(Paper 5 of Honours examination)

Perspectives on development and change in organizations; the social structure of work groups; comparative theories of industrial relations; industrial relations in South Africa; the role of social workers in industrial relations.

Medical Social Work

SOCW 515, Medical Social Work Practice

(Paper 4 of Honours examination)

Origin of medical social work; social work practice in health care systems; application of social work methodology in the health field; interdisciplinary team work; psycho-social aspects of disease; common physical and psychiatric diseases.

SOCW 516, Legal, Institutional and Cultural Framework of Medical Social Work

(Paper 5 of Honours examination)

The sociology and psychology of medicine; cross-cultural perspectives on health and illness; health, illness and underdevelopment; the family and its relation to health and disease; organization of health care services; legal provisions.

School Social Work

SOCW 512, School Social Work Practice

(Paper 4 of Honours examination)

A systems approach to school social work, with emphasis on the three major sub-systems, namely the school, the home, the community; the school social worker's multi-faceted role in terms of the three major sub-systems; research and publications.

SOCW 513, The Institutional Framework and Educational Practice of Schools

(Paper 5 of Honours examination)

Philosophical and historical background; legal framework of education in South Africa; the three levels of education (pre-primary, primary and secondary) and the principles of education for each level; inter-relationship between education and motivation; learning theory; psychological, perceptual and attitudinal testing; the cultural framework of education, the linkages between health services and education; guidance and vocational services.

APPENDIX E - SOCIAL CASEWORK AND FAMILY THERAPY

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

Social Work Honours and Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice

Social Casework 1985

Course Format

This course is made up of 8 three hour seminars. There will be one assignment for the Honours students due on 13 September. There will be a test set for the Higher Diploma students at the end of the course on 19 September.

Dates and Times

Quarter 1

Thursday 28 February	09h30 - 12h30
Thursday 7 March	09h30 - 12h30
Thursday 28 March	09h30 - 12h30
Thursday 4 April	09h30 - 12h30

Quarter 2

Friday 10 May	10h00 - 13h00
Friday 24 May	10h00 - 13h00

Quarter 3

Friday 9 August	10h00 - 13h00
Friday 16 August	10h00 - 13h00

Venue : Seminar Room

Course Outline

Aims

- (1) To explore the values, key concepts, techniques and applicability in practice of different helping models.
- (2) To experiment in the group situation with the application of therapeutic procedures and techniques.

Objectives

1st Seminar: A problem-management model. This is a developmental model which consists of three stages:

- (1) Explaining the model - an overview
- (2) Stages I and II will be explained drawing on students' own experiences in field practice.

2nd Seminar

- (1) A review of the model presented in Seminar 1, together with an interactional analysis.
- (2) Planning a programme for Stage III based on case records drawn from field practice.

3rd Seminar: Existential therapy - Key figures: May, Maslow, Frankl, Jourard. On the basis of study material handed out after the second seminar - there will be a discussion and an evaluation of existential therapy and its relevance to social casework.

4th Seminar : Cognitive Change Methods - Key figures: Ellis, Beck, Wolpe, Meichenbaum, Glasser. This section is introduced because caseworkers of different orientations might find it compatible with their views to use techniques drawn from cognitively oriented theories as part of a change programme.

5th Seminar: A review and integration of the models presented in the first four seminars.

6th Seminar: Behaviour modification with the focus on assertiveness training. The class will experiment with assertive training.

7th Seminar: A psychodynamic approach - Key figures: Freud, Erikson. Discussion will proceed on the basis of handouts from the previous seminar.

8th Seminar: Gestalt Therapy. This is largely an experiential therapy stressing awareness and integration.

Reading List

- Buchler C and Allen M (1972) An Introduction to Humanistic Psychology.
Brooks/Cope.
- Cary, G (1977 or 1982 ed.) Theory and Practice of Counselling
and Psychotherapy. Brooks/Cope.
- Egan, G (1982) The Skilled Helper. Brooks/Cope
- Compton B R & Galaway (1975) Social Work Processes. Dorsey Press.
- Fischer J (1978) Effective Casework Practice. McGraw-Hill.
- Goldfried M R and G C Davidson (1976) Clinical Behaviour Therapy. Holt, Rinehart
and Winston.
- Hall C and D Lindsey (1978) Theories of Reasonality. Wiley.
- Hollis F (1972) Casework: A Psycho-social Therapy.
- Kaufman F H and Goldstein G P (1980) Helping People Change. Pergamon Press.
- Krill D F (1978) Social Work. Free Press
- Passons WR (1975) Gestalt Approaches in Counseling. Holt, Reinhart
and Winston.
- Rimm D C and Masters J C (1979) Behavior Therapy. Academic Press
- Roberts R W & Nee R H Theories of Social Work: Chicago, U P.
- Turner F J (1974 - 2nd ed. 1979) Social Work Treatment. Free Press.

APPENDIX F - GROUP WORK

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURGSCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORKBACHELOR OF ARTS IN SOCIAL WORK WITH HONOURS, 1985HIGHER DIPLOMA IN ADVANCED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE, 1985Course : Social Work with Individuals, Groups and Communities.Sequence: Social group work.Course Objectives:

1. To review the rationale for the use of task and treatment groups in social work practice.
2. To provide an overview, at an advanced level, of the knowledge base necessary for effective work with task and treatment groups in social work.
3. To examine in depth various aspects of group leadership in task and treatment groups.
4. To assist students in developing competence to handle problematic group situations likely to be met in practice.
5. To compare worker skills and activities in the development of task and treatment groups.
6. To evaluate various contemporary approaches to social group work, paying particular attention to their relevance in practice.

Course Structure:

The first six seminars will take the form of lectures and classroom discussion. Although primary responsibility for their presentation will rest with the lecturer, students are expected to prepare themselves ahead of time with relevant seminar content. Responsibility for the last two seminars will rest with students who will be expected to present papers/seminars on selected contemporary approaches to social group work practice.

Course Content:

1. Introduction to Social Group Work
 - 1.1 Definition of social group work
 - 1.2 Types of groups
 - 1.2.1 Natural groups
 - 1.2.2 Formal groups
 - 1.2.3 Compulsory groups
 - 1.2.4 Treatment and task groups
 - 1.3 A typology of treatment and task groups
 - 1.3.1 Treatment groups
 - 1.3.1.1 Educational groups
 - 1.3.1.2 Growth groups

- 1.3.1.3 Remedial groups
- 1.3.1.4 Socialization groups
- 1.3.2 Task groups
 - 1.3.2.1 Committees
 - 1.3.2.2 Teams
 - 1.3.2.3 Treatment conferences
 - 1.3.2.4 Social action groups
- 1.4 Values in social group work practice
 - 1.4.1 Contextual values
 - 1.4.2 Client value systems
 - 1.4.3 Workers' personal value system
- 1.5 Advantages and disadvantages of group approaches
 - 1.5.1 Treatment groups
 - 1.5.2 Task groups
- 2. Yalom's (1975) Curative Factors of the Group
 - 2.1 Imparting of information
 - 2.2 Instillation of hope
 - 2.3 Universality
 - 2.4 Altruism
 - 2.5 The corrective recapitulation of the primary family group
 - 2.6 Development of socializing techniques.
 - 2.7 Imitative behaviour
 - 2.8 Interpersonal learning
 - 2.9 Group cohesion
 - 2.10 Catharsis
- 3. Knowledge Base of Social Group Work
 - 3.1 Philosophical thought
 - 3.2 The social group worker
 - 3.3 Agency function
 - 3.4 Influential theories
 - 3.4.1 Psychoanalytic theory
 - 3.4.2 Learning theory
 - 3.4.3 Field theory
 - 3.4.4 Social exchange theory
 - 3.4.5 Systems theory
 - 3.4.6 Application/relevance to social group work
- 4. Group Dynamics and Group Processes
 - 4.1 Communication and interaction
 - 4.2 Structural processes
 - 4.2.1 Group development
 - 4.2.2 Social structure
 - 4.2.3 Sub-group formation
 - 4.3 Locomotive processes
 - 4.3.1 Purpose and goal formation
 - 4.3.2 Decision-making
 - 4.4 Molar processes
 - 4.4.1 Norms, standards and values (group culture)
 - 4.4.2 Cohesion (group attraction)
 - 4.4.3 Group influence (group pressure)
 - 4.4.4 Group climate

- 5. Leadership
 - 5.1 The professional worker as group leader
 - 5.1.1 Leadership and power
 - 5.1.2 Theories of group leadership
 - 5.2 An interactional model of group leadership
 - 5.2.1 The purpose of the group
 - 5.2.2 Type of problem
 - 5.2.3 The environment
 - 5.2.4 The group as a whole
 - 5.2.5 Group members
 - 5.2.6 The group leader
 - 5.3 Skills of group leadership
 - 5.3.1 Skills to facilitate group processes
 - 5.3.2 Data gathering and assessment skills
 - 5.3.3 Action skills
- 6. Problem Group Situations
 - 6.1 Conflict and conflict resolution
 - 6.2 Silence in the group
 - 6.3 Group resistance
 - 6.4 Acting out in the group
- 7. Other Issues of Note
 - 7.1 Helping individual members in the group
 - 7.2 Coleadership
 - 7.3 Agency conditions which affect group work practice
- 8. Overview of Group Development of Task and Treatment Groups
 - 8.1 The planning phase
 - 8.1.1 Establishing the group's purpose
 - 8.1.2 Assessing potential sponsorship and membership
 - 8.1.3 Recruiting members
 - 8.1.4 Composing the group
 - 8.1.5 Orienting members
 - 8.1.6 Contracting
 - 8.1.7 Preparing the environment
 - 8.2 The beginning phase
 - 8.2.1 The first meeting
 - 8.2.2 Objectives in the beginning phase
 - 8.3 Assessment
 - 8.3.1 Assessing the functioning of group members
 - 8.3.2 Assessing the functioning of the group as a whole
 - 8.3.3 Assessing the group's environment
 - 8.4 The middle phase : treatment groups
 - 8.4.1 Leading treatment groups
 - 8.4.2 Intervention methods in treatment groups
 - 8.5 The middle phase : task groups
 - 8.5.1 Conducting meetings
 - 8.5.2 Functions of task groups
 - 8.6 Evaluation
 - 8.7 Terminating the group
 - 8.7.1 Unplanned termination
 - 8.7.2 Ending group meetings
 - 8.7.3 Terminating the group

Recommended Reading:

- ALISSI, A S (ed) Perspectives on Social Group Work Practice : A Book of Readings
New York, The Free Press, 1980.
- ANSTEY, M How to work with Groups : A Conceptual Framework.
Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 1982, 18 (3), pp 169.
- ANSTEY, M Working with Groups.
Johannesburg, Juta and Co. Ltd., 1983.
- BARKER, L L
WAHLERS, K J
CEGALA, D J
KIBLER, R J Groups in Process : An Introduction to Small Group Communication (second edition)
New Jersey, Prentice-Hall Inc., 1983.
- BROWN, J A
AREVALO, R Chicanos and Social Group Work Models : Some Implications for Group Work Practice.
Social Work with Groups, 1979, 2(4), pp 331 - 342.
- BUTCHER, H
COLLIS, P
GLEN, A
SILLS, P Community Groups in Action : Case Studies and Analysis.
London, Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., 1980
- CAPLAN, G (eds)
KILLILEA, M Support Systems and Mutual Help : Multi-disciplinary Explorations.
New York, Grune and Stratton Inc., 1975.
- DAVIES, B The Use of Groups in Social Work Practice.
London, Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., 1975.
- DAVIS, J A Outpatient Group Therapy with Schizophrenic Patients
Social Casework, 1971, 52(3), pp 172-178.
- DOUGLAS, T Group Processes in Social Work : A Theoretical Synthesis.
New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1979.
- DOUGLAS, T Group Work Practice.
London, Tavistock Publications, 1976.
- DOUGLAS, T Basic Groupwork.
London, Tavistock Publications, 1978.
- DOUGLAS, T Groups: Understanding People Gathered Together.
London, Tavistock Publications, 1983.

- ESTES, R J
HENRY, S The Therapeutic Contract in Work with Groups:
A Formal Analysis.
Social Service Review, 1976, 50(4), 612-622.
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Illinois, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1975.
- GALINSKY, M J
SCHOPLER, J H Warning : Groups may be Dangerous.
Social Work, NASW, 1977, 22(2), pp 89-93
- GARVIN, C D Contemporary Group Work. New Jersey, Prentice
Hall Inc., 1981.
- GAZDA, G M Group Counselling: A Developmental Approach
(second edition)
Boston, Allyn and Bacon Inc., 1978.
- GLASSER, P (eds)
SARRI, R
VINTER, R Individual Change through Small Groups.
New York, The Free Press, 1974.
- HEAP, K Group Theory for Social Workers: An Introduction
Oxford, Pergamon Press, 1977.
- HENRY, S Group Skills in Social Work: A Four Dimensional
Approach.
Illinois, F E Peacock Publishers Inc., 1981.
- HODGE, J Social Group Work: Rules for Establishing the
Group.
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New Jersey, Prentice-Hall Inc., 1975.
- KONOPKA, G Social Work : A Helping Process (third edition)
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London, Tavistock Publications, 1982.
- LEVINE, B Group Psychotherapy: Practice and Development
New Jersey, Prentice-Hall Inc., 1979.
- MACKEY, R A Developmental Process in Growth-Oriented Groups.
Social Work, NASW, 1980, 25(1), pp 26-29.

- MKALIPE, S J
Reflections on Self-Help Groups.
Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk,
 1983, 19(1), pp 24.
- NORTEN, H
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 OCCHETTI, D R
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Social Casework, 1981, 62(2), pp 74-80.
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 New York, D van Nostrand Company, 1981.
- PAPELL, C P
 ROTHMAN, B
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Vickery, A (eds), Integrating Social Work
Methods, London, George Allen and Unwin Ltd.,
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Encounter Groups
 Harmondsworth, Penguin Books Ltd., 1970.
- SCHWARTZ, W (eds)
 ZALBA, S R
The Practice of Group Work.
 New York, Columbia University Press, 1971..
- SHAW, M E (ed)
Group Dynamics : The Psychology of Small
Group Behaviour (third edition)
 New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1981.
- SHULMAN, L
A Casebook of Social Work with Groups :
The Medicating Model. New York, CSWE, 1968.
- SHULMAN, L
The Skills of Helping Individuals and Groups.
Illinois, F E Peacock Publishers Inc.,
 1979.
- SMITH, P B
Group Processes and Personal Change, London,
 Harper and Row Publishers, 1980.
- SMITH, P B (ed)
Small Groups and Personal Change. London,
 Methven and Co. Ltd., 1980.
- STRICKLER, M
 ALLGEYER, J
The Crisis Group
Social Work, NASW, 1976, 12(3), pp 28-32.
- TOSELAND, R W
 RIVAS, R F
An Introduction to Group Work Practice.
 New York, Macmillan Publishing Company, 1983.
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Social Group Work: Principles and Practices
(sixth edition)
 New York, Association Press, 1970.

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The Group in Life and in Social Work.
Social Casework, 1968, 49(5), pp 267-274.

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Some Conditions for Effective Work with
Groups.
British Journal of Social Work, 1975, 5(4),
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YALOM, I D

The Theory and Practice of Group Psychotherapy.
New York, Basic Books Inc.; 1975.

APPENDIX G - COMMUNITY WORK

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

Course: B.A. (Social Work) Honours;
Higher Diploma in Advanced Social Work Practice

Format:

The course will comprise 8 seminars. Students will be expected to do the required reading and come prepared for the seminars.

Case studies will be used to demonstrate the relationship between theory and practice. Course content will at all times relate to the student's fieldwork experience, and placed in a macro context.

Course objectives:

- 1.1 To provide students with insight into advanced knowledge, skills and methods in community work practice.
- 1.2 To study the possibilities and the limitations of community work practice in relation to the respective post graduate specialisations.
- 1.3 To explore the theoretical, practical and philosophical basis of community work in the South African context with the view to developing the foundations of an indigenous theory and practice.

Course Outline:I. Review of Community Work Theory

- 1.1 Historical origins
- 1.2 Conceptualisation
- 1.3 Models of Community work practice
- 1.4 Community work and social work
- 1.5 The status of community work in South Africa

II. Community Work and theories of Social Change

- 2.1 Consensus theory
- 2.2 Pluralism
- 2.3 Conflict theory
- 2.4 A critique

III. Interventions in the practice of Community Work3.1 Locality Development

- 3.1.1 Competing approaches
- 3.1.2 Self-help model - Attributes and limits
- 3.1.3 Citizen participation
- 3.1.4 Locality development programmes in social welfare settings
- 3.1.5 National community development strategy
- 3.1.6 Local case studies

3.2 Social Planning and Organisational Change

- 3.2.1 Planning theories - counterparts and contradictions
- 3.2.2 Planning design
- 3.2.3 Needs assessment
- 3.2.4 Evaluation techniques
- 3.2.5 Possibilities and limits of planning in S.A. social welfare systems - case studies

3.3 Organisations and their Linkages

- 3.3.1 Theoretical approaches
- 3.3.2 Organisational Analysis - A framework
- 3.3.3 Organisations as targets for change
- 3.3.4 Techniques in organisational change
- 3.3.5 Co-ordination and relations
- 3.3.6 Case studies

3.4 Social Policy

- 3.4.1 Models of social policies
- 3.4.2 Framework for analysis and synthesis
- 3.4.3 Implications for social and political action
- 3.4.4 Local case studies
 - 3.4.1 Analysis of policy of privatisation in social services and its implications for social welfare
 - 3.4.2 Analysis of agency policy within which students are placed

3.5 Social Action

- 3.5.1 Conflict and community work
- 3.5.2 Practitioners in Social Action
 - 3.5.2.1 Saul Alinsky
 - 3.5.2.2 Paulo Freire
 - 3.5.2.3 S.A. Case studies
- 3.5.3 Selected Practice Techniques
 - 3.5.3.1 Action research
 - 3.5.3.2 Legal advocacy
 - 3.5.3.3 Community education
 - 3.5.3.4 Using the media
 - 3.5.3.5 Negotiations and lobbying
 - 3.5.3.6 Whistle blowing

4. Towards Indigenous Theory and Practice

- 4.1 Establishing the need for indigenisation
- 4.2 The concept indigenisation
- 4.3 Worker roles
- 4.4 Action strategies
- 4.5 The challenges.

Assignment: The student is expected to complete one assignment which will be due on _____ You will be given a handout of topics to choose from.

Test: There will be one class test which is scheduled for _____

Reading List

- | | |
|---|---|
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NOTE:

This is a general reading list, students will be referred to selected readings material from the above and other sources. You will be required to prepare for the lectures and to do the necessary reading in advance.

School of Social Work

University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

BA(SOCIAL WORK) HONS AND HIGHER DIPLOMA IN
ADVANCED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICESEMINARS AND WORKSHOPS ON SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH
COURSE HANDBOOKINDEX

	page no.
Aims of the course	1
Course design	1
Tutoring and consultation	1
Submission of completed research exercises and assignments	1
Prescribed reading	2
Course outline	3
Content of workshops	5
Requirements for preliminary outlines of research dissertations	9
Illustrative material - Questionnaires	10
Illustrative material - Tabulations	12
Material for use in Exercise 5	13

SEMINARS AND WORKSHOPS ON SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH

1. AIMS OF THE COURSE

- 1.1. To provide students with an understanding of the philosophy and methodology of social work research;
- 1.2. To expose students to past and present trends in the development of social work research in South Africa, the United States of America and Britain;
- 1.3. To nurture in students the ability to critically evaluate the findings of research studies, and where appropriate to incorporate knowledge derived from research into their social work practice;
- 1.4. To prepare students to themselves undertake modest social research projects.

2. COURSE DESIGN

The course is made up of a series of seminars and complementary workshops. Each workshop is an exercise designed to provide the student with experience of an aspect of research work. Some of the exercises take place during classroom time, while others have to be completed by students between seminars.

For the purposes of research exercises, the class will be divided into small groups of seven students each.

3. TUTORING and CONSULTATION

Tutoring and/or consultation in respect of research exercises prescribed for the course will be provided by the course lecturer

4. SUBMISSION OF COMPLETED RESEARCH EXERCISES AND ASSIGNMENTS

The course outline on the following pages includes the submission dates for exercises and other assignments.

The attention of students is earnestly drawn to the following:

- (a) Students are required to submit outlines of the research studies which they propose to carry out during 1984. These outlines will be awarded a class mark, which will contribute towards students' overall marks for the course.
- (b) Exercises and assignments which are not submitted on the due date will not be marked.
- (c) The mark for the Honours course Dissertation is made up as follow

Test on social work research	...	...	10
Dissertation outline	...	...	5
Draft of research tool(s)	...	...	5
Dissertation draft	...	...	20
Dissertation	...	...	60
			100

5. PRESCRIBED READING

5.1 Books :

GRINNEL, R.M. Social Work Research and Evaluation, Itasca: F.E. Peacock Publishers Inc., 1985 (second edition)

POLANSKY, N.A. (Ed) Social Work Research Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press (original edition AND the 1975 revised edition)

TRIPODI, T, FELLIN, P and H.J. MEYER The Assessment of Social Research, Itasca: F.E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1975.

5.2. Journal Articles:

DE VOS, A.S. "Maatskaplikewerk-Navorsing in Suid Afrika-'n Beknopte Oorsig", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 8, 4, Oct. 1972, pp 255-262.

WINCKLER, A.T. "Social Work Research as a State Activity", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 1, 1, pp 35-41.

COURSE OUTLINE: SEMINARS AND WORKSHOPS ON SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH.

<u>SEMINAR CONTENT:</u>	<u>WORKSHOP CONTENT:</u>
1. Introduction to research 2. What is "Social Work Research"? 3. Basic research and applied research 4. Types of research	<u>Exercise 1:</u> What is "fact" and what is "prejudice"?
5. Choosing a topic for research 6. Choosing an approach to the research study 7. Research design and methodology	<u>Exercise 2:</u> Students will be required to devise a research approach for a selected research topic
	<u>Exercise 3:</u> Students will be required to evaluate the research approach used in a completed research study
8. Questionnaires 9. Schedules 10. Interview guides 11. Human observers 12. Sampling 13. Measures of central tendency	<u>Exercise 4:</u> Questionnaire construction and the formulation of a questionnaire
	<u>Exercise 5:</u> Measures of central tendency
14. Data processing and analysis 15. The use of tables 16. The use of figures - bar charts - histograms	<u>Exercise 6:</u> Tabular presentation of data
17. Writing up the research report 18. The evaluation of research	
	<u>Exercise 7:</u> Students will be required to prepare a brief (i.e., 3 minute) presentation of the research studies which they hope to undertake.

SEMINAR CONTENT

WORKSHOP CONTENT

	Presentation and analysis of the research programmes which members of the class hope to undertake
<u>Test : Social Work Research</u>	Presentation and analysis of the research programmes which members of the class hope to undertake
	<u>Exercise 8:</u> Each member of the class will be required to hand in a typed or written outline of the research study which they hope to carry out. This outline should follow the format prescribed on page 9.

WORKSHOPS IN SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH,

EXERCISE 1.

Your assignment :

1. Divide into "firms" of seven persons. Each firm will be required to select one of the following statements, and then complete the following tasks in regard to the statement selected:
 - (a) Suggest the possible reasons why the statement could be a "belief" which some individuals or groups hold;
 - (b) List the implications of social workers subscribing to such a belief.

List of Statements :

- (1) 'The best way to educate a workforce about an EAP is to have satisfied EAP users in the workforce.'
- (2) 'In community work with children, the social worker has a significantly different role to that in community work with adults.'
- (3) 'Parenting skills can be learned better in group situations than through individual contact.'
- (4) 'Females have a better knowledge of contraception than males.'

EXERCISE 2

Devise a research approach to test the "validity" of the statement selected by your firm for Exercise 1. In completing the exercise, pay attention to the anticipated availability of literature, possibility of using material already in existence, relevant background information that will be required; the identification of the question(s) for investigation, bases of comparison for anticipated findings, and practical consideration such as time-cost factors.

N.B. For the purposes of the exercise, your resources are (i) yourself, (ii) not more than three months of your time, and (iii) R100,00.

EXERCISE 3

Critically evaluate the research approach used in the completed study allocated to your "firm". Pay particular attention to:-

1. Limitations in the research approach;
2. The effect of such limitations on research findings and conclusions;
3. Alternative practical approaches which could have minimised the limitations identified.

EXERCISE 4

The University of the Witwatersrand is considering the introduction of a course of six one-and-a-half hour seminars, to be held weekly, for the Chairmen of Registered Welfare Organizations. The course is to be called "The Skills of Chairmanship".

The aim of the course is for participants to extend and develop the skills and knowledge required in their work as chairmen of boards of management. The course content will include interalia committee work, relevant legislation (including the National Welfare Act), management of non-profit social service organizations, and modern trends in social work and social welfare.

The University has prepared a brochure on the course, which will be posted to the chairman of every registered

welfare organization in Johannesburg, and, in order to measure response to the proposed course, the University wishes to send out a simple questionnaire, together with a stamped, addressed envelope for questionnaire return.

The questionnaire should be designed to elicit the following information:

- (1) whether or not the chairman is interested in attending the course;
- (2) whether or not other members of his board are interested in attending the course, and if so, their names;
- (3) the day and time each week most favoured for the seminar;
- (4) whether the format of the seminars should be formal lectures or a formal lecture followed by question and answer or a formal lecture followed by small-group discussion.

Your task: Design the questionnaire.

EXERCISE 5.

N.B. SEE ATTACHED TABLE.

Your assignments:

1. Calculate measures of central tendency in clients' ages (viz, mean age, median and quantile ages, modal age). When you examine the distribution of clients' ages, are these measures of central tendency misleading? If so, why? What means of presentation would be less misleading?
2. Calculate measures of central tendency in clients' "monthly family income" (viz, mean income, median and quantile income, modal income). When you examine the distribution of clients' family incomes, are these measures of central tendency misleading? If so, why? What means of presentation would be less misleading?

EXERCISE 6.

Your assignments:

1. Using the data presented in Exercise 5, construct two tabulations, each headed "Age and Presenting Problem". In your first table, use decade age categories, i.e. 10 to 19 years, 20 to 29 years, 30 to 39 years, 40 to 49 years, 50 to 59 years, and 60 years and above. In your second table, use two-and-a-half decade categories, i.e. 0 to 24 years, 25 to 49 years, 50 years and over.

Both tables should reflect the number and percentage of clients in each age group with a particular presenting problem, together with the total number and percentage of clients with a particular presenting problem.

Remember!! No. of clients = 25; No. of presenting problems = 33.

EXERCISE 6. (Cont.)

2. Briefly discuss the implications for "Agency X";

- (a) if they chose to analyse their data as in your first table;
 - (b) if they chose to analyse their data as in your second table.
-

EXERCISE 7.

Your assignment:

Present a brief (i.e. 3 minutes) presentation of the research study which you propose to undertake in 1985. Include the following in your presentation:-

- (a) Title
 - (b) Reasons for choice of topic
 - (c) Your proposed research approach - and its limitations
 - (d) The anticipated value of the findings, and to whom they will be valuable.
-

EXERCISE 8.

Prepare a written outline of the research topic which you propose to undertake in 1985. The outline should follow the format required by the School of Social Work (see separate sheet).

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK
UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

BA (SOCIAL WORK) HONOURS - DISSERTATION

FIRST TERM CLASS PROJECT: PRELIMINARY OUTLINES OF RESEARCH DISSERTATIONS

1. Candidates are required to submit a preliminary outline of their proposed research dissertations.
2. Each candidate will be awarded a mark which will be incorporated into the year's class mark.
3. The preliminary outline should cover the following information.
 - A: Proposed title of the research dissertation.
 - B: Reasons for the choice of topic.
 - C: The specific aims of the study (stated in the form of an hypothesis or as questions-to-be-researched).
 - D: Anticipated value of the findings.
 - E: A precise formulation of the proposed research design and methodology, including:
 - (a) Scope of the investigation (units of investigation, sampling procedures, time span of the study);
 - (b) A description of the research tools to be used;
 - (c) How research data will be analysed, and how findings will be related to the research aims outlined under C, above.
 - F: Limitations anticipated in research design and methodology, and in the reliability and validity of the findings.
 - G: Classification of the research design in terms of the categorisation suggested by Tripodi, Fellin' and Meyer (1972).
 - H: A list of references relevant to the research topic.
4. The examiner for this project will be Professor B Mckendrick and the documents should be submitted to him on a date to be agreed.
5. Academic supervisors for the dissertations proper will be assigned on an early date.
6. PLEASE NOTE THAT UNDER NO CIRCUMSTANCES MAY SECTIONS A - G OF THE OUTLINE EXCEED 2 TYPED OR 4 HANDWRITTEN PAGES.

ASRIKANS KERSY

FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE CAREER CHOICE
AMONG FIRST YEAR SOCIAL WORK STUDENTS

A Survey conducted by the Research Unit of the School
of Social Work, University of the Witwatersrand, with
the cooperation of South African universities and colleges.

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Dear Student,

You are one of several hundred students enrolled in first-year social work courses in South Africa in 1975.

Your cooperation in the present study will throw light on the factors that influence matriculants to choose social work as a career. We hope that you will want to be part of this countrywide study, and by doing so you will early in your training actually contribute to social work research. The end results will be made available to Universities, Departments of State, Welfare Organizations and other relevant bodies.

Before you begin to answer, please read the introduction very carefully.

INTRODUCTION:

1. It will not take you long to fill in this questionnaire.
2. The list of alternative answers provided for each question will not always express the subtleties of your notions, especially for those questions which deal with complex issues. However, the purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain an overall picture.
3. Answers are not rated "true" or "false" and there is no mark allocated to answers. All that matters is that you should express the views which best reflect your individual situation.
4. Your individual identity will not be disclosed. Your response will be confidential, and not even you will be able to identify your answers in the statistical summaries.
5. Answer every question in accordance with instructions. You will note that in some instances the questions read "Mark only one item", while elsewhere you may be asked to "Mark any three items". So please read each question carefully before making your response. When you are ready to give your answer, please do so by placing a cross (thus: X) in the space provided.
6. Please fill in this questionnaire on the day that it is handed to you. When you have completed it, seal it in the envelope provided, and hand the envelope back to the staff member who issued the questionnaire to you.

- A. Upon completing your higher education, where do you intend to reside ?
(Mark only one)
- 7 1. Republic of South Africa or South West Africa
 2. Elsewhere
- 8 9 B. Your age as of 1st March, 1975 ? years
- 10 C. Your sex ? Male Female
- 11 D. Your current marital status ? (Mark only one)
 1. Single (i.e. never married)
 2. Married
 3. Widowed
 4. Divorced
- 12 E. Your religious affiliation ? (Mark only one)
 1. Christian - Catholic
 2. Christian - Protestant
 3. Jewish
 4. Hindu
 5. Moslem
 6. OTHER (specify:)
 7. No affiliation to any one religion
- 13 F. Your population group ? (Mark only one)
 1. African
 2. Asiatic
 3. Coloured
 4. White
- 14 G. In which of the following areas have you lived most of your life ? (Mark only one)
 1. A city
 2. A town
 3. A village or rural area
- 15 H. What educational qualification do you possess which has enabled you to enter your University or College ?
 (Mark only one)
 1. First class matriculation or equivalent certificate obtained in the Republic of South Africa
 or South West Africa
 2. Second class matriculation or equivalent certificate obtained in the Republic of South Africa
 or South West Africa
 3. Third class matriculation or equivalent certificate obtained in the Republic of South Africa
 or South West Africa
 4. Mature age exemption from the Joint Matriculation Board
 5. Matriculation exemption on the basis of being in possession of a qualification obtained outside the
 Republic of South Africa or South West Africa

PLEASE NOTE:-

If at your University or College students may choose Social Work I as a subject without having to register for the Degree or Diploma in Social Work, and if you are such a student, you may wish to skip Questions I to T inclusive, which are applicable only to students who intend to make social work their career.

TABLE XLII

FIRST AND SECOND JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK: FIELDS IN WHICH RESPONDENTS HAD THEIR FIRST JOBS, AND WHETHER THEIR SECOND JOBS ARE IN THE SAME OR DIFFERENT FIELDS.

Field of Social Work	No. of Respondents who had their first job in this field of social work	No. and % of Respondents who had the first job in this field, but who had no second job at all		No. and % of Respondents who had their first and second jobs in this field		No. and % of Respondents who had their first job in this field, and their second job in a different field	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Aged	1	0	-	0	-	1	100.00
Alcoholism	2	1	50.00	0	-	1	50.00
Child and Family	34	10	29.41	10	29.41	14	41.18
Community	3	1	33.33	0	-	2	66.67
Dept. of Social Welfare and Pensions	10	1	10.00	3	30.00	6	60.00
Housing	2	1	50.00	0	-	1	50.00
Medical	9	1	11.11	1	11.11	7	77.78
Prisoners	5	2	40.00	1	20.00	2	40.00
Psychiatric	5	0	-	3	60.00	2	40.00
Physical Disability	5	2	40.00	1	20.00	2	40.00
Recreation	3	2	66.67	0	-	1	33.33
TOTAL	79*	21	26.58	19	24.05	39	49.37

* Of the 86 respondents, only 79 had first jobs

TABLE XLII

FIRST AND SECOND JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK: FIELDS IN WHICH RESPONDENTS HAVE THEIR FIRST JOBS, AND WHETHER THEIR SECOND JOBS ARE IN THE SAME OR DIFFERENT FIELDS.

Field of Social Work	No. of Respondents who had their first job in this field of social work	No and % of Respondents who had their first job in this field, but who had <u>no</u> second job at all		No. and % of Respondents who had their first <u>and</u> second jobs in this field		No and % of Respondents who had their first job in this field, and their second job in a different field	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Aged	1	0	-	0	-	1	100.00
Alcoholism	2	1	50.00	0	-	1	50.00
Child and Family	34	10	29.41	10	29.41	14	41.18
Community	3	1	33.33	0	-	2	66.67
Dept. of Social Welfare and Pensions	10	1	10.00	3	30.00	6	60.00
Housing	2	1	50.00	0	-	1	50.00
Medical	9	1	11.11	1	11.11	7	77.78
Prisoners	5	2	40.00	1	20.00	2	40.00
Psychiatric	5	0	-	3	60.00	2	40.00
Physical Disability	5	2	40.00	1	20.00	2	40.00
Recreation	3	2	66.67	0	-	1	33.33
TOTAL	79*	21	26.58	19	24.05	39	49.37

* Of the 86 respondents, only 79 had first jobs

TABLE FOR EXERCISE 5.

261

New Clients seen at X Welfare Agency, January 1976.

AGE	SEX	MONTHLY INCOME (family)	PRESENTING PROBLEM *
23	F	R280	FR
40	F	R300	FR
18	M	R140	W;LI
19	M	R160	W;LI
22	F	R150	FR
44	M	R400	A
50	F	R500	A
67	F	R 24	LI
20	F	R150	W
33	F	R220	FR
34	M	R400	A
20	M	R 80	W;LI
65	F	R 57	LI
83	F	R 57	LI
18	M	R120	W;LI
42	F	R350	FR
28	F	R350	FR
47	F	R200	FR
50	M	R1300	A
19	M	R140	W;LI
19	M	R 90	W;LI
40	F	R280	FR
39	F	R180	A
20	M	R 80	W;LI
22	M	R100	W;LI

N = 25; * The presenting problems have been categorised:
 FR = Family Relationship; W = Work Opportunities;
 A = Alcoholism; LI = Low Income.

APPENDIX I - PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

BACHELOR OF ARTS IN SOCIAL WORK WITH HONOURS
HIGHER DIPLOMA IN ADVANCED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

COURSE : Social Work Research, Professional Education and Supervision

Course Sequence : Supervision

1 Course Objectives:

Course objectives are threefold, namely to enable the candidates to:

- 1.1 Gain knowledge and understanding of the objectives, methods and processes of field instruction, with an emphasis on the social work method of supervision, and to develop beginning skills in implementing this learning.
- 1.2 Gain knowledge and understanding of the objectives, principles and methods of staff development for social work practitioners.
- 1.3 Study more extensively supervision and consultation as significant methods of staff development for practitioners.

2. Course Presentation

- 2.1 The course will be presented as a series of 10 seminars of two-hour duration.
- 2.2 Practical exercises will be included in the course, and
- 2.3 One written assignment to be completed by candidates registered for an Honours degree, features in its structure and submission date for this assignment is July 29, 1985
- 2.4 A test scheduled for August 19, 1985 will be written by all candidates.

3. Course Outline

3.1 Field Instruction in Social Work Education

3.1.1 Components of the Field Practice Course:

Training objectives
The practice curriculum
The practice setting
The training partnership
Field teaching
The structure of the training course
The training programme
Assessment of field practice

3.1.2 Supervision, the essential component in field teaching:

Definition of supervision
Brief overview of the historical development of supervision
Aims of supervision
Supervision and other social work methods
Methods of supervision
The status of the supervisor within the practice setting
Roles and functions of participants in the supervisory process

3.1.3 Function and Tasks of the Supervision in each Time Phase of the Field Placement:

The Beginning Phase : Preparation for the field placement
Establishing the supervisory relationship
Contracting for the teaching-learning process
Making an educational diagnosis of the student
Selecting a caseload for the student

The Ongoing Phase : Case management
Maintaining the supervisory relationship
Maintaining the teaching-learning process
'Games' played by the student/supervisor
Managing conflict
Ongoing evaluation of the student's practice

The Ending Phase : Teaching and helping the student to terminate the placement
Ending the supervisory relationship
Assessing the work of the student

3.2 Staff Development for Social Work Practitioners

- 3.2.1 Objectives of staff development
- 3.2.2 Principles underlying staff development
- 3.2.3 Methods of staff development
- 3.2.4 Aids for staff development

3.3 Supervision and Consultation for Social Work Practitioners

- 3.3.1 Distinguishing features of supervision and consultation
- 3.3.2 Status of the supervisor within the organisational structure
Functions of the supervisor
Methods of supervision
Evaluation of practitioner performance
- 3.3.3 Readiness of the practitioner for consultation
Components of the consultative process
Principles inherent in the consultative process

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

BA(SOCIAL WORK) HONS/HIGHER DIPLOMA IN ADVANCED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

SEMINAR 2

WORKSHOP ASSIGNMENT

- (1) Divide into small groups of four or five persons.
- (2) In terms of the theory of curriculum construction, respond to the following assignment:

The School of Social Work at this University has been approached by a group of 20 experienced social workers who believe that their employing agencies should routinely carry out small-scale research projects into areas relevant to agency service. However, they lack knowledge of how to conduct modest research projects, and they ask the School of Social Work to offer four 2-hour evening seminars on the topic 'Social Work Research'.

Your task is to design the curriculum for the proposed course.

In your design, include the following:

- (1) Aims of the course;
- (2) How you would select and organize content of the course;
- (3) The teaching-learning situations that you would use and why;
- (4) The ways in which you would implement (2) and (3) above, and why;
- (5) How you would evaluate whether or not course aims had been achieved.

(For the purposes of planning, you may assume that you have access to University resources, such as accommodation, teaching staff, audio-visual equipment, etc.)

HOMEWORK FOR SEMINAR

Look back on your Higher Diploma/Honours course to date, and select ONE instance when each of the following teaching media could have been used to enhance teaching and learning. (Motivate your answer.)

- (a) a film
- (b) overhead projector transparencies
- (c) closed-circuit television
- (d) tape recordings
- (e) role-playing

READING : pp.73-81 of Hilson.

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

BA(SOCIAL WORK) HONS/HIGHER DIPLOMA IN ADVANCED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

WORKSHOP

SMALL GROUP DISCUSSIONS

- (1) Divide into small groups of four or five persons, and appoint one member as secretary.
- (2) Discuss the following topics:

All groups : What should be the aims (or objectives) of undergraduate courses of social work education and training in South Africa? Motivate your answer.

Group 1 :

Critically examine Ruth Smalley's statement of the essential attributes of a social work educator, and then answer the following questions:

- (a) Do you consider Smalley's statement to be sufficiently full, or do you think that the social work educator ideally requires additional attributes which Smalley does not mention? Motivate your answer.
- (b) In the light of your answer to question (a) above, define the attributes which you consider to be essential in a STUDENT of social work at the Honours or Higher Diploma level.

Group 2 :

Critically examine Reynolds' statement of the functions of a teacher in social work education. In what ways, if any, should teaching-learning situations in the Honours or Higher Diploma course be changed to enable educators to carry out these functions most effectively? Motivate your answer.

Group 3 :

Make a list of the main characteristics of a productive teacher-student relationship in social work education. In what ways, if any, do you think that a teacher's relationship with a postgraduate student (e.g. a Higher Diploma or Honours student) should differ from his relationship with an undergraduate student? (Give reasons for your answer.)

- (3) At the seminar on 15 October 1984 group secretaries will be required to report back on small group discussions to the group as a whole.

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

BA(SOCIAL WORK) HONOURS/HIGHER DIPLOMA IN ADVANCED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK

1. Aims of the Course

- 1.1 To introduce students to the philosophy and practice of social work education, both internationally and in South Africa.
- 1.2 To prepare students with a theory background for future teaching roles in social work education.

2. Course Outline

The course consists of a series of interconnected seminars and workshops:

- 27.8. Seminar - The past and the present: the historical development of social work education internationally and in South Africa.
2.9.

- 17.9. Seminar - International challenges that require a response from social work and social work education. (A taped presentation of the key-note address by Professor John Lawrence at the 1984 Congress of the International Association of Schools of Social Work, entitled 'human Survival and Development: Our urgent need for a reflective universal morality'. The tape will be followed by a discussion on how South African social work and social work education could respond to the issues raised by Professor Lawrence.

- (24.9. Test: Social Work Research)

- 1.10. Seminar - Curriculum construction.

Workshop - Designing a curriculum.

- 8.10. Seminar - The values and shortcomings of alternative teaching-learning methods and audiovisual aids.

Workshop - Small group discussions:

All groups : The Aims of social work education

Group 1 : Plus Attributes of a teacher in social work education

Group 2 : Plus Functions of a teacher in social work education

Group 3 : Plus Characteristics of a production teacher-student relationship.

Workshop - 'Practice what you preach'. Each student will be required to prepare a 3-minute teaching presentation (on a social work topic of her choice), which will be video-recorded. The videotaped presentations will be replayed and evaluated by the class and the lecturer. (A mark will be awarded, which will constitute the class test mark for the course.)

Revision and consolidation of the courses Professional Education for Social Work and Social Work Research.

3. PRESCRIBED READING:

3.1 Books and dissertations.

HILSON, F.B. First year social work students at the University of the Witwatersrand: Selection, education and achievement, M.A. (Social work) dissertation, University of the Witwatersrand, 1978 (Chapter 2 & 4)

HOFFMANN, W.C. Performance of Undergraduate Students in Field Instruction in Social Work Education. Ph.D. thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, 1977

McKENDRICK, B.W. The Selection and Training of Social Work Manpower in South Africa. Ph.D. thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, 1980.

COLE, C. The learner in education for the professions as seen in education for social work, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954

POWELL, M. (Ed) Teaching and Learning in social work education. New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1970

3.2 Journal articles

BOPAPE, M. "Training of social work students to serve the needs of a changing South African Bantu Society", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 3,1, 1967, pp. 24-27

HOLLIS, F. "... and what shall we teach? The social work educator and knowledge", Social Service Review, 42,2, 1968, 184-196

IRVING, E.E. "Education for social work: science or humanity?" International Social Work, 17, 2, 1971, 53-57

IRWIN, F. "Social work education and social work enterprise", Child Welfare, 52, 1973, 277-286

McKENDRICK, B. "The first year as basis for training in social work", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 11,3, 1975, 129-134

- MULLER, A. "An historical review of university education for social work in South Africa", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 4,1, 1968, 3-10
- "Social work education in the Republic of South Africa", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 8, 1972, 253-267
- "Die opleidings proses van die student in maatskaplike werk met besondere verwysing na professionele vorming", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 11,3, 1975, 129-140
- MULLER, C. "New directions in social work education and practice", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 4,3, 1968, 147-149
- "Innovation versus tradition in social work education: a search for equilibrium?", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 7,4, 1971, 229-233
- "Post-graduate education in social work", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 9,2, 1973, 132-133
- PAUW, J.R. "Designing a curriculum in Higher Education, with special reference to Social Work", in Towards Developing a Curriculum in Field Instruction in Social Work Practice, proceedings of the Conference of teachers of social work, Johannesburg, April 1976
- SMALLEY, R. "Social work education: a world view", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 4,4, 1968, 163-168
- THERON, E. "Opleiding van studente in die maatskaplike werk. Riglyne vir die toekoms", Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, 8,1, 1972, 30-36 and 55

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

BA(SOCIAL WORK) HONS/HIGHER DIPLOMA IN ADVANCED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION - SEMINARS ON 27.8. and 3.9.

1. What are the implications of the aims of social work education for the nature of social work education and training programmes?
2. Examine the historical development and present nature of social work education in the United States of America and the Republic of South Africa. In what ways is present-day education of social workers in the Republic different from, and similar to, that in the United States? What are the implications of these similarities and differences?
3. What effects do each of the following features have for the nature of undergraduate social work education and training programmes in the Republic of South Africa:
 - (a) the characteristics of undergraduate social work students;
 - (b) historical development in South Africa since 1900;
 - (c) the requirement that undergraduate social work students must major and sub-major in two social sciences, in addition to their social work studies.

4. Prescribed Reading

4.1 Books

- Austin, L N 'The Changing Role of the Supervisor', Perspectives on Social Welfare : An Introductory Anthology, Weinberger, N E (ed) London, The Macmillan Co. 1969, pp. 404-416.
- Botha, N J Supervisie in Maatskaplike Werk met Besondere Klem op Drie Ps. Suiweringswelsynsorganisasies, Unpublished MA Dissertation, University of Stellenbosch, 1971.
- Hayward, C A Fair Assessment in Social Work: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work, London, 1979.
- Hoffmann, W C Performance of Undergraduate Students in Field Instruction in Social Work Education, Unpublished PhD thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, 1976.
- Kadushin, A Supervision in Social Work, New York, Columbia University Press, 1976.
- Kadushin, A Consultation in Social Work, New York, Columbia University Press, 1977.
- Kaslow, F W and Associates Supervision, Consultation, and Staff Training in the Helping Professions, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, 1977.
- Miller, Y 'Supervision in Social Work', Encyclopedia of Social Work Vol. II, New York, N.A.S.W. 1977, pp.1494-1500.
- Munson, C E (ed) Social Work Supervision : Classic Statements and Critical Issues, The Free Press, 1975.
- Pettes, D E Supervision in Social Work: A Method of Student Training and Staff Development, London, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1967.
- Pettes, D E Staff and Student Supervision : A Task-Centred Approach, London, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1979.
- Westheimer, I J The Practice of Supervision in Social Work: A Guide for Staff Supervisors, London, Ward Lock Educational, 1977.
- Young, P The Student and Supervision in Social Work Education, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1967.

4.2 Journal Articles

- Akin, G and Weil, N 'The Prior Question: How do Supervisors Learn to Supervise?', Social Casework, October 1981.
- Austin, L N 'Basic Principles of Supervision' Social Casework, December 1962.
- Crawford, B 'Use of Color Charts in Supervision', Social Casework, April 1971.
- Dwyer, N and Urbanowski, M 'Student Process Recording : A Plea for Structure', Social Casework, May 1965.
- Getzel, G S 'Supervising in Groups as a Model for Today' Social Casework, March 1971
- Goldberg, J R and Salmon, R
- Hester, M C 'Educational Process in Supervision', Social Casework, June 1951.
- Hoffmann, W C 'The Practice Course in Social Work Education', Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, October 1979.
- Kadushin, A 'Games People Play in Supervision', Social Work, Vol 13, July 1968.
- Leyendecker, G 'A Comprehensive Staff Development Program', Social Casework, December 1965.
- Middleman, R R and Rhoads, G B 'Teaching the Practice of Supervision', Journal of Education for Social Work, Fall 1980.
- Watson, K W 'Differential Supervision', Social Work, November 1973.

APPENDIX J - SUPERVISION

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURGSCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORKBACHELOR OF ARTS IN SOCIAL WORK WITH HONOURS
HIGHER DIPLOMA IN ADVANCED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICECOURSE : Social Work Research, Professional Education and SupervisionCourse Sequence : Supervision1. Course Objectives:

Course objectives are threefold, namely to enable the candidates to:

- 1.1 Gain knowledge and understanding of the objectives, methods and processes of field instruction, with an emphasis on the social work method of supervision, and to develop beginning skills in implementing this learning.
- 1.2 Gain knowledge and understanding of the objectives, principles and methods of staff development for social work practitioners.
- 1.3 Study more extensively supervision and consultation as significant methods of staff development for practitioners.

2. Course Presentation

- 2.1 The course will be presented as a series of 10 seminars of two-hour duration.
- 2.2 Practical exercises will be included in the course, and
- 2.3 One written assignment to be completed by candidates registered for an Honours degree, features in its structure and submission date for this assignment is July 29, 1985
- 2.4 A test scheduled for August 19, 1985 will be written by all candidates.

3. Course Outline

3.1 Field Instruction in Social Work Education

3.1.1 Components of the Field Practice Course:

Training objectives
 The practice curriculum
 The practice setting
 The training partnership
 Field teaching
 The structure of the training course
 The training programme
 Assessment of field practice

3.1.2 Supervision, the essential component in field teaching:

- Definition of supervision
- Brief overview of the historical development of supervision
- Aims of supervision
- Supervision and other social work methods
- Methods of supervision
- The status of the supervisor within the practice setting
- Roles and functions of participants in the supervisory process

3.1.3 Function and Tasks of the Supervision in each Time Phase of the Field Placement:

The Beginning Phase : Preparation for the field placement
 Establishing the supervisory relationship
 Contracting for the teaching-learning process
 Making an educational diagnosis of the student
 Selecting a caseload for the student

The Ongoing Phase : Case management
 Maintaining the supervisory relationship
 Maintaining the teaching-learning process
 'Games' played by the student/supervisor
 Managing conflict
 Ongoing evaluation of the student's practice

The Ending Phase : Teaching and helping the student to terminate the placement
 Ending the supervisory relationship
 Assessing the work of the student

3.2 Staff Development for Social Work Practitioners

3.2.1 Objectives of staff development

3.2.2 Principles underlying staff development

3.2.3 Methods of staff development

3.2.4 Aids for staff development

3.3 Supervision and Consultation for Social Work Practitioners

3.3.1 Distinguishing features of supervision and consultation

3.3.2 Status of the supervisor within the organisational structure
 Functions of the supervisor
 Methods of supervision
 Evaluation of practitioner performance

3.3.3 Readiness of the practitioner for consultation
 Components of the consultative process
 Principles inherent in the consultative process

4. Prescribed Reading4.1 Books

- Austin, L N 'The Changing Role of the Supervisor', Perspectives on Social Welfare : An Introductory Anthology, Weinberger, N E (ed) London, The MacMillan Co. 1969, pp. 404-416.
- Botha, N J Supervisie in Maatskaplike Werk met Besondere Klem op Drie Partikuliere Welsynsorganisasies, Unpublished MA Dissertation, University of Stellenbosch, 1971.
- Hayward, C A Fair Assessment in Social Work: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work, London, 1979.
- Hoffmann, W C Performance of Undergraduate Students in Field Instruction in Social Work Education, Unpublished P.D thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, 1978.
- Kadushin, A Supervision in Social Work, New York, Columbia University Press, 1976.
- Kadushin, A Consultation in Social Work, New York, Columbia University Press, 1977.
- Kaslow, F W and Associates . Supervision, Consultation, and Staff Training in the Helping Professions, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, 1977.
- Miller, Y 'Supervision in Social Work', Encyclopedia of Social Work Vol. II, New York, N.A.S.W. 1971, pp.1494-1500.
- Munson, C E (ed) Social Work Supervision : Classic Statements and Critical Issues, The Free Press, 1975.
- Pettes, D E Supervision in Social Work: A Method of Student Training and Staff Development, London, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1967.
- Pettes, D E Staff and Student Supervision : A Task-Centred Approach, London, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1979.
- Westheimer, I J The Practice of Supervision in Social Work: A Guide for Staff Supervisors, London, Ward Lock Educational, 1977.
- Young, P The Student and Supervision in Social Work Education, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1967.

4.2 Journal Articles

- Akin, G and Weil, M 'The Prior Question: How do Supervisors Learn to Supervise?', Social Casework, October 1981.
- Austin, L N 'Basic Principles of Supervision' Social Casework, December 1962.
- Crawford, B 'Use of Color Charts in Supervision', Social Casework, April 1971.
- Dwyer, N and Urbanowski, M 'Student Process Recording : A Plea for Structure, Social Casework, May 1965.
- Getzel, G S 'Supervising in Groups as a Model for Today'
Goldberg, J R Social Casework, March 1971
and Salmon, R
- Hester, M C 'Educational Process in Supervision', Social Casework, June 1951.
- Hoffmann, W C 'The Practice Course in Social Work Education', Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, October 1979.
- Kadushin, A 'Games People Play in Supervision', Social Work, Vol 13, July 1968.
- Leyendecker, G 'A Comprehensive Staff Development Program', Social Casework, December 1965.
- Middleman, R R and Rhodes, G B 'Teaching the Practice of Supervision', Journal of Education for Social Work, Fall 1980.
- Watson, K W 'Differential Supervision', Social Work, November 1973.

APPENDIX K - CHILD AND FAMILY WELFARE - COURSE STATEMENT AND OUTLINE

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURGSCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORKBACHELOR OF ARTS DEGREE IN SOCIAL WORK WITH HONOURS
HIGHER DIPLOMA IN ADVANCED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICESpecialization : Child and Family WelfarePreamble

Child and Family Welfare is the general term used to describe a broad range of services designed to promote the well-being of children and families. However, as a name for this postgraduate course it denotes an area of study extending beyond the organisation and nature of services only, to include also the study of a sociological and demographic base for understanding the family; the physical, social, emotional and intellectual development of the individual within the context of the family; social controls; as well as legislative provision; with particular emphasis on the South African society in all areas of study. The central theme underpinning the course is family-centered social work practice, with ecology as the practice metaphor. A major emphasis is prevention. To this end preparation for family life, marriage and parenthood as well as the enhancement thereof feature prominently as study areas.

Social work practice with individuals and dyads in the family group, especially with selected families at risk is a further major course component. Social work intervention in protective services is another. Course content translated into course objectives are:

Course objectives

To examine family systems, in terms of values, roles and responsibilities, kinship linkages and networks, family patterns, in contemporary society with particular reference to the South African context.

To study the life cycles of both the individual and the family in terms of transitional issues, within the context of the 'well' family.

To gain an understanding of child and family care as the joint responsibility of state and private initiative through the study of social policy, legislative provision, the organisation of child and family welfare services, with the primary focus on South Africa.

To view social work practice in this field of specialization as family-centered, based on an eco-systems perspective which concerns itself with transactions between the individual, family and environment.

To examine and acquire the knowledge base, values, techniques and skills for social work intervention with the individual, families and the environment on both preventive and curative levels.

To gain an understanding of roles and functions of professionals providing services to children and families and to develop collaborative skills; in particular with the legal profession.

To study practice procedures, and case management and recording formats in child and family services thereby developing further competence in these.

Course Components

The specialization course comprises two main courses viz.:

1. Legal, Institutional and Cultural Framework of Children and Family Welfare (73410 and 73510)
2. Social Work Practice in Child and Family Welfare (73410 and 73509)

Each of these two courses are further divided into course sequences, nine in respect of Course 1 and seven in respect of Course 2 (See Course Content, pp. 3-6).

Course Structure

Course 1 will be presented on Wednesday afternoons from 16h00 to 18h00 in the Seminar Room, Seventh Floor, Richard Ward, while Course 2 will comprise the content of seminars on Monday mornings from 9h30-12h30 in the same venue.

Further hand-outs issued at the start of each course sequence will reflect brief objectives, detailed content and recommended reading.

Four assignments in all constitute the year mark component (40%) of this specialization, two each in respect of courses 1 and 2. Dates for submission of these assignments are :

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| Assignment 1 - Legal, Institutional and Cultural Framework | 22 April |
| Assignment 2 - Social Work Practice in Child and Family Welfare | 13 May |
| Assignment 3 - Legal, Institutional and Cultural Framework | 22 July |
| Assignment 4 - Social Work Practice in Child and Family Welfare | 7 October |

Late submission of assignments is not encouraged.

At the end-of-course examinations, courses 1 and 2 will be examined in separate examination papers.

Course Presentation

Although the lecturer responsible for co-ordinating the course will chiefly be responsible for presenting course material, guest lecturers will be invited to lead certain seminars and candidates will take responsibility for the preparation of course material when called upon to do so.

Experiential work in the form of exercises and role-plays will feature prominently in seminars, as will discussion of case material from candidates' practice records.

Course References

The departmental booklist is attached as bibliographic reference. Further reference lists will be issued attached to course sequence outlines, as sequences are presented. Such issue does not preclude candidates from further exploring literary sources; indeed, it is encouraged.

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

HONOURS IN SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

HIGHER DIPLOMA IN SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

COURSE: SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK THEORY AND PRACTICE

Objectives

The overall context of the course is the three subsystems of school, home and community, and their interplay. Specific attention will be given to the following objectives:

1. To gain an understanding of the school, the home and the community as social systems.
2. To gain insight into the social, political, and economic realities of school life.
3. To describe and compare the underlying theory, target problems, goals and required skills of recognised models of social work practice in the public schools.
4. To develop a repertoire of strategies for change at the individual, group, organisational, and community levels.
5. To develop and extend attitudes that reveal readiness to work comfortably and effectively within the Social System of the School.
6. To assist the teacher to identify children with psychosocial and physical problems that interfere with their scholastic progress.
 - (a) To have a better understanding of such children and their circumstances.
 - (b) To develop a spirit of teamwork in school social work practice.

COURSE STRUCTURE

Format of seminars:

Seminars will be conducted using various approaches including:
formal input, by lecturer and visiting lecturers.
Presentation of papers by students.
Discussion of concepts.
Experiential exercises, role plays.
Discussion of case material from student practice.

COURSE CONTENT:

FIRST SEQUENCE: INTRODUCTION TO SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

Origins and Present Status of School Social Work

1. United States of America
2. United Kingdom
3. Republic of South Africa

Social Work and the Public School

- a. The Traditional School as a system.
Structures
- b. Administration in the School setting
The role and function of the Principal
Teacher roles - other instructional specialists
Accountability
- c. The Classroom
The Learning Environment
As a group - processes, dynamics.

Role of the School Social Worker in PracticeMODELS OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK PRACTICEA. Clinical Model

- (a) Casework services to the pupil with problems.
- (b) Interprofessional contacts with teachers
- (c) and other School personnel.
- (d) Casework services to the family
- (e) Utilising community resources
- (f) Interpreting the school programme to the community.

B. Community - School - Model

Influence of the community environment
on the school and its pupils.
Cultural impact.
Socio-economic factors which affect schooling and schools.
Attitudes to education and schooling.
Social worker roles.

C. School - Community - Pupil - Model

Ecological model
 Impact of home on child, micro systems
 Home deprivation. Mesosystems. Deficits.
 Educational implications of self concept - anxiety, achievement.

Direct Services to School Children and families - Methods of Intervention that apply.

SOCIAL CASEWORK APPROACHES

Review of basic process and techniques. Knowledge and skill in method.
 Behaviour modification for children
 T.A. for tots. Teens.
 Rational emotive therapy
 Play therapy techniques

Family Therapy

Structure of the family
 Assessment
 Diagnosis
 Crisis Intervention in school situation eg. adolescence suicide: some methodology.

Home visits. Advantages and Disadvantages.

School based interviews

Referrals

Community Resources .

Interdisciplinary teaming.

SECOND SEQUENCE:

Human Behaviour and Social Environment

Review
 psycho analytic and other psychodynamic approaches to understanding human behaviour.

- briefly Erikson
 Freud
 Piaget

i.e. social behavioural and intellectual learning theory

Biological determinants of growth and behaviour

theories of social interaction and systems interaction
 eg role, theory, labeling.

The Needs of ChildrenHuman relationships with special reference to the School.Developmental stages of childhoodInfancy. Childhood.Middle years of childhoodAdolescence.Stages of the Family Life Cycle :Unattached young adultsThe family with adolescentsRemarriage structureStepparenting TasksPUPILS WITH SPECIFIC PROBLEMSin light of causes, symptoms. Intervention.Classroom Management Problems

Truancy
 Dishonest Behaviour
 Profanity
 Classroom disturbance

Immature Behaviours

Insecure Behaviours

Habit Disorders

- Rowdy behaviour
- Non compliance
- Class clowning
- Temper tantrums
- Destructive behaviour
- Hyperactivity
- Inattentive behaviour
- Impulsiveness
- Procrastination
- Poor coordination
- Anxiety and tension
- Phobias
- Compulsive perfectionistic behaviour
- Poor self-esteem
- Depression
- Mutism
- Poor academic performance
- Enuresis. Encopresis
- Masturbation
- Thumbsucking/Nail biting
- Sleep disorders

Speech Disorders

- Stuttering

Substance Abuse
Sexual Behaviour

- Pregnancy Prevention
Values - Clarification for Venereal
Disease Prevention.

Disturbed Peer Relationships

- Aggression
Prejudice
Shyness/withdrawal

Disturbed Relations with TeachersFAMILIES WITH SPECIAL PROBLEMS: MULTI PROBLEM FAMILIES' IMPACT ON CHILDDynamics

Separation and divorce
Illness in the family
Death in the family
Child abuse and neglect
Foster-care formal and informal
Malnutrition

SOCIAL GROUP WORK IN THE FIELD OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

Preparing the school system for social group work
Comparative approaches to:
Social Group Work with Pupils:

Preventive Developmental Groups
 Promotive Groups
 Activity Groups
 Human Relations Training Groups
 Therapeutic Groups
 Group Guidance
 Group Counselling
 Group Therapy for children in groups

Social Group Work with Parents : Programming

Parent Effectiveness Group
STEP Training Groups
Family Enrichment Groups
Marriage Enrichment Groups
Divorce Groups
Fathers Groups
Groups of parents of children with similar problems.