



Training for Social Work

THIRD INTERNATIONAL SURVEY

UNITED NATIONS



CORRIGENDUM
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TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK:
THIRD INTERNATIONAL SURVEY

- Page 18, para. 2, line 4: for "later" read "latter"
- Page 18, para. 2, line 9: for "experience" read "experienced"
- Page 19, quotation 35, third line: for "older" read "other"
- Page 33: delete "(xiv)"
- Page 34: delete "(xv)"
- Page 40, para. 2, line 25: insert quotation marks before the word "Hence"
- Page 49, line 3: for "take" read "make"
- Page 53, last line: for "28" read "56"
- Page 54, (b), line 2: after "skill" insert comma
- Page 58, para. 3, line 2: for "provisions" read "provision"
- Page 58, para. 3, line 6: for "successively" read "successfully"
- Page 59, para. 3, line 2: from end of para: for "provisions" read "provision"
- Page 64, para. 4, line 3: for "for" read "of"
- Page 73, para. 5, line 5: for "relation" read "relations"
- Page 74, para. 2, line 12: for "Octavio" read "Octavia"
- Page 74, para. 3, line 11: for "have shown" read "show"
- Page 76, para. 4, line 1: for "movement" read "movements"
- Page 76, footnote 9 should read: Mass Education in African Society, (London H.M.S.O., 1944), Colonial 186, p. 9.

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- Page 77, footnote 11 should read: T.R. Batten, Communities and Their Development (Oxford University Press, 1957), p. 5.
- Page 85, para. 1, line 3: after "done..." close quotation marks
- Page 94, para. 2, line 4: for "workers" read "worker"
- Page 94, para. 2, line 5 from end of para: for "discomfort in" read "discomfort. In"
- Page 96, line 5: for "school" read "work"
- Page 99, line 4: for "providing" read "promoting"
- Page 126, para. 3, line 11: for "leads" read "lead"
- Page 127, footnote 9 should read "Summary Report on the Training of Auxiliary and Community Workers" op.cit., p. 6.
- Page 128, footnote 11: replace "op.cit.," by the symbol "E/CN.5/304"
- Page 135, quotation 25; line 9: for "mollify" read "modify"
- Page 137, para. 2, line 6: for "act" read "set"
- Page 137, para. 4, line 4: for "post" read "pose"
- Page 144, para. 4, line 10: for "necessary" read "possible"
- Page 155, line 15: for "characteristic" read "characteristics"
- Page 156, para. 4, line 5: for "coma" read "soma"
- Page 170, para. 4, line 4: insert semi-colon after the word "survival"
- Page 174, para. 3, line 8: add the word "work" after "social"
- Page 180, line 4: for "in" read "is"
- Page 182, para. 3, line 7: delete the word "of"
- Page 207, para. 2, line 3: for "administration" read "administrative"
- Page 208, para. 5, line 3: for "specific" read "specifics"

- Page 213, para. 2, line 2: after "as well" add "as"
- Page 213, para. 2, line 15: for "open-minded" read "open-ended"
- Page 214, para. 2, line 3 from end of para: for "with" read "within"
- Page 233, para. 1, line 15: for "appointment" read "appointed"
- Page 245, para. 2, line 4: lower case for the word "social"
- Page 249, para. 2, line 15: after "these" insert "and"
- Page 249, para. 3, line 12: for "far" read "for"
- Page 255, para. 2, line 10: after "helping" insert "them"
- Page 256, end of para. 1: for 279-280 read 277-278
- Page 256, para. 4, line 4 from end of para: between "students" and "by" insert the following: "and in order that the school may have first hand contact with the agency. It is also desirable to keep in touch with students"
- Page 259, para. 2, line 3 from end of para: for "all" read "will"
- Page 262, para. 1, last line: for "evolution" read "evaluation"
- Page 267, para. 3, line 6: after the word "partnership" insert "in"
- Page 267, para. 4, line 5: for "or" read "of"
- Page 275, (2), line 3: for "people's " read "client's"
- Page 276, (6), line 2: insert commas between "study" "diagnosis" "planning"
- Page 277, para. 1, line 8: after "learning" insert comma
- Page 279, para. 1, last line: after the word "social" insert "and"
- Page 297, para. 2, line 5: for "how" read "that"
- Page 302, sub-heading "Integration", para. 1, line 5: for "affectively" read "effectively"

- Page 310, para. 2, line 11 from end of para: after "material" insert "help"
- Page 318, para. 1, line 8: for "responsibility" read "responsibly"
- Page 323, para. 2, line 6: between "Many" and "their" insert the following: "candidates may have little real knowledge of social work and whether"
- Page 327 (e), lines 6 and 7: delete square brackets
- Page 332, para. 3, line 9: for "principals" read "principles"
- Page 335, para. 1, 1st line of quotation: after "provide" insert "an"
- Page 335, para. 4, line 5 from end of para. for "must" read "may"
- Page 336, para. 3, line 3: for "matter" read "member"



Training for Social Work

THIRD INTERNATIONAL SURVEY

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NOTE

Symbols of United Nations documents are composed of capital letters combined with figures. Mention of such a symbol indicates a reference to a United Nations document.

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INTRODUCTION

ORIGIN, SCOPE AND PURPOSE OF THE SURVEY

This is the third in a series on training for social work prepared in accordance with resolution 390 B (XIII) of the Economic and Social Council. This resolution requested the Secretary-General to submit to the Social Commission a quadrennial report on significant developments in training for social work.

The Social Commission in considering the Second Survey¹ at its tenth session, reaffirmed its position regarding the continuing emphasis that should be given to the establishment and extension of social work training programmes. The Commission's attention was also drawn to the importance of a more thorough study of the basic content of and methods used in the training of social workers.² After taking into account the report and recommendation of the Social Commission, the Economic and Social Council at its twentieth session adopted resolution 585 D (XX) regarding the training of welfare personnel which included a request to the Secretary-General:

“(d) To promote regional seminars and conferences for the development of the content and techniques of training of social workers at all levels;

“(e) To focus attention on selected problems of social work training in the preparation of the next survey on social work training.”

THE PURPOSE OF THE SURVEY

In accordance with the proposals of the Social Commission and the request of the Council, this Survey, unlike those which preceded it, is not intended to be a factual or descriptive survey of recent developments in training for social work in various parts of the world. Its concern is with the content of training as this is beginning to emerge internationally and with various problems connected with improvements in training. It is not intended to imply that the content of training outlined in this Survey will be found universally. But, on the basis of widespread discussions, it appears to represent broad agreement on aims. The primary focus in the present Survey is thus subject matter rather than a description of the existing situation. At the same time, actual issues in the employment and training of social workers are included in so far as they are relevant in order to clarify the nature of social work and the functions which social workers are being prepared to fulfil. As

¹ *Training for Social Work: Second International Survey*, United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1955.IV.9.

² E/CN.5/308, paras. 189-193.

the Social Commission and the Economic and Social Council have repeatedly emphasized, the available literature on social work methodology tends to be limited to certain parts of the world. A number of the standard works quoted in the present Survey have, however, been translated, and used elsewhere. There are already welcome signs that indigenous literature is beginning to be produced in various regions. This issue as well as other problems connected with training for social work are discussed more fully in the body of the report.

The purpose of the present Survey is thus to review problems of social work training and to set out in some detail for the use of government agencies, schools of social work, voluntary social agencies and others, the range of subject matter and the educational method which is coming to be considered desirable at the present stage in the development of training for social work. It is not intended to suggest that the total ground could be covered in all courses but that schools of social work and other training institutions might select and combine that material within this broad framework which seems most relevant to the particular needs of their countries. It is hoped that this Survey may be of practical use to Governments in promoting training for social work, to schools of social work and to public and voluntary social agencies in providing such training, and to professional organizations of social workers and others in furthering the objectives of training for social work.

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

It was decided not to issue a questionnaire in connexion with the present study but to use as a basis for it the information supplied by Governments about various aspects of social work training as recommended by resolution 585 D (XX); and in response to the biennial questionnaire on new developments in their social services. In addition, extensive use was made of consultation with experts, including the regional training seminars proposed in resolution 585 D (XX). Further information was available through communications from schools of social work, the reports of United Nations' regional social affairs officers, technical assistance advisers, materials provided by the specialized agencies, and other published and unpublished material.

The preparation of the Survey has been undertaken by a special consultant, Miss Eileen Younghusband, who was formerly on the staff of the Social Science Department at the London School of Economics and is internationally recognized as one of the foremost leaders in social work education.

As a means of preparing for the regional seminars, consultations were undertaken with recognized experts in social work education from different regions of the world, at a meeting held in Munich from 29 July—1 August 1956. The findings of this meeting, together with technical papers prepared by the Bureau of Social Affairs, the specialized agencies and various individual participants, provided the background material for the regional seminars. The first of these was held in Montevideo, Uruguay, in July 1957; the second in Lahore, Pakistan, in December 1957, and the third in Athens, Greece, in April 1958. These

seminars were attended by leading social work educators, and social welfare administrators in the regions and by representatives of the specialized agencies and relevant inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations. Plans for a fourth seminar for the Arab States in 1958 could not be implemented in time to include the findings in this Survey.

The major subjects of discussion at the seminars were: the essential function of social workers; the knowledge and skill they required in order to fulfill their functions, the curriculum content and construction which this necessitated, the place and training of auxiliary workers; and the relations between social work and community development. Other problems of concern in particular regions were also discussed. The findings of these various regional consultations have provided the framework for the present Survey and are summarized in the first chapter.

ARRANGEMENT AND CONTENT OF THE SURVEY

A study of the content of training for social work must necessarily refer to the function and employment of social workers as a prelude to considering available knowledge in the social and behavioural sciences and social work methodology to be incorporated in training, and the educational methods to be used in order to achieve the objectives of training. These aspects of the total subject under consideration are reflected in the structure of the present Survey. Inevitably a wide range of subject matter must be included, so far as curriculum content is concerned, in order that schools in different countries may select that which is most relevant to their particular circumstances. Even so, there is likely to be a number of omissions in the Survey. And, in general, much work still remains to be done in order to relate universal principles to local cultural and other conditions.

Part I begins with the general situation at the present day as represented by discussions at the Munich meeting of experts, the regional seminars and elsewhere. It then deals with the nature of social work as this is beginning to emerge; with the differing though expanding range of responsibilities which social workers are called upon to assume in many countries; and with the relation between community development and social work.

Part II presents a brief historical account of the content of the earliest forms of training for social work. It is assumed that later developments and the present day situation have been adequately covered by the two preceding International Surveys of Training for Social Work. This part of the Survey concludes with a chapter on auxiliary workers and in-service training.

Part III is concerned with the actual content of training for social work, considered in detail. For descriptive purposes this material is divided into background and methods subjects and field work, though the interrelations between these three aspects of the total curriculum is stressed.

Part IV consists of a discussion of the educational objectives, methods and structure involved in effective curriculum planning and the educa-

tional experience necessary to achieve the desired results in training for social work at various levels.

The Survey concludes with various findings and suggestions for further action to improve and strengthen training for social work.

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PART I

**THE CHANGING FUNCTIONS OF
SOCIAL WORKERS**

CHAPTER I

CURRENT TRENDS IN TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK

INTRODUCTORY

There now exists a considerable body of literature about the development of social work education in various parts of the world; the content of the training in relation to the functions of social workers in different countries; and various problems, whether challenging or frustrating, which face schools of social work. This literature includes the two previous United Nations International Surveys of Training for Social Work¹, based largely on questionnaire returns and containing substantial information about the range of training for social work, its content, and its aims in every region of the world. Many articles on this subject have been published in national and international professional journals. In several countries studies have been undertaken of the employment and training of social workers in the countries concerned². There have also been various government enquiries into the training and employment of social workers in specific social services. The most substantial survey of education for social work as such is the Hollis Taylor Report³, a study undertaken for the then National Council on Social Work Education (U.S.A.)

There is a discernible shift of focus at present from factual surveys towards studies which analyse curriculum content and suggest necessary revisions in the light of social work objectives and the current status of knowledge in the subjects considered to be relevant. Such curriculum studies have of course been undertaken for years past by active schools of social work, indeed they are the base on which much of the development of social work education has rested. Now, however, studies of this kind have begun to be made nationally, regionally and internationally. The outstanding example so far of a curriculum study on a national scale is that undertaken from 1955 to 1958 under the auspices of the Council on Social Work Education in respect of the North American Schools of Social Work. The purpose of this study is to identify the knowledge,

¹ *Training for Social Work: An International Survey*, United Nations publication Sales No.: 1950.IV.11. *Training for Social Work: Second International Survey*, United Nations publication Sales No.: 1955.IV.9.

² See Eileen L. Younghusband, *The Employment and Training of Social Workers*. Dunfermline, Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, 1947, and *Social Work in Britain*. Dunfermline, Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, 1951. *Report of the Departmental Committee of Enquiry into the Training and Employment of Social Workers*. Pretoria, Department of Social Welfare of the Union of South Africa, 1950. An intensive study of social work in Canada has been in progress since 1952 by means of local, regional and national workshops.

³ Ernest V. Hollis and Alice L. Taylor, *Social Work Education in the United States*. New York, Columbia University Press, 1951.

skill and attitudes which all social workers should possess and the educational means to their attainment. The study includes a series of projects in human growth and behaviour, the social services, the social work methods (casework, group work and community organization) and also research and administration. The material covers both theory and practice. The total plan for the study includes research into the functions of social workers in rehabilitation, corrections and the public social services. The report of this curriculum study will embody the first major analysis in depth of the essential content of education for social work: some of its findings are likely to deal with aspects of the subject which apply in many situations.⁴

The Catholic International Union for Social Service organized an international seminar on casework in 1953. It has also since 1950 been studying the teaching of psychology and sociology to social work students. The International Association of Schools of Social Work has in recent years promoted regional seminars for discussion of curriculum content. Two such seminars have been held so far, the first at Oxford in 1955 on teaching methods, supervision, and social research, and the second at Männergdorf (Switzerland) in 1957 on teaching casework and group work.

In the United Nations second International Survey of Training for Social Work it was suggested that:

“The findings, however, emphasize the need for more extensive efforts to define and agree upon a basic body of knowledge and skills which should be incorporated in all social work training programmes regardless of the educational level. It is also recognized that methods and standards for fieldwork training and supervision designed to help the student to assimilate the knowledge acquired in the classroom and apply it practically deserve further attention. Once the essential components are agreed upon, the content and methods of training can be more readily adapted to prevailing requirements. This appears to be a fundamental necessity for the development of sound training programmes for auxiliary and community workers in the welfare field and for in-service training which is the only form of training available in many economically less developed countries.”⁵

The present study is the first of its kind at an international level. In it an attempt is made to review current thought about the content of training for social work, as this is emerging on the one hand through extended openings for social workers and on the other hand through rapid advances in the relevant knowledge upon which practice is based. The present chapter will consist in the main of a review of the findings of the Munich meeting and the regional seminars at Montevideo, Lahore and Athens, convened by the United Nations between 1956 and 1958 to discuss the content of training for social work as this is emerging internationally. The general plan followed at these meetings has already been outlined in the Introduction.

⁴ The comprehensive report on the study and its projects will be published in the spring of 1959.

⁵ *Training for Social Work: Second International Survey*, op.cit, p. 17.

SOME FINDINGS OF THE MEETINGS CONVENED BY THE UNITED NATIONS
ON TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK

The major components of training for social work

At the Munich meeting of experienced social work educators from various regions of the world, it was agreed that:

“Social workers can only be effectively trained through courses which are based on an integration of theory and practice. The three-fold aim of such courses should be to impart the necessary knowledge, to develop skill in the practice of social work, and to help students to incorporate the philosophy, attitudes and self-understanding essential to their function as professional workers.”⁶

It was further agreed that the total content could be divided into background and methods subjects (including skills). The background subjects were essentially the study of man and the study of society. The methods subjects were the theory and practice of social work.

The study of man should include: (a) Physical growth and functioning, including biological factors; (b) Intellectual and emotional growth and functioning; (c) The social and spiritual nature of man.

The study of society should include: (a) The nature of government, including social theory or social philosophy; (b) Economic life; (c) Other basic social institutions; (d) Groups and group relations; (e) Cultural components of a society; (f) Social change; (g) Social health or ill-health.

The theory and practice of social work should include some of the preceding knowledge, applied as professional knowledge and skills. The basic subjects are: (a) The nature, scope and philosophy of social work; (b) The methodology of social work.

These should be taught both in the class-room and in field work practice. Thus:

“The fundamental studies for intending social workers at any level are:

1. Man: his nature, motivation and behaviour.
2. Society in its philosophical, cultural, psychological, economic, governmental, legal and administrative aspects.
3. The theory and practice of social work: that is to say the ways in which knowledge about the nature of man and society is used in social work with individuals and groups, and the particular skills which characterize social work practice.”⁷

This total subject matter could be divided into:

(a) Relevant background material from the social and behavioural sciences and the structure and functioning of the social welfare services.

(b) Methodology—the ways in which this material is applied in the principles and practice of social work through casework, group work and community organization.

⁶ “Report of the United Nations Meeting of Experts on Social Work Training, Munich, 28 July-1 August 1956”, p. 7 (Working paper No. 3).

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 32.

(c) Practice in social agencies whereby the students learn to apply knowledge in the development of social work skills and the use of appropriate community resources.

This is the essential "core" content and the threefold division of subject matter, together with the two interrelated aspects of theory and practice. This would hold good for courses at any level and of any length which are intended to prepare students for the practice of social work.

Emerging agreement on the essential content of training for social work

The analysis of the total content of training for social work, as outlined above, was accepted by all the regional seminars as being valid in relation to the requirements of training for social work at all levels in the region concerned, though "the substantive content of the areas of knowledge will have to be made specially relevant to the socio-economic and cultural conditions of those countries."⁸ Inevitably, in the time available, difficult questions of detailed content, of how much should be taught and how and from what angles it should be taught, were looked at in passing rather than being analyzed in depth. Nonetheless an important step forward has been taken in reaching a common mind about the essential content of training for social work. It may indeed be said that for the first time broad agreement exists about a coherent framework around which schools can build the superstructure most appropriate to their needs and resources. The common views about the essential content also seem to indicate that social work is emerging as a profession with a recognized body of knowledge, methodology and skills.

Background subjects

Although the regional seminars naturally stressed, as was intended, the particular needs of their regions, it is significant that a number of these needs proved to be general rather than particular. The major ones were problems of urbanization; the gap between town and country; the necessity to pay particular attention to the needs of rural people; and problems of mass poverty. This meant that great emphasis was laid upon the study of society. It was taken for granted that students required to know about the organization of government, the courts, relevant social and industrial legislation, and the structure and functioning of public and voluntary social agencies. It was generally thought that students were taught too little about the economic aspects of social life, including natural resources and their use, and other economic issues of particular importance to the country concerned as well as the economic consequences of population trends.

The major emphasis in the seminars was, however, on the extreme importance of developing the teaching of relevant aspects of sociology and anthropology. There was general recognition that it was essential for social workers to be knowledgeable about structure and functioning; and about the effect of cultural and sub-cultural patterns and values on behaviour, motivation and attitudes. Considerable work remained to

⁸ Report on *United Nations Asia and the Far East Seminar on Training for Community Development and Social Work. Lahore, West Pakistan, 9-20 December 1957*, (TAA/AFE/4), p. 39.

be done in the actual teaching of this subject matter in schools of social work and in translating knowledge from these social sciences into social work practice. This knowledge was essential alike for the practitioner, the social administrator and the social planners and policy makers. At the same time, social workers with their direct knowledge of individuals, groups and communities could contribute usefully to social research and community studies. The Athens Seminar in particular stressed the necessity for students to learn in both theory and practice, about group structure and relationships. It was suggested, for example, that they "should also learn to examine factors which make for stability or instability in a group, as related to the processes of group formation, functioning and disintegration."⁹

The growth of industry and the expanding employment of social workers in connexion with industry in a number of countries made it particularly necessary that students should have a sound working knowledge of conditions in industry, workers' organizations, industrial legislation and industrial relations. "In addition to making a more thorough study of economics social workers should study labour conditions and levels of living and the problems associated with them."¹⁰ This also applied *mutatis mutandis* to agriculture. In those countries where social work is newly developing in rural areas, and where there are profound differences between a static peasant society and a fluid urban society, it is necessary for students who intend to work in rural areas to study rural sociology and rural economy, and to have at least a good elementary knowledge of agricultural processes in their country.

It was desirable that students should be alive to the importance of social research, able to co-operate intelligently in research projects, and with sufficient knowledge of social research methods to plan and carry through simple pieces of research and enquiry. This was particularly necessary in those countries where students might be called upon soon after graduation to help in social policy formulation and planning. Because they might quickly occupy senior positions it was also important for them to learn about the administration of social agencies so that they might understand agency structure in relation to function, as well as good administrative practices in relation to the group processes at work in agency operations and inter-agency relationships.

It was generally agreed that the most important subject of all was man himself. This meant that his growth, development and functioning should be taught at the appropriate level in its biological, physical, psychological, spiritual and social aspects, so that students might be aware of all these different components of living human beings. This pointed on the whole to the teaching being given developmentally so that students might understand.

"...physical growth and functioning, the process of reproduction, psycho-physical evolution at various age levels, problems related to

⁹ "General Report on the Proceedings of the United Nations Southern European Meeting of Experts on Training for Social Work, Athens, Greece, 6-16 April 1958" (MTAA/45/58/Rev. 1), p. 9.

¹⁰ "General Report on the Proceedings of the United Nations Seminar on Training for Social Work in Latin America, Montevideo, 20 July-2 August 1957," p. 4. (Working paper No. 4).

diseases and physical incapacity, and normal and abnormal psychology."¹¹ The "object was to give the students knowledge which would permit them to evaluate and interpret human beings at each stage of the normal life cycle—childhood, adolescence, adulthood and old age—and in states of psycho-physical and personality disturbances."¹²

Analysis of the common points of entry of social workers into social situations showed the supreme importance of the family, the need to understand the dynamics of family life and the basic human needs which it satisfied, within the very different patterns of family life in different cultures. The study of needs and motivation must be related to a general understanding of personality development and the part played by the personality defences. Social workers are largely (though not wholly) concerned with social dysfunctioning at points of personal crisis or social breakdown. Therefore they must have a good understanding of deviations from the range of the normal, as manifested in physical or mental illness or defect or in deviant social behaviour. They are also involved in situations of stress and must therefore understand reactions of anxiety, hostility and frustration, and the ways in which these may be lowered so that the person has energy freed to master his problems.

"Emphasis was placed on the importance of focusing teaching on dynamic psychology, an invaluable aid to the social worker in understanding the motivations of human conduct and the factors which determined family and group relations."¹³

Students needed to know enough about physical functioning, disease processes and disablement to enable them to co-operate intelligently in family budgeting and the like, as well as with medical teams so far as the personal, family and social aspects of ill-health were concerned.

The spiritual nature of man had different meanings in different settings, but there might be agreement that it included "an awareness of man's capacity to be fired by ideals, to ponder the meaning and purpose of human life, to strive for goals beyond narrow or personal self-interest, and to seek for a better social order."¹⁴ This aspect of human aspiration should, it was suggested, be related to the necessary study of social philosophy and professional ethics. Social philosophy would include the relations between the individual, the state and society, the nature of social obligation, and such issues as liberty, equality and justice. The teaching of professional ethics should be "based on the fundamental principles of social work: respect for the dignity of the human person, for his inalienable right to determine his own destiny and for freedom of religious and political beliefs."¹⁵

Methods subjects

At all the seminars it was agreed that "a student of a school of social work should have generic knowledge of the three methods of social work

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 3.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

¹⁴ Athens Seminar report, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

¹⁵ Montevideo Seminar report, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

and should have added facility in the use of one of these methods specially suited to the setting in which he expects to work."¹⁶ This meant teaching basic concepts of social work, with the use of case material, and bringing out both the similarities and differences in the three methods. In the teaching of these subjects much of the relevant knowledge from the background subjects should be taught in its specific application to social work. The methods course should also be intimately allied to the field work in order to reinforce "the necessarily close relation between theory and practice with the overall aim of helping the students to develop a scientific attitude of orderly enquiry and objectivity, as well as ability to use the systematic working methods of social work."¹⁷

Students would to a large extent be working in situations of mass poverty with only limited opportunity to use casework skills. It was important, nonetheless, for them to know how to work with individuals, as well as with groups and communities. The difficult question of how much they needed to know about irrational behaviour and unconscious motivation was discussed at one seminar. The conclusion appeared to be that such knowledge would become increasingly necessary as individualized services developed, for example probation and services for unmarried mothers. In view of the importance of group work and community organization (or development) in the regions concerned, it was regretted that these were at a comparatively early stage, so far as methodology, systematic practice, and case records for teaching were concerned.

The teaching of the methods subjects should include the ethics of social work, the nature of social work as a profession, and helping the students "to realize their obligation to study social phenomena objectively, to contribute to social reform and to engage in social action".¹⁸ It should also of course be focused upon actual social welfare provision in the country concerned.

Field work

At all the seminars the participants emphasized that lack of field work facilities was the major obstacle they faced both in improving training and admitting a larger number of students. This represented a severe handicap to the growth of the profession, since "social work training cannot be effective without opportunity for field work application of classroom theory".¹⁹ Much difficulty was experienced everywhere in finding enough agencies where the social work of the agency was of a standard which made it possible to send students to it, and where the social workers, often untrained, had sufficient understanding of the purpose of field work and the theory underlying practice. In these circumstances unless great tact was exercised difficult situations could easily arise between the agency, the students and the school. This meant that "students should be oriented to the concept that they do not know everything, and that the school cannot teach them everything."²⁰

¹⁶ Lahore Seminar report, op. cit., p. 55.

¹⁷ Athens Seminar report, op. cit., p. 10.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

¹⁹ Lahore Seminar report, op. cit., p. 42.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 43-44.

At both the Montevideo and Athens Seminars the participants were concerned not only with the difficulties of finding adequate field work placements but also with the inherent problem of training immature students, often straight from school and a sheltered home, for the responsibilities of social work. "This is the problem: how to produce giant-size social workers with pygmy-size training resources."²¹

The Athens Seminar report distinguished three different stages of field work: observation, participation and practice. Observation should be directly related to the teaching of the background subjects.

"Its purpose should be to help students to observe systematically and accurately and to record their observations for discussion at the school. Examples given were study of the life of a local community, and of an individual family over a period of time."²²

It was also suggested that this observation stage might be linked with elementary training in research method, for example undertaking field interviews in a current piece of social research. The next stage, participation, should take the most varied forms according to the needs of the students concerned. For example those without working experience might temporarily become factory operatives, others might work in a wide range of social agencies to get a better understanding of human needs and social provision. In order that students might derive the maximum benefit from these experiences it was essential to provide them "with a framework for their observation and study, to require them to prepare reports, and to discuss the whole experience with them before, during and after their part in it".²³

Field practice, on the other hand, was the stage at which real development of skill should begin to take place. There was general agreement at all the seminars that when it came to real field practice the focus should be upon the educational value of the experience to students, rather than their usefulness to social agencies. The placements should be of substantial duration, and supervision must be provided either by the agency or the school, or by both in co-operation with each other.

The Athens Seminar discussed student evaluation in detail. The participants concluded that it was very important to develop norms of student performance at different stages of field work and to evaluate individual students in relation to these norms. It is essential in social work that students should become increasingly capable of self-understanding, and able to look objectively at their own cultural assumptions and values. Field work evaluation as a continuous process is one of the ways in which students achieve this.

The evaluation should thus be a joint endeavour, rather than one person sitting in judgement upon another. Development of this kind of self-responsibility was particularly difficult

"when students come from family backgrounds where traditionally there was complete indulgence of children, or where any criticism

²¹ Jean M. Robertson, "Problems related to Practical Training in Social Work" *The International Social Service Review* No. 4, (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1958.IV.3), p. 15.

²² Athens Seminar report, op. cit., p. 12.

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

spelt condemnation. The same difficulty arose where there was an authoritarian educational system in which students were told what was right or wrong, and where they were not called upon to discuss or to think about themselves in relation to their learning".²⁴

Nearly all the schools in the regions concerned were experiencing considerable difficulty in regard to field work in rural conditions. There was an urgent need for social workers in rural areas, though the degree to which schools were successful in recruiting students familiar with village life varied a good deal. It was almost inevitable that block placements should be used for such work. This posed real problems of isolation for the students; it was also difficult for the school staff to visit them regularly or even to keep in close touch through exchange of written reports and comments. Some schools were able to have students back periodically for further study and discussion. There was general awareness that improvement was called for in these block placements, but this was usually prevented by lack of funds and staff.

Curriculum planning

There was a good deal of difference in the actual arrangement of subject matter in the different schools. Some started with the teaching of social science subjects and with observation and participation, and then went on later to methods subjects and field work. Other schools started straight away with methods subjects and field work, relating social science subjects to these as the course went along. All the schools were preoccupied with intractable problems of how much should be taught of the various subjects and how they should be related to each other.

"To-day the body of knowledge and the complexity of techniques grows so fast that the question how much should be taught, by whom and in what form to those who need to acquire some understanding of a science to help them with a special task, but not a mastery of the science in the full sense, needs constant and careful attention".²⁵

The schools were exercised not only by the question of what aspects of the social sciences should be taught, what the range and depth should be, but also by problems of how to maintain a proper balance between background and methods subjects and field work. The Montevideo Seminar decided that some courses "included too many academic subjects which not only imposed an unnecessary work load on the student but also encroached upon the time he should be devoting to courses in social work".²⁶ The content of the academic courses was not specified, though it seems clear that the social work courses included background material. A study was made of actual curricula of fourteen schools in the region. As a result it was found that the percentage of class time devoted to methods courses varied from 20 to 74 per cent. The seminar recommended that not less than 50 per cent of theory teaching should be

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 15.

²⁵ T. H. Marshall, "The Role of the Social Sciences in the Training of Social Workers", Working Paper for United Nations regional seminars on training for social work (UNESCO, 1957), p. 2.

²⁶ Montevideo Seminar report, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

in "social work proper". It also recommended that half the total time available should be given to field work. This would in fact leave only 12-½ per cent of the total course time for the background subjects. The length of the courses is not specified in the report.

A number of schools found it almost impossible to find lecturers in sociology and psychology who themselves had the field or clinical experience necessary to apply these studies realistically in their teaching. These lecturers also tended to be ignorant of the needs of social work students and resistant to discussing appropriate selection of content. Social work teachers were often hampered by not being sufficiently *au fait* with a social science to be able to talk knowledgeably to lecturers in these subjects. In some countries there was also a lack of properly qualified social work teachers.

Social work was only just beginning to be recognized as a profession. In Latin America, social workers were still thought of as a part of public administration or as "a mere appendage of other professions".²⁷ In the Far East, the status of social work as a profession was not yet recognized. In these circumstances, and to improve the status of social workers, it was all the more important that every effort should be made to incorporate relevant material from the social sciences, to teach methodology at a high standard, and to improve the quality of field practice.

Means of improving the standard of field work

This was, as has been said, a matter with which all the schools in each region were preoccupied. Vigorous and varied action was being taken to bring about improvements. These included:

(a) Schools starting their own social agencies in order to provide field work for the students. Unless, however, these were separately staffed, as with one school, there were considerable problems during vacation periods, when clients might be left high and dry. Moreover, the clients might feel that they had been made the subjects of an experiment rather than that the agency was being conducted for their welfare.

(b) Schools putting student units into existing social agencies under school supervisors.

(c) Agency social workers, who were familiar with social conditions and administrative procedures, supervising students on their day to day work, while both the social workers and the students had regular (separate) individual and group discussions with school supervisors.

(d) Agency supervisors with limited experience supervising students but themselves being supervised by the school, both on their case-work (or group work or community organization) and on their supervision of students.

(e) Schools running seminars in social work method for agency social workers. The best of these could then be selected for student supervision.

It was generally agreed that it was extremely important to foster good working relationships with social agencies taking students. This

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

might be done by discussion with the senior officials in social agencies with a view to working out a partnership between schools and agencies in student training. The agencies were being asked to give a considerable amount by making available supervisory staff, accommodation and clerical help. They were only likely to do this if they saw the rewards in terms of better qualified future social work personnel to staff their services. There should in any event be regular joint discussions about field work requirements and content.

Teaching materials

This included textbooks, reports of research projects, case records, films and film strip. The lack of all such teaching material was universal. Some countries, in particular, faced extreme difficulties because practically no textbooks or other written material in the background or methods subjects existed in the students' native language. Moreover:

"it is recognized that western social work training texts are helpful as background and historical teaching. . . . But they do not suffice for teaching courses on social problems of Asian countries, and for the appropriate use of methods of dealing with such problems".²⁸

This was true for each region.

The Athens Seminar devoted more attention than the others to case records. Ideally, these should not be confined to the three social work methods: casework, group work and community organization, but should also be used in the teaching of social process, human behaviour, and administration. In the early stages of the teaching of casework in Europe, American records were used almost exclusively. This was not satisfactory on account of cultural and agency differences. Schools have now begun to collect case records and are beginning to be able to use these early in methods courses.

"The general experience was that it was desirable to use indigenous cases in the early stages but later when students knew a good deal more and were less prone to attack the record, American records could be used with profit."²⁹

The development of case records in Europe has been fostered by a series of United Nations casework seminars from 1950 onwards.³⁰ This has stimulated the collection and editing of such records, both nationally and internationally. Reference has already been made to the International Association of Schools of Social Work European Regional Seminar on the use of casework and group work records for teaching purposes, which was held at Männerdorf, Switzerland in 1957. As a follow-up of this seminar the United Nations convened a small meeting in Geneva early in 1958, composed of members nominated by the International Association of Schools of Social Work and the Catholic International Union for Social Service. The aim was to prepare a few European casework records for teaching within the European region. As a result, national committees have been started in various countries to select casework

²⁸ Lahore Seminar report, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

²⁹ Athens Seminar report, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

³⁰ For a detailed account see L. de Bray and J. Tuerlinckx, *Social Casework*. Brussels, Editions C.O.M.E.T.S., 1956.

records to be submitted annually to the group of experts for selection, editing and circulation. At the Athens Seminar it was suggested that the activities of these national and international groups might be extended to include disseminating information about, and if possible translation and distribution of, especially important textbooks and articles in professional journals. The question of producing textbooks suitable for use internationally was also discussed. Standard American and other social work literature has been translated into various languages either in the country concerned or else under the auspices of, for example, the Pan American Union. Some countries have also begun to issue bibliographies containing books and articles published in the country or elsewhere.³¹

Advanced studies

There was a universal shortage of qualified social workers in relation to demand. This applied not only to field workers but also to social workers qualified to take appointments in administration, research and teaching. These later subjects might be begun at the initial training stage but opportunities were also required for advanced study after some years of experience. Practically the only opportunity for such advanced work was through study abroad, though a school of social work in one European country was about to start an institute for advanced social studies, giving a two-year course for experienced social workers. Much appreciation was expressed at the opportunities afforded for study abroad through fellowships, and for the help given by international experts. Nonetheless it was thought now to be a matter of urgency to start advanced institutes of social work in various regions:

“to give adequate professional training to persons who would then be able to found schools, assume teaching duties, organize and direct supervised field work, serve in important administrative capacities both in cities and rural areas, and undertake serious research which should form a solid base for the organization of their profession.”³²

The Athens Seminar “recognized that there might well be a need in each country for such a course, where issues of social policy, planning and administration could be discussed, as well as provision being made for adding to knowledge and skill in the practice of social work”.³³

Student Selection

At all the seminars there was discussion about the need for improved recruitment. Many students were too young and came from too sheltered backgrounds to be able to meet the demands of social work. This meant that in some schools there was a heavy withdrawal rate at the end of the first year. “Both very young students and those in middle age presented special problems. The former lacked the necessary maturity to handle the complex tasks of the social worker, while the latter were not sufficiently adaptable to be receptive to new concepts and to rid themselves of

³¹ See, for example, Instituto Internacional Americano de Protección a la Infancia, *Bibliografía Servicio Social*. Montevideo, Impresora L.I.G.U., Cerrito 740, 1957.

³² Montevideo Seminar report, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

³³ Athens Seminar report, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

deep-seated prejudices."³⁴ In most of the countries of the regions concerned, rural areas were in a backward state of development compared with the cities. Much attention was being paid to rural social problems and it was important to attract candidates from rural areas who would be familiar with the background and suitable for village work.

In Latin America and Europe it was highly desirable to increase the number of well-qualified male social workers. The small number of these was attributed to the fact that traditionally social work has been a women's profession, that the status of the profession is poor, that salaries are low, that the work is hard and exacting, and promotion prospects limited. This dearth of well-equipped male social workers is particularly unfortunate in view of the fact that senior administrative posts tend to be filled by men in the countries concerned.

In addition to better recruitment, the Montevideo Seminar discussed the need to improve selection methods. The main purpose of these should be:

"to establish whether the applicant had a well-balanced personality, and to gauge his knowledge of the purposes and methods of social work and his ability to learn and to work with older persons. Emphasis was placed on the importance of the properly planned interview, whether individual or collective, and whether conducted by one or several persons".³⁵

Various means suggested to improve training for social work

The Lahore Seminar suggested that since social work is a new and as yet unrecognized profession, a heavy responsibility rests upon both schools of social work and social workers themselves to make known the functions and aims of social work. This referred particularly to

"removing some of the stereotypes regarding social work, such as those which label social work as a city bound, problem-oriented and individual-centered activity making people dependent upon external assistance".³⁶

The Montevideo Seminar also recommended that professional associations of social workers should concern themselves with the standards and prestige of the profession.

In order that social workers might perform their function better and training be continuously improved, there was a great need for regular meetings on a national scale between schools of social work, social agencies and public authorities in order to discuss the content of training in relation to the demands of practice, and, in particular, means of improving the standard of field work and supervision. It was also desirable for the schools to consult together regularly about matters of common interest, especially curriculum content and construction. "It was very important to review the total curriculum regularly from the point of view of content, balance and integration".³⁷

³⁴ Montevideo Seminar report, op. cit., p. 8.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

³⁶ Lahore Seminar report, op. cit., p. 48.

³⁷ Athens Seminar report, op. cit., p. 17.

All the seminars in one way or another emphasized that this was a matter of major importance.

"Attention was drawn to the necessity of making a complete survey of the schools of social work to determine how efficiently they were fulfilling their function of training the professional workers needed by the country, since it was recognized that social work must be constantly adapted to the environment in order to ascertain the current needs and arrive at possible solutions."³⁸

This pointed to a partnership between the schools and social agencies.

"Schools are strengthened in their efforts to improve standards of teaching and field work if there is a national co-ordinating agency which can further these and other related purposes. Also if cordial and close working relations exist between the schools and government departments interested in securing good training for social work".³⁹

The Lahore Seminar made detailed recommendations for the evaluation of training programmes. This evaluation, which should be undertaken jointly by the training staff and outside experts, must include a clear and precise definition of the aims of the training programme, integrally related to the functions to be fulfilled on completion of training; determination of criteria for evaluating the extent to which the aims had been attained; the collection of relevant data; and the analysis of the data. The evaluation should continue right through training courses and should be related to the students' subsequent performance in employment.

The employment of social workers in the countries concerned

Some types of social work employment differed quite substantially in the countries concerned. For example, in certain countries there was considerable employment of social workers in industry; in others this was almost non-existent. Social workers were commonly employed in social security programmes where these existed. They were generally employed in public and voluntary family and child welfare agencies, in medical social work, in neighbourhood and community work, and in expanding probation services. There were increasing openings for them in institutions for young delinquents and children, in mental hospitals and in prisons. The demand for them in rural work was growing fast as it became clear that social work skills were needed in community development. At a plenary session of the community development and social work sections of the Lahore Seminar,

"Further discussion to clarify differences and relationships between social work and community development work in rural areas resulted in the conclusion that at present the social worker was usually found in urban areas and the community development worker in villages. There was also a difference in the level and concentration of function. It was felt that most of the skills and attributes indicated above were commonly needed by both social and community development workers. While rural areas could benefit from the services of the social worker, the poverty and high birth rate in many Asian countries raised the question as to the level at which governments could afford to use

³⁸ Montevideo Seminar report, op. cit., p. 16.

³⁹ Athens Seminar report, op. cit., p. 18.

these more specialized types of workers. There was a realization that while at the present stage of development the social worker could not normally be utilized at the village level, he might be employed at a higher professional level in the total community development organization. In any case the experience of training for social work, especially in human relations was of value at all levels of community development work. There was, however, a necessity to reduce this knowledge to its simplest elements in its application to training community development workers. In particular the services of a social work educator might be used by institutes training both village workers and their supervisors. Social work was not primarily remedial in nature—it has a positive and preventive role which has special relevance for developmental programmes.”⁴⁰

This is an important conclusion which seems to have been borne out by the other seminars, since social workers were being trained for rural community development work in schools of social work in various of the countries concerned.

The question of specialization was touched upon at all three seminars in relation to the demands of employment. There appears to have been agreement that students should study the same background subjects and be trained in basic social work method, but that they should study certain subjects or aspects of social work at greater depth according to the field they intended to enter. Rural social work, community development, social work in industry, and child welfare are particularly mentioned in this respect.

Auxiliary workers

There was much discussion about auxiliary workers and a good deal of fear was expressed that when professional social work had as yet established so tenuous a hold it might prove fatal to give encouragement to the employment of auxiliaries at a lower level of training and remuneration. Moreover, social agencies with no experience of the higher standard of skill of professional workers might remain content with auxiliary workers. The term itself was an unfortunate one, unless, as suggested by the Lahore Seminar and reaffirmed at the Athens Seminar, it was used to describe a function rather than a person. Various interpretations of the term as discussed at the seminars are analysed further on pp. 121-123.

Voluntary workers as such were not discussed, perhaps because:

“The term ‘voluntary’ worker introduces a distinction along a different criterion. The voluntary worker may have had full or partial training or no training. His major characteristic is that he works without remuneration. The term bears no relation to the degree of competence of the person.”⁴¹

The general view was that auxiliaries could relieve professional social workers of various routine duties, of some administrative responsibilities and of a good deal of straightforward interviewing and enquiry

⁴⁰ Lahore Seminar report, *op. cit.*, p. 52.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, *op. cit.*, p. 38.

work. This would of course mean that the auxiliary functions were performed under the direction of trained social workers. There was agreement at all three seminars that to use auxiliaries in this way was not a concession to an emergency situation but rather a recognition of "a permanent need based upon a clear distinction of function between the professional and the auxiliary".⁴² At present a number of difficulties were arising from lack of recognition of auxiliary workers and from differences of opinion between them and professional social workers.

"The situation could only be clarified by analysing the job to be done and the degree of skill required to do it, and then employing workers with appropriate skills for the job—as had already been done in nursing."⁴³

The Athens Seminar suggested that the title of social worker should only be permitted to those with a recognized qualification.

As things stood in all the countries concerned, unqualified or in-service trained workers were in fact being employed without supervision to perform many tasks which required professional qualifications. The Lahore Seminar suggested that one means of meeting this situation would be to produce partially qualified professionals.

"Such persons differ from professionals, not so much in the jobs they hold, but in the nature of their preparation: they differ from 'auxiliary' workers in the job they do."⁴⁴

The partially qualified professional should have a series of short periods of training with a view to the ultimate attainment of professional status.

Both professional social workers and "schools of social work should participate actively in the training of auxiliaries, co-operating with the institutions which required such aid, sponsoring programmes of other qualified organizations, and thus assuming responsibility for making the training of auxiliaries conform to the same general principles as the training given to professional social workers".⁴⁵ The content of the courses for auxiliaries should include "rudiments of social work from the standpoint of its philosophy and methods of procedure, elementary concepts of sociology applicable to the community, the family and social relations; thorough knowledge of the subject or programme in which the work is to be done; role of social work within the programme; the auxiliary's special duties aimed at fulfilment of the programme's objectives".⁴⁶ There should of course also be supervised field work "used as a tool of education—not just practice".⁴⁷ Auxiliaries should be trained to be able to recognize cases involving serious problems in human relationships and to ask for more skilled help when necessary.

It was important that auxiliary workers should continue to benefit from in-service training, indeed there is no hard and fast line between the training of auxiliaries and in-service training.

⁴² *Ibid.*, op. cit., p. 46.

⁴³ Athens Seminar report, op. cit., p. 26.

⁴⁴ Lahore Seminar report, op. cit., p. 38.

⁴⁵ Montevideo Seminar report, op. cit., pp. 20-21.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 20.

⁴⁷ Lahore Seminar report, op. cit., p. 41.

In-service Training

The Lahore and Athens Seminars drew attention to the fact that because of the tremendous shortage of qualified social workers in most countries in the regions concerned, in-service training tended to be equated with short emergency courses provided by particular agencies, or else by educational institutions, or to meet the needs of several agencies. These courses might be for new entrants or for experienced untrained workers. Most in-service training should be primarily the responsibility of employing agencies rather than schools of social work, except so far as advanced courses for senior staff were concerned. Nonetheless the schools might give useful help about the content and organization of in-service training courses. They also made a contribution by their continuing contacts with their own graduates.

In-service training was expanding as more resources became available. It was recognized that

“It includes orientation of newly appointed staff, as well as refresher and other courses for experienced staff. It should be made available to trained as well as untrained workers, and to administrators. It was particularly important that conferences should be run for senior administrators in order that they might be aware of modern trends in social welfare provision.”⁴⁸

The core of in-service training was good supervision, and the chief aim was to enable the staff of an agency to do their jobs more effectively in the light of the fundamental principles of social work. Consultation services through personal visits, correspondence and periodic group meetings were proving an effective form of in-service training and support to workers. “Greater use might be made of staff manuals, bulletins and other written material.”⁴⁹ There were also considerable advantages in a series of short residential courses interspersed with periods of planned independent study and observation, or else related to part-time courses over a period of time.

Problems of priorities in the allocation of scarce teaching resources, particularly supervision, between professional students, auxiliaries and in-service training were not discussed at the seminars. This would no doubt be a matter for the suggested national co-ordinating agencies, as part of the total strategy of increasing teaching resources and raising the standard of training for social work at all levels.

GENERAL COMMENTS ON PRESENT TRENDS IN TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK

The foregoing summary of the findings of the Munich meeting and those of the succeeding three regional seminars has shown a general consensus of opinion about the direction in which social work educators desire to move, however difficult this may be in practice.

So far as actual curriculum content is concerned the following comparative analysis from the first United Nations Survey of Training for Social Work (1950) still holds true:

“There appears to be some measure of agreement that the social worker should have an understanding of (a) the cultural, political,

⁴⁸ Athens Seminar report, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 25.

social and economic forces affecting the lives of the people he serves and the social and economic problems that they face; (b) the legislation, services, and organizations created by the State and the community in order to promote social and economic well-being; (c) the patterns, both normal and abnormal, of the physical and psychological development of man; (d) the interaction of psychological and environmental factors in situations of cultural, social and economic stress; and (e) the purposes, principles and methods of social work. Beyond this, the social worker should be equipped with sufficient skill to perform his tasks in such manner as to preserve human dignity, to encourage self-sufficiency, to increase opportunities for productive living, and to enhance the community's efforts to promote social and economic well-being. In other words, social workers should possess a general understanding of man and of the political, cultural, social and economic institutions among which he lives, a specific knowledge of the field of social work, and a mastery of the techniques necessary for the successful application of theoretical knowledge to practical situations.

"The general character of the knowledge required indicates that social work, while it can point to certain skills and subject matters that are entirely its own, must draw heavily upon other disciplines for much of its course content. All of the programmes examined for this report include sociology and psychology and other closely related subjects or presuppose prior study in those fields. With few exceptions, the programmes also include courses on one or more aspects of medicine and law. All of them, finally, include at least one course that can be identified as belonging entirely within the field of social work. No further generalization is possible regarding the body of knowledge that is imparted in all schools of social work."⁵⁰

In the Second Survey, the regional analyses of the theoretical content of the courses gave much the same general picture.

"As the content of social work curriculum in most places has customarily been drawn from other professional fields, notably medicine, law and psychiatry, and from the social sciences, training institutions have relied to a great extent upon courses given by teachers from these disciplines. The result is often a series of isolated courses with little relationship to the practical training aspects and primary objectives of the programme. There is, however, evidence of extensive progress in identifying the components of knowledge from these various fields relevant to social work practice and bringing such courses into closer relationship or adapting the theoretical content for inclusion as an integral part of the social work curriculum. Increasing attention is also being given to the mental health aspects and hence to the contributions of psychiatry, psychology and anthropology.

"The changing emphasis of some of the methods courses that has been evident for some time in a number of countries is becoming more widespread. Hence the focus is changing from primary consideration of the available forms of aid and procedures for dealing with cate-

⁵⁰ *Training for Social Work: An International Survey*, op. cit., pp. 47-48.

gories of problems, to seeking an understanding of the nature and cause of the problem and the processes by which help can be given to enhance the individual's self-respect, to stimulate or release his capacities for self-help, or to facilitate development of his capabilities to maintain satisfying relationships and to function responsibly in his environment. This emphasis upon human development and behaviour and the implications for human relationships is reflected more and more in courses on methods including social casework, social group work, community organization and social administration."⁵¹

An American analysis of curricula of schools of social work and articles in social work journals showed that:

"Whatever the particular approach, the conclusion was notably the same, namely, that social work knowledge is, at the present time, in fact, an amalgam of several different things: (1) propositions borrowed from or markedly like those of, psychiatry and some branches of psychology; (2) propositions, fewer than in (1), borrowed from, or markedly like those of, sociology, social anthropology, and a scattering from other fields; (3) apparently original propositions about how to do certain things in casework, group work, and community organization; (4) methods, techniques and attitudes clearly derived from the fields of administration, statistics, and social research; (5) propositions about how to do things apparently derived from, or markedly like, those of progressive education."⁵²

The major discernible shift in emphasis—and this is universal—is to introduce more teaching on methodology and at a higher standard than heretofore. The larger proportion of time given to methods subjects is having its repercussions on field work, where it is obvious that the teaching must be applied, and on the background courses which must be coherently related to the methods courses. No actual analysis of course titles would give very much indication of the respective balance between background and methods courses unless detailed information was also available about actual course content. It is, however, clear that the abstract academic teaching of the background subjects by part-time lecturers, without an endeavour to relate these subjects to each other and to the application of theory in the methods courses and field work, no longer meets the demands of social work education. It would however, be inaccurate to interpret this swing away from the 'abstract', 'academic' or 'theoretical' as a denial of the necessity for study of theory drawn from the behavioural and social sciences. What appears to have happened is that attempts to evolve and teach a systematic methodology of social work have necessarily had their repercussions on the teaching of those subjects on which social work relies most heavily for its basic knowledge, primarily the behavioural and social sciences.⁵³ This has led to a

⁵¹ *Training for Social Work: Second International Survey*, op. cit., p. 13. See also pp. 24, 36, 54, 77, 103 and 137.

⁵² Alfred J. Kahn, "The Nature of Social Work Knowledge", *New Directions in Social Work*. Cora Kasius, ed. (New York, Harper and Bros., 1954), p. 197.

⁵³ See J. F. de Jongh, "A European Experiment in Casework Teaching", *Social Casework*. (New York), January 1953, and Eileen L. Younghusband, *The Place of Casework in the Total Curriculum*. London, The Association of Social Workers, 1952.

demand that relevant rather than elementary knowledge from these sciences shall be selected by specialists in them with the co-operation of social work teachers. It is also generally leading to an assumption that psychology, psychiatry, sociology, social psychology and cultural anthropology should be taught dynamically, and preferably by teachers actively engaged in practice or research related to the world in which social workers operate rather than to the laboratory.⁵⁴ The new methods course teaching is thus leading to dissatisfaction with "a psychology based on old concepts of a static personality or an academic psychology that might be consistent with the dynamic points of view but was concentrated so largely on experimental psychology, ability and intelligence tests, and characterology that it failed to provide a base for casework teaching."⁵⁵

Another major discernible trend is towards general recognition of the importance of sociology, social psychology and cultural anthropology and a desire to increase the amount of time devoted to teaching relevant content from these social sciences.

The concurrent and related trend towards lengthening the amount of time devoted to field work and relating it to theoretical studies through teaching in the field (supervision) and discussion of recorded case material in the class-room is having an equally explosive effect on curriculum content, planning and integration. It is also making much bigger demands than previously on social agencies to provide facilities for such practice and teaching.

It is obvious that if more time is to be given to methods subjects, if new material is to be introduced from the social and behavioural sciences and if field work is to be extended, the amount to be put into the course as a whole will be greatly increased. The possibilities are that more class hours will be added, that some material hitherto included will be eliminated, or else that the course itself will be lengthened. Every curriculum permanently tends to become overloaded. It is unfortunate if in such circumstances the apparently easy expedient is adopted of increasing the number of class hours. A good deal is said later in this Survey about the necessity to take into account the psychology of learning, particularly the rate at which and the ways in which students learn. From this angle there can be little doubt that the law of diminishing returns sets in if students are regularly required to attend more than about three lecture-discussions a day. The other alternative of extending the total length of the course is being adopted by a number of schools of social work. Some others are hindered in doing this by the students' difficulty in meeting the costs of longer training. The third alternative, to cut out of the course material which has come to be regarded as redundant, is necessary all the time.

The major trend in this last respect is to lessen the time devoted in schools in some countries to memorizing details of complicated legislation, and to learning at the school such office procedures as typing, filing,

⁵⁴ For the current status of teaching in certain of these subjects see *The University Teaching of Social Sciences—Sociology, Social Psychology and Anthropology*. Paris, UNESCO, 1954.

⁵⁵ Jan F. de Jongh, "A European Experiment in Casework Teaching", *op. cit.*, p. 11.

account keeping and general office management. In certain countries less time is now given to learning the elements of nursing. Various causes are responsible for this changed emphasis. Perhaps the chief is a clearer recognition that it is not the primary purpose of a school of social work to train personnel versed in all the details of legislation and office procedures. And in any event, that much which they need to know to fulfil their social work function is more effectively learnt (because immediately applied) in the field work and in subsequent employment. Clarification of the respective roles of public health nurses and social workers is also responsible for a decreased emphasis on nursing techniques. Perhaps this whole trend could be summed up as a swing away from teaching techniques to teaching principles and concepts for application in practice. Thus, there is, for example, a much stronger emphasis on the teaching of administrative structure and process, concurrently with a decline in the teaching of routine office procedures or descriptive detail about particular services.

Specialization

Substantially the same trends are discernible in regard to specialization. There is a swing away from specialization in which the emphasis was upon teaching detailed legislation and agency practices in relation to the particular category of social need and type of clientele covered by the specialization. The trend now is towards teaching the whole; teaching comparatively; identifying universals of process and content, with the resultant concepts, beneath particular instances; and using specialized teaching in order to carry general studies to greater depth so far as particular aspects are concerned. It is no doubt partly the discovery that what appears peculiar to particular settings proves upon analysis to be a manifestation in particular circumstances of certain general processes, which has led to this acceptance of 'generic' teaching. Even where there are real differences as well as basic similarities in certain circumstances or settings it is often thought that comparative study brings these home to students more effectively. So far as social work methodology is concerned, the current trend is towards teaching basic concepts and their practice through the three methods of casework, group work and community organization, though where this is done students are expected to gain greater proficiency in one of the three methods.

Advanced study

The emerging goal in this respect is not so much narrow specialization at the initial training stage but advanced studies later after some years a good field experience. The subjects most commonly suggested for these advanced studies are social work methodology, with special reference to teaching and supervision; administration; social planning and the formulation of social policy; and social research. These subjects are significant because they indicate that the main ferment of discussion in regard to the moving frontiers of social work education centres round methodology and more effective selection and application of knowledge from the social and behavioural sciences. It now begins to be appreciated by social work teachers that their own role in this selection must be active rather than passive because

"it should be recognized . . . that the very structure of social science makes application of its findings difficult . . . efforts to adapt knowledge

from the social sciences can be a frustrating experience. Such knowledge still has many gaps and social work must either fill in with common sense procedures or endeavour through independent study to develop its own body of knowledge.

"It would not be unjust to add that the social worker who is on the front line of service finds the social scientist somewhat silent on subjects of major concern, and also inclined to conceptualize the obvious and complicate the simple".⁵⁶

Teaching method

There are vital issues centred round the question of whether the teaching itself should start from theory and work forward to its application in human behaviour and the current social scene; or whether teaching should start with phenomena being observed by students and work back to underlying theoretical formulations; or whether, so far as possible, the two should be related to each other and taught concurrently. Or, indeed, in some courses whether theory should be taught at all, or only its application in practice. There are no ready-made answers to these questions, any more than there are to the problem of how much should be taught of each subject and how it should be integrated with others. Some general guides to answers lie in the purpose for which any particular group of students is being trained, in their intelligence, previous education, maturity and experience.

MOVING FRONTIERS OF SOCIAL WORK

The tendency of the older-established schools to abandon the teaching of allied techniques and procedures, for instance in health or administration, was noted above. At the same time, a new phenomenon is emerging, more particularly in the fields of community development and residential work with deprived, delinquent or mentally ill people. These occupations started and developed independently of social work, or with, at most, a tenuous attachment to it in most countries. The emphasis was upon knowledge of child nurture, household management, recreational skills, knowledge of agriculture, co-operative marketing, road-making, bridge-building, home crafts, nutrition, elementary health care, and the like. Yet as time has gone on, the actual practice of both community development and remedial residential care has demonstrated the large social work element in both of them, until at present the emphasis begins to shift towards an understanding of human needs, and skill in working with people. In this respect it is significant that the community development section of the Lahore Seminar came to the conclusion that

"broadly the content of training of community development Workers should be based on the following factors and the syllabus of courses should be prepared accordingly :

(A) Imparting knowledge and information regarding human behaviour, the society and its cultural pattern, the basic economic principles affecting the community and the administrative organization.

⁵⁶ Alfred J. Kahn, "The Nature of Social Work Knowledge", op. cit., pp. 198-199.

(B) Teaching of skills which conveniently can be classified into (a) manipulative and (b) skills in human relations.

(C) Inculcating the right attitudes".⁵⁷

The practical skills and abilities are of great importance, particularly where multi-purpose workers must be used, but to teach villagers to use a new crop is not more important than to stir in them belief in themselves and hope and confidence in meeting their needs. Similarly, it is more important to give children dependable love and a sense of security than well-balanced meals and an hygienic regime. Nonetheless, these are not alternatives to each other. If man does not live by bread alone, at least he does not live at all without it.

If schools of social work had the resources and the vision to meet the challenge of new insights and new knowledge, the question arises whether the result once again would be a corps of social workers with added technical skills unrelated to social work as such but required by the nature of their function. This is the answer already accepted in group work, where it is assumed that group workers will have skills in one or more programme activities as a necessary element in the exercise of group work skills. It is also assumed in community organization that the worker will have skills in administration, financing and planning.

This answer assumes that the primary function of the worker in a particular field is social work but with additional technical skills. The demand for more knowledge about methods of motivating and working with people, indeed for some skill akin to social work is also being made in relation to various occupations where the major function clearly lies elsewhere, for example, public health nursing, teaching, home economics, much community development work, medicine, and the pastoral work of ministers of religion. This same need for systematized knowledge of how to work with individuals, groups and communities is becoming apparent in administration at all levels from small local agencies to national civil services. In industry and in commercial undertakings also much research and experimentation is going on in the use of knowledge from the social and behavioural sciences to improve human relations in the work situation.⁵⁸ This is also true of group and social therapy with mentally disordered people. Social workers would have a good deal to give and much to learn from all this ferment of changing attitudes, enquiry, research and experimentation. Because, however, their training, resources and opportunities for research and study are so inadequate even to their own needs, it is perhaps optimistic to expect major developments in either direction. It would also be premature to try to envisage whether in the future some great tide will sweep together in common basic knowledge, skills and understanding the many separate professions now growing up to apply some aspect of knowledge about human psychological and social functioning, as well as professions which need that knowledge to fulfill another function.

⁵⁷ Lahore Seminar report, op. cit., p. 13.

⁵⁸ See Rensis Likert and Samuel P. Hayes, eds., *Some Applications of Behavioural Research*. Paris, UNESCO, 1957.

DIFFICULTIES FACING SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK IN ATTAINING THE OBJECTIVES OF TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK

In the first United Nations Survey of Training for Social Work it was said that :

“Schools in all parts of the world—old and new, large and small, independent and university-sponsored—report the same needs and the same preoccupations. They are all hindered, though to varying degrees by lack of funds and resources (particularly with respect to teaching staff and practical training facilities) for the preparation of fully qualified practitioners, by inadequate community understanding of the role of the social worker and of the need for professional training for the performance of social work functions, and by the inadequate prospects that they can hold out to their graduates as regards compensation and professional status.”⁵⁹

In the second United Nations Survey of Training for Social Work it was found that

“In spite of the efforts in many countries to interpret social work and the action by the Social Commission and Economic and Social Council recognizing, in principle, the distinctive contribution professional social work should make to programmes for social development, the extent to which this is generally accepted or understood continues to vary widely from country to country irrespective of the stage of economic development. This fact is emphasized in all the reports received which call attention to the importance of social work training leaders and institutions assuming a more dynamic role in the interpretation of the practical application of social work concepts and principles. . . . In most countries funds now available are grossly inadequate to provide either the required training facilities or to permit the employment of sufficient trained workers to expand or improve welfare programmes as rapidly as desired, and as is necessary in some cases to provide suitable field work instruction.”⁶⁰

Although improvements are taking place all the time, there is yet no reason to think that, so far as countries not represented at the regional seminars are concerned, the situation as a whole is different now from the period when two previous surveys were undertaken, while these same difficulties have been reiterated recently for the countries covered by the seminars. The limitations facing schools of social work appear to stem from general failure to appreciate the distinctive contribution of social work in :

“greater understanding of the human aspects of implementing large-scale economic and social measures; of more scientific approaches to fostering or releasing human capacities for self-help and to preventing or alleviating the adverse effects of social changes upon families and individuals or upon the community itself”.⁶¹

This failure to recognize the potential contribution of social work results in attenuated resources for training owing to lack of funds; and

⁵⁹ *Training for Social Work: An International Survey*, op. cit., p. 99.

⁶⁰ *Training for Social Work: Second International Survey*, op. cit., p. 6.

⁶¹ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

to poor salaries and promotion prospects which affect recruitment, both quantitatively and qualitatively. The effect of this is that the demands made by the work itself tend to be gravely out of step with the quality of the recruits to it, their professional training and the social status accorded to them.

The result of this basic situation is that schools in different parts of the world face the following problems to a greater or lesser extent:

(i) An inadequate number of candidates from whom to select, resulting in "bad risks" having to be accepted.

(ii) A heavy preponderance of women candidates in most countries, when men are also urgently needed in social work.

(iii) General ignorance about and failure to recognize the profession of social work, resulting in poor recruitment, low salaries, long hours of work, limited promotion prospects, and high wastage rates after training.

(iv) Admission to training on the basis of secondary school education only. This would not matter so much if carefully selected students had had several years of other experience before being accepted (provided the professional course were of sufficient length) but in fact they are often allowed to start training at seventeen or eighteen when they are too immature for full professional training and in any event require such substantial education in the background subjects that insufficient time remains for teaching social work methods, skill and practice.

(v) Small full-time faculties, which means a high student/staff ratio. It also sometimes happens that the director of the school is not a trained social worker. The total result is that the staff often has insufficient time and knowledge for consultation with part-time lecturers and supervisors, for analysis of curriculum content and overall curriculum planning, for individual sessions with students, for adequate interviews with prospective candidates and for full recording and future analysis of these interviews, for reading, and for research and the preparation of articles and textbooks, as well as new lecture material, including finding and editing case records for teaching purposes. It is also well-nigh impossible when schools are so short-staffed for them to make a proper contribution to further training of agency staffs, or of auxiliary workers, or to grant their own members periodic educational leave. The mere recital of some of the appropriate duties of the faculty of a school of social work shows how impossible it is for most schools, staffed as they are at the present day, to make the contribution which they should make to the advancement of social research and the continuous application of new discoveries in the social and behavioural sciences to the refinement of social work methods and the deepening of skill.

(vi) The large number of part-time lecturers means that often too many short courses are given by too many different people. These short courses, dealing with various aspects of a subject are frequently not planned to fit together into a whole. This integration would in any event be hard to achieve, even with thorough consultation, when courses are divided amongst a number of different part-time teachers.

(vii) The small full-time faculty in many schools also results in insufficient individual work with students through small seminars and individual tutorials.

(viii) A large number of part-time lecturers who are neither trained social workers nor with experience of working with them, and often without much knowledge of the real nature of social work and the appropriate contribution of their subjects to the training of students. Great efforts are being made by many schools to interest these part-time lecturers in full group discussions on the content, balance and timing of the various courses which go to make up the total curriculum and the relation between background and methods subjects and between these and the field work. Where it has been possible to hold these discussions they have usually been found to stimulate part-time lecturers to a much greater interest in the course as a whole and to a better awareness of their appropriate contributions to it.

(ix) A lack of social workers with adequate educational and professional qualifications to teach the methods subjects courses. A vicious circle exists when the schools in a given country cannot train at a high enough standard to qualify their best graduates to teach, after several years of good experience in the field. This position is being slowly remedied as social workers take academic qualifications in social work in other countries and then return to teach in their own country, and as the level is raised in the country concerned.

(x) Lack of adequate field work facilities and insufficient contact between school staff and supervisors in the agencies. This is probably the most serious limiting factor in improving social work education, numerically and in relation to raising standards. It results basically from a lack of social agencies able and willing to provide facilities for student field work placements and supervision. This shortage arises because not enough agencies are doing work of a high enough standard for student training, because they have in their service an insufficient number of social workers qualified to teach, because there is often an absolute shortage in the country concerned of qualified supervisors, because the best use is not made of such as exist in order to increase their number, and because agencies are unable or unwilling to invest staff time, clerical help and accommodation in student training.

(xi) Lack of teaching materials. This includes case records, professional journals and textbooks produced in the country itself. This also is directly related to inadequate financial resources, which make it difficult for school or agency social work staffs to undertake the kind of thorough study and analysis of particular social problems or social work methods necessary to produce serious professional literature. This results inevitably in too much reliance on literature from another culture. Some of this literature deals with universals, but even so there are problems of access to periodicals and to expensive textbooks, as well as problems of translation. The lack of adequate library facilities also means that too much factual teaching must be given in lectures and classes.

(xii) Many schools have very small student enrolments. This adds to the cost of overheads (including adequate library facilities) and may be one of the reasons why schools are starved of proper resources. Small numbers also mean that both staff and students tend to become inbred and to lack adequate intellectual stimulus. The optimum size will vary for different purposes, for example, students per lecture course, floor space, clerical staff, full-time staff/student ratio. It is, however, likely that many schools fall below the optimum economic

size in various respects and are therefore over-expensive though they are being run on inadequate resources. It is suggested at the end of this study that in each country appropriate means should be taken to survey schools of social work from this point of view for the purpose of discovering the most advantageous size, taking into account the need for adequate full- and part-time staff, accommodation, clerical assistance, record keeping, library facilities, heating, lighting; and proper arrangements for supervised field work. It might then be necessary to take various steps, including recruitment campaigns and more adequate financial assistance, to bring the schools up to a standard which not only provides them with the resources they lack but also enables them to make the most economic use of these.

(xiii) Some schools would also seem to scatter their energies too widely by running small specialized courses, as well as courses which are not part of a professional training for social work. These small highly specialized courses to prepare students for some particular field of social work, for example, rural welfare or social work in industry, tend to break the unity of social work since the emphasis is on the setting rather than on individual, group and community process applied in particular settings. Moreover, the numbers enrolled are frequently insufficient for serious study of the setting, both specifically and comparatively, and for relating this to basic knowledge about individual, group and community functioning in relation to professional social work activities. In addition to those small specialized courses, schools of social work in some countries also provide courses to prepare students for other types of work, for example, librarianship, secretarial work, public health nursing. Some of these have a social content, others do not have this reason for being taught in a school of social work. This inevitably means that already overburdened directors must divide their energies between courses with quite different content and making different demands. It is suggested that the competent authorities might consider concentrating specialized courses, where it is thought essential in the local circumstances to run such courses, so that they may be provided at as high a standard as possible and might form a nucleus for advanced studies. It might also prove desirable to divorce non-social work courses from schools of social work. This would not necessarily prevent staffs of schools of social work from advising and teaching in relation to a social component in such courses.

(xiv) It is suggested that schools of social work should review the total structure and content of their curricula in the light of the educational criteria and basic curriculum content proposed in the present study. This review would be a first step in determining where cuts, rearrangement and amalgamation of courses, as well as addition of new courses, should be made. It would include an analysis of the content of methods subjects and their relation to the background subjects, and also discussion of the field work arrangements between the school and the agencies in order to determine where improvements were needed. A review of this kind, calling upon the help of part-time staff, supervisors, agency executives, professional associations and possibly the relevant government departments, can be a stimulating experience in which through the exchange of different points of view and consideration of common problems from different angles, new ideas emerge and the

whole scope of professional education for social work is seen afresh in a wider perspective. This can help all those concerned to see more clearly the objectives of professional education and to try to assess what this involves in terms of the school and the agencies who work in partnership with it.

(xv) In any country where for various reasons it was not possible for the schools of social work themselves to take the initiative in carrying out such a comprehensive review, this might be instituted on a national scale by the appropriate public authority. A survey of this kind should be focused upon ways in which the best possible use could be made nationally of existing scarce resources with a view to their increase. These resources include teachers of social work methodology, supervisors, appropriately qualified teachers of background subjects, and teaching material. No doubt in some countries one of the results would be to show a need for additional finances for schools and better salaries for social workers. These are real problems where economic resources are very limited. These costs must, however, be set against waste from inadequately staffed social welfare services.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter it has only been possible to give a brief bird's eye view of current trends in training for social work. The intention has been to set the stage for a more detailed study in subsequent chapters of the content of such training at all levels, and of some of the educational issues involved. Therefore in what follows, the ground surveyed briefly by the Munich meeting of experts and in the regional seminars will be covered in greater depth. The purpose of so doing is to provide a forum for further discussion within different countries and by schools of social work, voluntary and public social agencies and associations of professional social workers in order to refine for actual use the broad suggestions about curriculum content and construction embodied in the regional seminar findings and in this study.

CHAPTER II

THE NATURE OF SOCIAL WORK: AN EMERGING PROFESSION

INTRODUCTORY

Before considering the content of education for social work, it is desirable to clarify both the field of operation of social work and its nature, though it is true of social work, as of some other professions, that its nature is to some extent being discovered through the use which is made of social workers. The actual term is often used in a general sense to include persons who are active in social reform as well as trained social workers. In this present Survey the term is used in the second sense only.

Many would claim that in spite of the fluid margins characteristic of any growing profession there is now an identifiable and transmissible core of theory and practice in that the processes of social work with individuals (casework), with groups (group work) and with communities (community organization) have now been systematized to an extent which makes the practice of social work possible in varied settings and social and economic circumstances. There is still much to learn and to put into practice, but:

“More and more we have moved towards clarifying the specific aspect of man with which social work deals: Man in his interdependencies with his human and social environment, man in his social relationships. More and more we have come to see that, since we deal directly with but one part of the whole, we must collaborate with other competences if our service is to be valid and fruitful.”¹

The analysis given in the first International Survey of Training for Social Work is quoted in another context (p. 60). This analysis was an attempt to abstract from actual practice all over the world the nature of the social work activity. It seems as though this nature emerges as social agencies, schools of social work and professional associations explore through identifying the principles inherent in practice and through deepening and refining theory the increasing breadth and depth of activity of which social work is capable. In this chapter it is proposed to try to clarify common factors in the practice of social work as a necessary preliminary to the discussion of the content of social work education. This will be done for social work as such and then for casework, group work and community organization. Administration, social planning, research and teaching will not be discussed in detail, since although essential to the practice of social work they are not methods peculiar to it. Finally in the light of this analysis, an attempt will be made to establish what is common to all social work and then to consider to what extent social work is on the road to becoming a profession.

THE ESSENTIAL COMPONENTS OF SOCIAL WORK

It would be generally agreed that social work is concerned with social relationships, with individuals and groups as interrelated with their social milieu, more particularly with the external and internal stresses which may arise in that interrelationship, and which result in social dysfunctioning.

“The objectives of all social work methods . . . are similar. All are concerned with removal of blocks to growth, release of potentialities, full use of inner resources, development of capacity to manage one’s own (the individual, group or community) life, ability to function as an integrated unit. . . . Essentially what is sought by all social workers is this same general end.”²

It is difficult to express the function of social workers in such terms without seeming to make impossibly wide claims for it. Within the range

¹ Swithun Bowers, “Social Work as a Helping and Healing Profession”, *Social Work* (New York), January 1957, p. 59.

² Murray Ross, *Community Organization, Theory and Principles* (New York, Harper and Bros., 1955), p. 61.

of social relationships the concern of the social worker is more specifically with prevention, for example, through group activities or contributing to policies which forestall social breakdown, or help at those points where social relationships and individual lives are attenuated or damaged. There are, then,

“two major fields and two major objectives of social work, namely economic and physical well-being or a ‘health and decency’ standard of living, and opportunities for social growth through satisfying relationships and experiences. All professions would stake out an interest in these objectives but there is little doubt that social work occupies a peculiarly inclusive position with regard to both, since the factors in economic and cultural security and individual behavior are interwoven. It is this integration which consistently has shaped social work and given it its distinguishable if not wholly distinctive pattern: it is this which gives it its complexities, its frustrations, its fascination, and its challenge.”³

The relations of the individual in his society are the focus of social work. Social workers also commonly regard themselves as having an obligation to be knowledgeable about social conditions and to press for economic and social reforms, as well as helping individuals and groups.

In this constant but ever-changing flux of social relationship in which the individual and his environment are interwoven, he strives to maintain equilibria which are both satisfying to him and socially acceptable. It is at points of failure, where the reasons may lie both within and outside him, that social work may come in to help him to restore a balance or else to find some more satisfying equilibrium than previously, with the aid of appropriate resources within himself and in the community. There are many ways in which an individual's equilibrium may be disturbed and varied ways in which it may be restored. The social worker comes into the picture where the use of skill in the understanding of behaviour and social relationships and knowledge of other community resources provide the most effective point of entry. The restoration or improvement of personal-social equilibria may of course require more than one profession, working in combination with each other.

“Social workers, therefore, must understand the interaction between personality and environment, between internal strains and external pressures. They must have a grasp of both psychological and cultural forces in the socio-economic scene. In addition they need to have knowledge and skill in working with the network of social institutions and agencies within their profession and beyond it. Throughout social work practice the insistent focus is on relating the inner forces and capacities of man to the external pressures and demands in the interests of his social adaptation. . . . Parents, family members, friends, associates, teachers, physicians, psychiatrists will play a more direct part than the social worker in fashioning and re-fashioning the individual. Other agents, such as governmental bodies, or social and economic forces will play a more direct part in shaping the

³ Gordon Hamilton, *Theory and Practice of Social Casework* (Columbia University Press, Rev. ed., 1951), p. 12.

conditions of his life. The social worker functions between the two using what each brings to the helping situation".⁴

Part of the problem of clarifying the nature of social work arises because in its concentration on the individual in his social relationships it seeks to claim for itself a field in which most people practice for most of their lives by virtue of their human nature. Everyone is deeply concerned with himself, with others and with his social milieu. He thus stakes claims (of varying validity) to know something about all three. The ordinary man may feel at points in his life that he knows a little about sickness, education, the law or psychiatry, but if any of these is to become a means to gain his living he will recognize that, as a layman, his knowledge and skill is elementary and must be subjected to the discipline of professional training. But it is otherwise with that part of the totality of living to which social work lays claim. This means that social work is struggling to discover and secure recognition for its professional identity in a realm in which everyone is a more or less gifted amateur. There is, therefore, no sharp break between the ignorance of the uninstructed layman and the knowledge and skill of the professional, as for example in surgery or architecture, but rather a continuum of knowledge and skill in the art of living in which no one is wholly a layman, though some now claim to have a professional ability to help others. This continuum from universal human relationships to professional practice applies alike to the three social work methods of casework, group work and community organization. There is, furthermore, the problem that social workers have no tools of their trade, no appliances, no prescriptions, no visible techniques, on the contrary, they deal largely with intangibles of feelings and relationships. "The service is indeed real but it eludes immediate recognition as a professional activity because it does not have the tangible quality of the service provided, for example, by a doctor in removing an appendix, by a nurse in taking a temperature. . . . Moreover, the giving of help is by no means a social work monopoly."⁵ Another difficulty lies in the fact that there is a universality in, for example, bodily functioning, which makes it possible so to standardize knowledge and skill that these can be effectively exercised in any part of the world; but the position is not the same for social work because of its cultural component. Understanding of and ability to work within a people's culture, or indeed a sub-culture within a given society, is intrinsic to the effective practice of social work. In other words, it is not possible to study an individual, group or community and their social relationships accurately or to help them effectively without also understanding their cultural assumptions and values. This does not of course mean that there is no universality about professional social work but rather that assumptions about behaviour which are valid in one culture are not necessarily valid in another culture.

Considerable effort is now being made in different parts of the world to discover what in the principles, techniques, methods and approach of

⁴ Charlotte Towle, "Curriculum Development", *Social Work Journal* (New York), April 1949, p. 69.

⁵ Katherine Kendall, "Basic Content in Professional Education for Social Work", *International Social Work* (Bombay), April 1958, p. 30.

social work as it has developed in the United States is applicable in other countries. For example, the principle of the client's right to self-determination has to be differently interpreted in those cultures where there is strong emphasis on family and group life and responsibility. The terms group work and community organization have no unfortunate connotations, but the term casework savours to some of pathology and is sometimes said to have little relevance in situations of mass poverty. A distinction is now generally made between casework as a remedial service for individuals suffering from problems of personal and social relationships and casework (or as it is sometimes called in India, the individual approach) as a means of giving a deeper understanding of individual personality functioning so that the social worker may be able to contribute this knowledge of human needs, aspirations and motivations to the operation of large scale programmes. Direct work with individuals also enables social workers to gather and make available accurate information about social and economic deficiencies.

THE SOCIAL WORK ASPECTS OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

The nature of the social worker's function has also tended to be disguised by the fact that social agencies themselves come into existence in response to recognition of some unmet social need. This means that some aspects of the agency itself and its methods of operation embody a diagnosis of personal need and social relationships. This reinforces what has been said above about everyone thinking himself a gifted amateur when it comes to human relationships. It is also used to support the view that the untrained worker from broadly the same social milieu as the clients can, after some years of experience, give as good a service as the professionally qualified social worker. This contention of course raises the question of what the agency requires of the worker, and how deeply the agency itself is aware of the complex flow of psycho-social relationships in which it is seeking to intervene helpfully. The essential case for the professional education of social workers is that there now exists a substantial body of transmissible knowledge in the behavioural and social sciences, in relation to which social workers have developed a certain skill which has also been systematised to a degree which makes it transmissible through supervised practice and teaching. The result is that although the gifted amateur and the untrained may, with wisdom and ability, achieve much, yet they will not comprehend people in trouble and the problems which beset them so precisely, in such totality nor with the same ability to use individual and group relationships deliberately in helpful ways as will the trained worker. Intuition and experience are of great importance in themselves but the untrained worker has a dangerous tendency to generalize on inadequate data, not to see below the surface, to rely on rule-of-thumb methods, advice and admonition, or even authoritarian direction or to offer a diffused form of help which neither resolves nor alleviates specific problems, and to elevate prejudice and likes and dislikes into principles. In short, the untrained worker usually lacks the basic knowledge and the self-awareness which the trained worker has had to master in greater or lesser measure.

It is now necessary to outline the particular characteristics of each of the social work methods before clarifying further the common elements in all social work, and considering whether it is on its way to becoming a profession.⁶ At the same time, it is essential to recognize the unity in all the apparent diversity of social work.

SOCIAL WORK WITH INDIVIDUALS (CASEWORK)

The evolution of casework as a systematic field of practice and study is briefly touched upon in the historical retrospect. This historical development is still being recapitulated in different countries and in agencies within the same country. The term casework is now widely used, but to denote varied activities embodying different attitudes towards its nature. It is used in at least the following three different senses:

(1) To mean work with individual "cases" needing financial assistance, convalescence, removal to hospital and so forth. The focus is upon establishing eligibility, or facilitating the provision of services to people through making appropriate arrangements on behalf of individuals.

(2) To mean individual "welfare". There is a shift of focus here from the "case" being the need for something tangible to the "case" being a need for well-being. "Welfare" services thus shift some of the emphasis on to the individual, who is to receive assistance in ways which will promote his welfare. This means that the worker is expected by the agency to have some fairly specific consideration for the feelings of the recipient. This kind of "casework" may, however, be carried out through a series of isolated contacts by different workers without continuity or any conscious direction of the relationship or focus on treatment goals. It may thus be terminated abruptly or continued indefinitely without analysis of its results. The assumption is that its stated welfare purpose guarantees its good effects.

(3) To mean work with individuals in situations of personal and social stress. In this sense casework is a continuous professional relationship, a process of dynamic interaction between the worker and the client consciously used for social treatment purposes, defined by a study of the particular person in his situation, the problems which most concern him and the ways in which he could be helped to meet these by the use of his own and the community's resources.

The third use of the term is the only one which refers to casework in the professional sense. In this sense it is primarily the offer of a professional service in its own right, which, to fulfil its purpose of helping individuals with aspects of social functioning, makes use of appropriate social services and other community resources. The other more simple levels of social service are also necessary in the operation

⁶ Many definitions of social work exist in the literature of different countries. Those given in this chapter are widely quoted. See, for example, Berta Carreño de Ferreti, *Apuntes de Servicio Social Profesional*, Santiago, Editorial Universitaria, S.A., 1957. See also the definitions from 33 countries in *Training for Social Work: An International Survey*, United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1950.IV.11.

of total social welfare services. They are considered from a different angle in the chapter on auxiliary workers.

The use of the term in a professional sense may be better understood by reference to some of the generally accepted definitions of casework. Mary Richmond's often quoted and still valid definitions run as follows: "the art of doing different things for and with different people by co-operating with them to achieve at one and the same time their own and society's betterment."⁷ She also spoke of casework as composed of "Processes which develop personality through adjustments consciously affected, individual by individual, between men and their social environment".⁸ Father Swithun Bowers, Director of the Ottawa University School of Social Welfare, has not only gathered together a number of definitions⁹ but has also himself proposed a definition which has won considerable acceptance. He suggests that "social casework is an art in which knowledge of the science of human relations and skills in relationships are used to mobilize capacities in the individual and resources in the community appropriate to better adjustment between the client and all or any part of his total environment".¹⁰ This definition, in which every word is significant both in itself and in relation to other words, brings out clearly the creative relationship, based upon but going beyond knowledge and skill which is the art of social work, using social welfare services and other organized or spontaneous community resources to bring about a better adjustment between the individual and his environment — not an adjustment to it but between it and him, implying modifications in social relationships and an adaptation between the individual and his physical environment, a give and take on all sides in order to achieve a better total equilibrium. Hence it is necessary to look upon casework more as a process of helping the individual not only to adjust to the *status quo*, but to become an active partner in the process of change and synthesis with his changing environment at newer and newer levels."¹¹ A recent English definition may also be quoted for further clarification: "Casework is a professional service offered to those who desire help with their personal and family problems. Its aim is to relieve stress and to help the client to achieve a better personal and social adjustment. It proceeds by the study of the individual in his social milieu, by the establishment of a co-operative relationship with him, and by the mobilizing of both his own resources and those of the community to work towards these goals."¹² Another definition from Latin America runs as follows: "Professional social work endeavours to help individuals who are confused, disoriented or maladjusted, leading them to make their own evaluation of their capacities

⁷ Mary E. Richmond, *The Long View* (New York, The Russell Sage Foundation, 1930), pp. 374-75.

⁸ Mary E. Richmond, *What is Social Case Work?* (New York, The Russell Sage Foundation, 1922), pp. 98-99.

⁹ Swithun Bowers, "The Nature and Definition of Social Casework", *Principles and Techniques in Social Casework*. Cora Kasius, ed. (New York, Family Service Association of America, 1950), p. 127.

¹⁰ Swithun Bowers, "The Nature and Definition of Social Casework", *Journal of Social Casework* (New York), vol. XXX, No. 10, December 1949, p. 417.

¹¹ Manu M. Desai, "Social Casework and Cultural Problems," *The Indian Journal of Social Work* (Bombay), vol. XVII, No. 3, December 1956, p. 191.

¹² Evelyn Davison, "The Shape of Things to Come", *Case Conference* (London), June 1956, p. 32.

and limitations and their particular individual traits, and having in mind these goals, accepts and encourages these traits and personal freedom to use them in a creative and responsible fashion under the existing conditions of life, whatever these may be."¹³ Yet another definition from France emphasizes that "Casework is not, as some would say, psychological help destined to resolve psychological problems (which they contrast with or differentiate from material help), it is a comprehensive form of help (*aide totale*) which, in every case without exception, takes account of psychological factors in order to assure the effectiveness of whatever help is indicated: material, financial, health, moral support (*morale*)".¹⁴ Some of the emphases differ in different definitions but, as Gordon Hamilton puts it:

"The main assumptions in all the accepted definitions are: the individual and society are interdependent; social forces influence behaviour and attitudes, affording opportunity for self-development and contribution to the world in which we live: not only are all problems psychosocial — inner and outer — but most casework problems are interpersonal, that is, more than one person is likely to be involved in the treatment of the individual, and particularly in casework is the family unit involved; the client is a responsible participant at every step in the solution of his problems. At the center of the casework process is the conscious and controlled use of the client relationship to achieve the ends of treatment."¹⁵

What matters for the purpose of the present discussion is the concept of casework as the conscious use of the process of interaction between people to bring about certain beneficent results. This process is becoming better understood through the application of dynamic psychology and sociology to the study of large numbers of individual cases, resulting in a method which is being practised with increasing effectiveness as casework skills are refined and deepened.¹⁶ Casework is only one method in social work but many social workers would claim that because individual well-being is always the ultimate goal in social work it is necessary for all social workers, whether engaged in group work, community organization, social administration, social planning or social research, to have some degree of casework skill in order to work with and understand people.

SOCIAL WORK WITH GROUPS (GROUP WORK)

What has been said above about casework as a conscious use of the processes at work in the interactions between people might also be said about group work. Here again, however, a distinction must be made between different uses of the same term. As group work is actually

¹³ Berta Carreño de Ferreti, *Apuntes de Servicio Social Profesional*, op. cit., p. 124.

¹⁴ Report of a Course in Casework and Dynamic Psychology", *Informations Sociales* (Paris), 11th year, No. 10, November 1957, p. 1169.

¹⁵ Gordon Hamilton, *Theory and Practice of Social Casework*, op. cit. p. 22.

¹⁶ Numerous descriptions exist of the techniques of casework. For one from an Eastern source, see G. R. Banerjee, "Medical Social Work in India", *Social Welfare in India* (New Delhi, The Planning Commission 1955), pp. 377-378.

practised in various parts of the world the focus tends to be on some social purpose or an educational programme rather than upon the systematic study and conscious use of the processes of interaction between the individuals who compose the group. In other words, it is work of various kinds with groups rather than group process consciously understood and used as a means to an end.

Group work differs from casework in that it is not necessarily concerned with stress situations or with lessening maladjustment, though there is increasing recognition that some problems in relationships which create barriers preventing the individual from participating normally in the demands of social living are more effectively lessened by the use of group process than by individual casework. The core of group work is the conscious and directed use of group relationships, whether with "interest" or "social" groups, or groups whose aim is to resolve their own or some community problem, or educational groups or groups in institutional settings. This knowledge and conscious use of group process is also of value where people work together, whether in industry or in other administrative settings and where they live together, as in a neighborhood.

"... It is perhaps the essence of the group as an aspect of social work of any type that, whether its object is instructional or recreational, it should also aim to expand the range of personality among its members and, in so doing, to increase the range and richness of their human contacts".¹⁷

Group work as such is "a method by which the group worker enables various types of groups to function in such a way that both group interaction and program activities contribute to the growth of the individual and the achievement of desirable social goals".¹⁸ Or, as it is expressed in another definition, "when talking about social group work as a process, we refer to the personal development of the individual through his free association with a group and the social growth of the group itself over a certain period of time".¹⁹ The focus is thus on the individual within the group and the group as a part of society. The aim is to give the individual a satisfying experience through group relationships which will aid his development, and as a result enable him to make a richer contribution to the life of his society. This holds true especially for children's play groups and youth groups which help young people to find their way into the adult world. This experience may either be primarily an end in itself, as when a youth group decides to produce a play, or as a means by which group feeling is deepened, as in the whole membership experience in the youth organization, or as a means by which further external aims are pursued, as when a group decides to interact with other groups or by other means to further some aim by relations between itself and the community.

¹⁷ Adam Curle, "Dynamics of Group Work", *Social Group Work in Great Britain*, Peter Kuenstler, ed. (London, Faber and Faber, 1950), p. 141.

¹⁸ Dorothea Sullivan, *Readings in Group Work* (New York, Association Press, 1952), p. 420.

¹⁹ Maria Umaña, *Servicio Social de Grupo* (Santiago, Editorial Universitaria, S.A. 1957), p. 5.

This means that the group worker must be well aware of his own part in the situation and its significance to him as well as of the aims of group work and the means to their attainment. These aims are complex.

“We have thought of group work in terms of releasing within the individual capacities which are directed towards the deepening of his contact with others. But it may be profitable to think of it as leading to the production of ‘open societies’, whether in the internal or the external sense. If, as a result of his contact with others, the individual is to some extent freed from prejudice, hostility and anxiety, and enabled to express altruism towards his fellows, the character of group life will undoubtedly change. If the group member can perceive other members of the group without the intervention of his own personal difficulties — that is, if he can form a relatively objective assessment of their needs and nature — the group as a whole is likely to have a more open structure and to maintain a more permissive spirit. This in turn will make the assimilation of new members far easier.”²⁰

A group worker is thus one who uses knowledge of group process and skill in its use to work with the group and the individuals who compose it to help them to a more satisfying participation, which may include helping them to define and achieve goals. These goals may range from programme activities to discussion of common group or personal problems of living, for example where a group of mothers decide to discuss issues of discipline in the upbringing of children or people in a neighborhood meet together to discuss and try to solve problems which concern them. One of the values of this latter form of groupwork lies in the very fact of the discovery by members of the group that others have the same problems, fears and anxieties as themselves. These tensions are usually lessened through being expressed and shared in the group, and can often be partialized and worked through by discussion under skilled leadership. Satisfying membership of a group also helps to free the individual to move with greater confidence into other group situations. It is also a matrix from which leadership may emerge. Small group experience is thus an element in the creation of community life.

SOCIAL WORK WITH COMMUNITIES (COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION)

Some social work educators would claim that there are basically only two social work methods, work with individuals and work with groups since man only functions as an individual and as a member of various groups. Others would regard work with communities as a distinct social work method, calling for basic understanding of individual and group behaviour but at the same time involving extended knowledge and certain different skills in the study of communities and the mobilization of various, sometimes conflicting, groups and individuals to work together in the pursuit of goals which they themselves regard as desirable. As is pointed out in the chapter on historical development, the early social workers were fully aware of the necessity to work with and for

²⁰ Adam Curle, *op. cit.*, pp. 145-146.

the local community or "district"; it is, however, social change which has precipitated a fresh interest in community planning in recent years. This stems alike from the breakdown of community life in urban areas and the desire to accelerate deliberately the people's desire for social betterment in custom-bound rural communities. Intervention in the social consequences of technical change is a connecting link for planned social development in these widely different settings. This consciously used intervention is designed to cushion the shock of such change by helping groups and communities to absorb and adapt to alterations, often too rapid, in accepted ways of thinking, feeling and doing, as well as to evolve new patterns of satisfying social living where these have been disintegrated or are non-existent. It is also a means by which different social agencies in a community evolve an organized structure for the systematic study of and action about social needs as these become apparent.

The community worker recognizes that major change at any one point will affect the whole community "Gestalt"; his aim therefore is to enable communities to absorb change without disruption and also to help them to bring about improvements which they themselves plan and desire to introduce.

"Community organization [is] a process by which a social worker uses his insight and skill to help communities — geographical or functional — to identify and to work towards a solution of their problems".²¹

The deliberate fostering of self-study, self-help and self-determination is a basic method in community organization, as in casework and group work.

It is hardly necessary to add that this involves knowledge and skill in studying the value systems, the power structure and ways of living of the culture, the community or group concerned. Knowledge is also needed about the ways in which attitudes may be changed and groups or communities be motivated to absorb or initiate social change. This makes it essential for the community organization worker not only to be able to form good relationships with very varied individuals but also to have a good knowledge of agency structure and operation and community resources, and to be trusted by and in good standing with diverse groups in the community.

Community organization has been defined as:

"the process of bringing about and maintaining a progressively more effective adjustment between social welfare resources and social welfare needs within a geographic area or functional field. Its goals are consistent with all social work goals in that its primary focus is upon the needs of people and provision of means of meeting these needs in a manner consistent with the precepts of democratic living".²²

The fundamental processes of group and community life must presumably be the same whether knowledge of these processes is used

²¹ Murray Ross, "Conceptual Problems in Community Organization", *The Social Service Review* (Chicago), June 1956, p. 180.

²² C. E. McNeil, "Community Organization for Social Welfare", *Social Work Year Book*, (New York, American Association of Social Workers, 1951), p. 123.

to bring about a specific reform or is "open-ended" action to foster community integration through the community itself becoming more aware of its needs and better able to mobilize resources to meet them. The latter form of community organization has been defined as

"... a process by which a community identifies its needs or objectives, orders (or ranks) these needs or objectives, develops the confidence and will to work out these needs or objectives, takes action in respect to them and in so doing extends and develops co-operative and collaborative attitudes and practices in the community."²³

The process and method of community organization and the social worker's place in it are brought out in the following definition:

"Community organization in social work is the process of creating and maintaining a progressively more effective adjustment between community resources and community welfare needs. This adjustment is achieved through the help of the professional worker and through the participation of individuals and groups in the community. It involves the articulation of problems and needs, the determination of solutions, and the foundation and conduct of a plan of action."²⁴

These definitions, like others, rest upon the basic belief of all social workers in people's capacity for growth and change. Growth and change is, however, not necessarily beneficial, particularly when, in a changing culture, family life is disrupted and the gap between the generations widened. A major aim in community organization is thus to help to regulate the speed, integration and direction of social change as well as to act as a catalyst in the initial identification of deficiencies in social provision in the local community and in bringing together appropriate community leaders to study the need and to involve a larger part of the community, through existing or newly created organizations, in meeting it.

"The specific problem facing the community organization worker is to determine when a need is of sufficient importance or has sufficient acceptance, to receive community attention. Does he go ahead if the need is expressed by only one individual or one group? Does he wait until many groups are clamouring and asking why he hasn't done anything? Balance between these extremes is needed and generally the best solution is found if a representative group participates in the decision. But we must also recognize the pioneer, the crusader, the experimenter. Again, if there are people backing the pioneer, encouraging him to try a new venture, he is more likely to succeed"²⁵

Murray Ross distinguishes three functions for the professional social worker in community organization as a guide, as an enabler and as a therapist. In all these functions essentially social work methods are

²³ Murray Ross, *Community Organization Theory and Principles*, op cit., p. 39.

²⁴ Mildred Barry, "Community Organization Process", *Social Work Journal* (New York), October 1950, p. 157. For a similar definition, see also Berta Carreño de Ferreti, *Apuntes de Servicio Social Profesional*, op. cit., p. 147.

²⁵ Mildred Barry, "Assessment of Progress Made by Community Organization in Identifying Basic Concepts and Methods for Utilization in Social Work Education", *Community Organization in Social Work* (New York, Council on Social Work Education, 1956) p. 35.

used in helping the community which at any given time is the focus of attention to define its problems. This includes not imposing the worker's views or solutions, helping a community to overcome apathy, sometimes to express hostility as a prerequisite to positive feelings, so that they may work together on some segment of community life which they feel needs change, rather than the worker attempting to alter attitudes ahead of the community's willingness to face undesirable prejudices and practices; helping the community to gain confidence in its own abilities and find greater freedom to show initiative, even to learn by making mistakes; and to support it in this experience. This necessitates helping members of the community, whether it be local leaders or committee members, to experience satisfaction in group and inter-group relations and in co-operation to achieve desired goals. Thus in community work as in other social work a major tool is the skilled and deliberate use of relationship, with the social worker making conscious and controlled use of himself as a catalyst of more satisfying ways of living. This means that he must be as aware of himself, his motivations and the temptations to control and manipulate as the caseworker and group worker also need to be. In situations where there are highly structured public and voluntary agencies and co-ordinating machinery, the community organization worker will also require skill and experience in administration, finance, committee work, and planning and policy implementation.

"The worker helps the community meet its need. To do this he must know and understand the community and that part of it which he has authority to serve. He must also understand the nature of his own authority and that of his agency. He must know how to work with people, singly and in groups, and the purpose of his work with them. He wants to help solve community problems, not for an intangible 'community' but for people. He has goals and these include his desire for people to participate in doing, leading and decision making. He wants to help people and their informal and formal organizations get along well together. He wants to help society get what it wants and needs."²⁶

Social work functions in mobilising community action are also a part of community development, which as it is being practised empirically in various parts of the world is shedding further light on the actual processes of community life and how these may be used to help the community to change in ways which it itself desires. The social component of community development and the relations between social work and community development are analysed further in chapter IV. The point to be made at present is that social work with communities is based upon the same understanding of individual and group processes as casework and group work, though some of its working methods may be different and additional skills be needed.

COMMON ELEMENTS IN SOCIAL WORK METHOD

Large claims are made for social work by some of its practitioners. Sometimes these claims also seem to impinge on other professional terri-

²⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 35-36.

tories. For example those of the psychiatrist, psychologist, group therapist, sociologist and educationalist, all of whom make an essential contribution to the diagnosis and treatment of individual, group and community needs and mal-functioning. Social workers also draw upon some of the same body of knowledge as these other specialists and some of their working methods are the same. Social work makes substantial use of material drawn from the behavioural and social sciences and some of its methods are equally familiar, in different terminology to the educationalist, the psychiatrist and the sociologist, not to mention the good administrator. Its philosophy is synonymous with that of democracy; while its professional ethics do not differ greatly from those of other responsible professions entrusted with people's intimate affairs. It is also clear that some of social work's claims are a mixture of achievement with aspiration. These difficulties are well recognized by social workers themselves:

"Much of our knowledge is incomplete and probably always will be because of the nature of the phenomena with which we deal. Much of it is highly tentative and, as is true in all professional fields, a good part of it is borrowed and reshaped for use in our own field. There is no question at all about the need for better identification of the knowledge peculiar to social work, for expansion of that knowledge, and for utilization of the pertinent knowledge available from other disciplines".²⁷

It would be hard to maintain, as do some social workers, that social work is a science in its own right. To say this is, however, not to deny the contribution which its practitioners are making to the sciences of human behaviour, nor does it invalidate the claim of social work to have evolved distinctive working methods in the field of human relationships. Indeed it may well be that the social work view of man in his biological, physical, psychological and social aspects results in a synthesis of knowledge which of itself creates a "Gestalt" peculiar to social work. This knowledge may be comparatively elementary in any one of the social or behavioural sciences but the total synthesis results in an understanding of man and his social functioning, refined by constant practice, which is certainly not *elementary*. Even if social work is not a social science and if it shares some of its methods, its philosophy and its ethics with other professions this would not necessarily invalidate its claim to be a profession. The educationalist, for example, teaches subjects drawn from other disciplines, guided by principles and methods which are also shared with other professions; doctors, nurses and others who work within the field of medicine share certain common knowledge but are distinct professions. Indeed it would be truer to say that in the whole field of health, education and remedial social action and planning, the tendency is to draw varying measures and differing material from one vast and increasing pool of knowledge in medicine and the social and behavioural sciences and in using this knowledge to develop specific skills which yet may have something in common with one another.

Significantly, it begins to be accepted that some of the discoveries made by educationalists and social workers about how to work with

²⁷ Katherine Kendall, "Orthodoxy and Paradoxes: Dilemmas of Social Work Education", *Social Work* (New York), July 1956, p. 46.

people are needed by all the professions which deal closely with people — administration included. Narrow claims and jealous guarding of territory are slowly giving way in favour of this wider concept. As knowledge and skill increase, the tendency would seem to be for a core of professional practice to develop which is different in degree but not necessarily in kind from some of the whole gamut of practice in other allied professions. In the short span of less than a century social workers have steadily made good their claim to be skilled in helping people with problems of social and personal stress, and in motivating them to achieve more satisfying experiences in group and community living. Social workers may justly claim that while political philosophers and statesmen discussed methods of achieving good conditions of personal and social life (however interpreted) and while social scientists were analysing the causes of social impoverishment, social workers went into the heat of the battle and tried there to discover how to bring about personal, social and economic change for the better. Enough has been said already in this study to show that they have been far from ignoring either knowledge or philosophy and also that in the stress of the actual situation they have learnt a great deal, some of it unique to social work, about the actual processes of individual, group and community relationships and how these processes may be consciously used by the social worker to free individuals, groups or communities to live more happily. Enough has been said, too, to confirm the truth of Mary Richmond's words sixty years ago:

"The best that we know about helping the poor is only a tithe, we hope, of what the world is going to learn, but the first step in adding to the world's knowledge is to master her present store".²⁸

The "poor" have themselves grown to include not only the millions who lack the material necessities of life but also the millions more suffering from impoverishment of personal and social living.

The development of professional social work practice has gone furthest in casework but it is significant that as group and community processes are studied some principles and practices which emerge are in essence the same as those already well-established in casework.

"Casework, group work and community organization are not specialisations of social work but, rather, applications of social work skills in relation to individuals, groups and communities".²⁹

Some social workers would, however, contend that specialization in any one of the three methods is necessary for advanced, or even adequate, practice. The following selection from the principles of social work illustrates the emergence of basic concepts:

(a) Conscious furtherance by the worker of a relationship between himself and the client, deepening the bonds between members of a group or community, and use of this relationship by the worker to

²⁸ Quoted by Muriel Pumphrey, "The 'First-Step' — Mary Richmond's Earliest Professional Reading, 1889-91", *The Social Service Review* (Chicago), June 1957, p. 144.

²⁹ Philip van Praag, "Basic Concepts of Social Work", *International Social Work* (Bombay), January 1958, p. 8, and "Les principes de base du travail social", *Informations Sociales* (Paris), 11th year, No. 3, March 1957, p. 287.

bring about beneficial results for the individual, group or community, aimed at increasing their responsibility and their ability to deal with their problems and to take "open" rather than "closed" relationships, both within the complex of their own personalities and with others.

(b) Starting where the client is, with his problem as he sees it, or the group's immediate interest or the community's felt need—whether or not any one of these is the real need as the worker sees this.

(c) Involving the individual, group or community in identifying, delimiting and clarifying their problems or goals, in order that they may be helped to decide how to alleviate the problem or achieve the goal. This involves doing things with people rather than for them, and at their pace.

(d) Helping to partialise the problem where individual, group or community needs or problems seem overwhelming. This gives hope that something can be done about them as they are broken down into component parts and dealt with bit by bit with the worker's help. This serves to lower diffuse anxiety and the immobilizing effect of inertia.

(e) Recognizing hostile feelings as well as guilt and fear and affording the individual, group or community the opportunity to express these. It is often only after negative feelings have been expressed that individuals, groups or interrelated groups are able to move forward to deal constructively with their problems. At the same time, much skill may be needed to set limits to the overt expression of these feelings in destructive ways which would have further negative effects.

(f) Helping the individual, group or community to gain confidence through the worker's support, acceptance of necessary dependency, and giving of various forms of material help, if this is appropriate to the need and for the purpose of promoting or increasing initiative and capacity for self-help. The confidence which is gained from initial satisfying experience will give greater capacity to tolerate possible frustration or failure later.

(g) Helping the individual, group and community to become more aware of their own share in their problems or difficulties. The worker requires considerable skill to help in this way at the time and in the form in which people are able to accept such insight and to tolerate unpleasant reality. Individual, group or community defences and prejudices may often be too high to make more than limited insight of this kind possible. Skill then lies in trying to work constructively within these limits.

It is obvious that to be able to apply these and other concepts effectively in actual practice demands considerable and precise knowledge of human growth and behaviour, and of the social resources available to meet varied needs; for some workers it also calls for knowledge of social research method and of administration. This knowledge must usually be applied from some kind of base or organization — a social agency. It also has its related skills in transmuting knowledge into practice. Indeed, it is the particular skill in applying knowledge which constitutes the difficult and slowly acquired art of social work. It, like other professions, also has its professional ethics and a philosophy which calls for social action.

"To some extent social workers with training in one or another of the social sciences may learn to translate its knowledge into answers to social work questions. But probably to a far greater degree the social work task will be one of formulating and testing knowledge that grows out of social work operations and problems, and of developing that knowledge for general use within and without the profession."³⁰

The chief method by which this understanding of processes of problem solving and growth is put to use in social work is through the consciously controlled and purposive relationship which the social worker builds with the individual, group or community. In order that this relationship may develop, an initial rapport must be established between the two partners to the relationship. The first initiative may come from a client who goes to an agency seeking help or from the worker who seeks to start a group or to initiate and further a community project. In either event the relationship only begins and is carried on productively as the worker is able to convey that he understands the problem, has some ability to help with it, and feels "with" the person, group or community struggling with it.

"The worker demonstrates that he is at one with the client — that he is feeling, not *like* him but *with* him."³¹

This means that the social worker must have some warmth of personality, certainly liking and respect (even for the unliked and unrespected) to communicate to those whom he desires to help. It is this acceptance of people in virtue of their common humanity, belief in them and desire to help them as may be best for them which enables the social worker to use techniques to establish and sustain a healing relationship. This by itself, however, is not enough, for this is a different relationship from friendship or that induced by general good will, in that it must be allied to exact knowledge and to skill in using the relationship, that is to say it is a relationship in which the "authority of knowledge" and skill in motivating people to move forward in dealing with their difficulties is used to give the client confidence both in the worker's competence and in his own ability to deal with his problems. By this process of lessening anxieties, fears and hostility and by kind understanding, energies are freed to be used constructively instead of destructively towards the self and others. No human relationship is ever continuously of one texture, for there is always the ebb and flow of love and hate, of dependence and independence, of fear and aggression. The social worker is aware of these signs of ambivalence, which may be hidden from the individual or group themselves; he learns to work with these mixed feelings, as well as recognizing their existence in himself. There are also individuals, groups and communities which have been so badly damaged by extreme deprivation, rejection or ill-treatment that they either make overwhelming demands or else test out the social worker by trying to goad him into punishing actions which will prove that he rejects them as everyone else has done. In such

³⁰ A. Kahn, "The Nature of Social Work Knowledge", *New Directions in Social Work*, Cora Kasius, ed. (New York, Harper and Bros., 1954), p. 206.

³¹ Helen Harris Perlman, *Social Casework* (University of Chicago Press, 1957), p. 71.

cases it is only the most skilled and emotionally uninvolved social worker, well aware of what he is doing, who can tolerate this demand for love or demand for hate long enough for some trace of abatement and some gleam of self-understanding to appear.

The reverse side of the medal is the apathetic or submissive individual, group or community, almost unable to express any feeling, any desire for betterment or any initiative in working for change. Here the social worker's method is essentially the same, that is to say the steady offer of a good and dependable relationship by someone who is reliable, knowledgeable and able to help.

This social work relationship is neither vague in direction nor indefinite in duration. It is guided by the needs of the other partner to it, which obviously means that these needs must be accurately assessed and continually reassessed in the light of a changing situation. This involves the social worker's particular form of study, diagnosis and treatment. The first element in this is gathering the relevant facts about the person and his problem. In casework this will be done with the person in relation to his family and social setting but in group work or community organization there may need to be a quite prolonged study of the community, getting to know people and how they feel and react, becoming accepted and thought of as belonging before a social diagnosis can be reached. This latter is essentially an appraisal which seems consistent with all the available facts about the real nature of the problem. It is of course a commonplace that the problem as initially seen, or at least revealed to a social agency, may not be the real underlying problem. The next step after social diagnosis is planning and treatment, working with the client in ways which may be appropriate to ease the pressure of the problem, thus resolving some measure of conflict. This may include helping someone to seek and make effective use of medical care through lessening the emotional stress which this involves; helping an adolescent and his family with mounting tensions in their relationships; helping a husband and wife caught in a spiral of marital conflict; helping someone faced with incurable disease or disability to come to terms with this and to reorient his life. It may cover activities as diverse as helping an urban youth gang to find pleasurable ways of winning social acceptance, at the same time lessening their own sense of social ostracism, or helping a village to decide to try a new crop or to build a school. The stages of study, diagnosis and treatment are of course not necessarily separate in time, they will in fact overlap with each other all through, but they are separable elements in the practice of social work. The initial study must of course rest upon basic knowledge of human behaviour, the goals of human striving, and the nature of motivation as well as upon an accurate appraisal of particular individual or group or community structure, using such scientific concepts as economy of hypothesis, differential diagnosis and multiple causation. The treatment will flow from the initial diagnosis and the diagnosis itself may change in the light of response to treatment. For example, general knowledge about human reactions to stress-provoking situations will be used both to appraise particular reactions and to help the person or group suffering under them. Such initial help will cast further light on the nature of the problem and the person's degree of

ability to face his difficulties realistically and to respond to further help. It will thus assist in focusing the treatment goal or the objective towards which the individual group or community is capable of working. It is by so engaging people in problem solving that their constructive energies may be mobilised and group or inter-group tensions lessened, or that a group may gain confidence through achievement to move forward in meeting further tasks. This means that the social worker always aims to make himself dispensable in any given situation. His objective is to enable people to meet their problems of living for themselves, except in crisis situations which would otherwise be prolonged to a damaging extent, or until they have gained sufficient courage, sense of reality and confidence in themselves to face life without his help. When the club disintegrates after a worker leaves, or the community project is abandoned this indicates that the support was withdrawn too soon before people had gained enough confidence and the necessary ability to go on their own; or else that the worker had focused the work too much on himself, making himself indispensable and the people dependent upon him.

The professional social worker does not dispense a diffuse "welfare" service but directed professional help aimed at specific remedial aims. He, like the doctor, therefore terminates his services when they are no longer necessary. This may mean a comparatively short-term service, for reasonably normal people in stress-producing situations, partly in order to prevent them from suffering to such a degree that they may need much longer treatment at some later point in their lives, or do damage to others. Many individuals, groups or communities may be so maladjusted as to need steady support over a much longer period if they are to be saved from periodic breakdowns which can have disastrous consequences. It is also possible that some people, groups or communities may be so gravely damaged or functioning so inadequately as to need a social work service for an indefinite period if they are to be able to meet the demands of social living at all. This would be on a par with the need of the chronic sick or disabled for long-term medical care. Knowledge about, and appropriate use of, the available social welfare services and other community resources is of course an essential element in the practice of social work.

To describe what a well-qualified professional social worker is capable of doing, and the ways in which he would work, could present an unrealistic picture in relation to the situation in the world today in which large numbers of social workers occupy humble positions, and have neither the qualifications nor the opportunity to operate in the way described. Moreover, a skilled personal service to people suffering from social and emotional problems is only practicable on a limited scale in most countries. The point of real significance is that the possibility exists, given adequate training, of producing professional workers who will know why people react as they do in stressful situations and how they can be helped to surmount or live better with their problems. Furthermore, this knowledge and skill is not only useful in the direct treatment of disordered individuals but also to shed light on people's desires, needs and responses to agency policy and planning for social welfare. It is also essential to remember in all that has been

said that in many situations the major aim of the social worker must be to seek ways to alleviate acute economic need and to play a part in social action.

PROFESSIONAL ETHICS OF SOCIAL WORK

The attitudes and professional ethics of social work are inherent in much of what has been said already. Respect for the uniqueness of every human being and for his right to decide how he wishes to order his life, within the limits of other people's rights, are basic tenets of social work, though their expression may differ in different cultures.

It is easy to pay lip service to these tenets but really to practice them so that they become settled attitudes of mind makes tremendous demands. They run counter to much social prejudice about particular kinds of people, which is often not conscious; they demand a difficult exercise in distinguishing between a person and his unacceptable behaviour; and they call for a high degree of tolerance of ways of living and codes of morals which may be quite different from those to which the worker personally subscribes. Such tolerance is, however, furthered by a realization that people do not change unacceptable attitudes as a result of blame and exhortations to behave differently but only through the worker's understanding of the meaning of their behaviour to them, and through their experience of a relationship in which they are understood. In such circumstances changes may become possible to them. In addition to cultural attitudes of which the social worker must learn to become aware in himself as in others, there is need for an equally demanding self-awareness about personal likes and aversions. He must be aware of dislike of sick people or lazy people or aggressive people, people who cringe or boast or are casual or over-grateful. There are problems to face of over-identification with parents against children or vice versa; or with one group or community against another. There are subtle temptations to be the bountiful provider, the popular leader, the person to whom everyone turns for advice and help. There are immaturities and neurotic traits in the worker which may constitute him a risk as a professional worker and as a colleague in a social agency unless he is sufficiently aware of these to be able to control their damaging effects. In short, any form of social work demands by its nature a high degree of self-awareness, of capacity for "professional use of the self". It would be unrealistic to claim that it is sufficiently achieved but at least it is recognized as inherent in the nature of social work and therefore as an essential element in professional education.

Because social workers are deeply concerned with intimate and often painful details of people's lives they have a responsibility to respect the confidential nature of what they learn in the course of a professional relationship. This is a necessary corollary of their skill in helping people to talk about their problems. This knowledge should only be shared with other individuals, agencies or workers with the client's knowledge and for his benefit. This naturally places a like responsibility on colleagues, social agencies and committee members who may have access to confidential material (see also p. 28).

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF A PROFESSION
AS RELATED TO SOCIAL WORK

This brief analysis of the nature of social work raises the question of the degree to which it would be valid to claim that social work is on the way to becoming a profession. This should then throw some light on the necessary content of social work education.

The hallmarks of a profession, as distinct from a technical or craft occupation, are usually taken to be:

(a) A coherent, relevant and transmissible synthesis of knowledge in which general principles may be applied differentially in specific instances rather than by rule of thumb. This body of knowledge or theory must have a growing scientific basis. It must be "know why" as well as "know how". It must therefore be fed by further knowledge distilled from its own practice as well as from the relevant sciences and allied professions.

(b) Related skills — that is the application of the theory underlying the skill of general principles directed to specific ends by methods which are characteristic of the profession, and in furtherance of well-defined functions. This combination of knowledge and skill must be formulated and transmissible by educational devices in which the same methods commonly yield the same results — otherwise it is no more than an apprenticeship. This involves use of scientific method in continually adding to the body of theory on which practice rests and re-evaluating practice in the light of this, in order not to become sterile or hidebound by tradition.

(c) Attitudes — that is, professional as distinct from lay attitudes towards those who receive the professional service. This includes a regard for them and their interests and a commitment to use professional knowledge and skill on their behalf, irrespective of race, class, creed, politics or status; and even at personal inconvenience, rather than for personal aggrandisement. In social work, self-awareness is an essential element in professional attitudes.

(d) Professional ethics and philosophy. This includes the aims of the profession, for example, to heal the sick, to educate, to promote social welfare; its dedication to the public interest; and its ethical code of confidentiality, respect for the recipient and his rights; in short that which constitutes professional conduct. The basis of this self-regulation is that effective practice confers power and authority through fulfilment of a function, so that in the field in question the practitioner literally knows better than his clients and than workers in other fields. This professional power must be used responsibly to serve rather than to control or to manipulate. The origin and core of the professions is in dedication to serve, and in so doing to respect and co-operate with other professions which exist for the same purpose. "The social worker has the responsibility of choosing and applying techniques pertinent to her professional relationships with people."³²

(e) An organized group, indeed a professional sub-culture, based upon common membership of a profession in which knowledge, skills,

³² Article 20 of the French Code of Deontology, reproduced in *Informations Sociales* (Paris), vol. II, No. 2, February 1958, p. 34.

attitudes and philosophy are shared, in which common purposes are recognized and promoted, through professional associations and otherwise; and in which the obligation to advance the profession by group self-criticism, by research, study, teaching, evaluation of professional practice, and the responsibility to engage in social action are recognized.³³

Social work is generally accepted as a helping occupation; it also claims to be a partner in the healing professions whose aim is "to help effect the wholeness of man, his maximum growth as a man, his fullest flowering".³⁴ This total aim clearly involves the closest co-operation and team work between the different healing professions.

It would not be easy to establish that social work is yet possessed of all the attributes listed above. It does, however, claim to have made a good start in respect to those described under each heading and to be moving towards deepening and extending them; even though it still often seems to be unsure of its own identity as distinct from those of other professions. A social scientist puts the matter thus:

"It may therefore be argued that her [the social worker's] profession will become a learned one only as soon as it can be demonstrated precisely how behaviour and environment are related to each other; when this has been achieved, not only will the importance of the preventive functions of the social worker be immensely increased, but her capacity to add to the positive well-being of the communities she serves will be similarly enhanced. And, needless to say, her value as a member of the therapeutic team will then go unchallenged."³⁵

Discussions as to whether social work is or is not a profession often seem to imply that some sharp line divides the one from the other. In actual fact, there is a gradual progression rather than a dramatic change overnight. This process has naturally gone further in some countries than in others but the further it goes the more the element of universality appears, as knowledge, skill, attitudes and professional codes become transferable, that is capable of being taught and practised anywhere. This is so since

"as an occupation moves towards professional status, apprenticeship training yields to formalised education, because the function of theory as a groundwork for practice acquires increasing importance".³⁶

A profession as it develops takes increasing responsibility for accrediting its practitioners, and therefore *ipso facto*, for the professional education appropriate to prepare them for practice. It also often begins to urge the State to safeguard its members by registration or other devices designed to secure its professional status and to protect the public. In many situations this is desirable as a means of safeguarding clients, improving agency services, raising the level of social work

³³ See Swithun Bowers, "Social Work as a Helping and Healing Profession", *Social Work* (New York), January 1957, pp. 57-62.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 58.

³⁵ T. S. Simey, "Social Service as a Profession", *Social Service Quarterly* (London), Winter 1956, p. 113.

³⁶ Ernest Greenwood, "Attributes of a Profession", *Social Work* (New York), July 1957, p. 47.

practice, enhancing the prestige of social work and thus improving recruitment and training. If, however, registration is not to result in inflexibility and inertia, as well as reinforcing vested interests, it is important that the profession should have developed its body of theory, its research practices, its ethics and its attitude of self-criticism before particular qualifications confer a safeguarded professional status.

"There is here a difficult and delicate balance to be maintained. All of us who sincerely believe in the value of those things which this new profession has to offer to the community's ills and sorrows and to social betterment, must recognize the importance of combining freedom to develop with an orderly though not constricting framework in which to do so. This will only be achieved if it is realised that some forms of recognition, some forms of accrediting, some forms of curriculum planning, some professional practices, some employment policies, some types of professional association and over-all planning bodies might serve to clamp down rigid patterns in regard to training, professional standards, and employment upon this profession which so essentially needs to retain its delicate growing points. This would in the long run create a situation in which outside splinter groups would be formed and new needs and new developments would have little chance of recognition and assimilation within professional practice."³⁷

Maintaining this balance means affording social work the favourable climate in which it may develop its professional responsibilities in the various ways which have been indicated. This implies to some degree freedom from external controls, coupled with a sense of the importance of developing the self-regulating devices appropriate to a profession, which in themselves are a guarantee of sound practice.

"Professional work is never viewed solely as a means to an end; it is the end itself. Curing the ill, educating the young, advancing science, are values in themselves. The professional performs his services primarily for the psychic satisfactions and secondarily for the monetary compensations . . . It is this devotion to the work itself which imparts to professional activity the service orientation and the element of disinterestedness. Furthermore, the absorption in the work is not partial but complete; it results in a total personal involvement."³⁸

These professional standards are of vital importance because the healing professions handle highly confidential material about their clients' most intimate affairs; their right to seek this rests upon their intent to help; their success in obtaining and using it productively upon their professional skill. But if practitioners have a right to obtain such material in their clients' interest, then both they and their employing agencies have a duty to safeguard it, only to divulge it with the client's consent; and to ensure that records or other identifying material is not available to unauthorized persons. In well developed professions this means that there are social roles and social expectations in relation to the members of the profession.

³⁷ Eileen Younghusband, "An English View of the Hollis-Taylor Report", *Social Work Journal* (New York), July 1952, p. 139.

³⁸ Ernest Greenwood, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

“Thus professional workers do not contract to perform specific tasks, they undertake to serve their clients to the best of their ability; a doctor does not guarantee his patients’ health, a teacher does not promise scholarships for his pupils, and a barrister is forbidden to base his fees on the success of his pleading. In return, clients are expected to trust their professional advisers and to give them specific privileges: patients permit their doctors to make physical examinations which would be outrageous if permitted to anyone else, parents give teachers powers of punishment over their children which they would deny to others . . .”³⁹

Similarly, the professional social worker probes the client’s personal and social problems with his co-operation in order to help him to resolve or lessen these.

In this respect, as in others, social work practice does not exist in a vacuum. It is dependent for opportunities for such practice upon social agencies which are themselves means of putting knowledge to use through the purposes for which the agency exists and the means by which it carries these into effect. Social work, like other professions, is also dependent upon appropriate educational institutions and its own self-regulating professional associations; as well as upon the support and co-operation of allied professions. Above and beyond this, it, like other professions, requires the confidence of its clients in its ability, and recognition by society that its purposes are good, its practices competent and its development worth furthering because of its proven contribution to social well-being. In short, the progressive improvement of professional performance is dependent upon increasing knowledge in the background and methods subjects; good education in the theory and practice of social work; the chance in employing agencies to practice and deepen professional skills; the development of professional associations which aim to further the growth of the profession rather than to engage in rivalries and restrictive practices; and, finally, community recognition. This all points to the need for a defined role in society, professional status, and professional respect by colleagues, employing agencies and others.

At present these are often lacking, so far as social workers are concerned (see also pp. 30 and 66-73). This lack of status is reflected in poor salaries and poor promotion prospects, which in a number of countries in turn have adverse effects on recruitment, and which also have unfortunate repercussions on both the length and the quality of training for social work. In the long run, however, the development of this comparatively new partner in the healing professions can only come as a result of steadily building a body of tested knowledge. This will result from better social work education, more research, the extension of the theoretical basis of practice, better use of social workers and clarification of their functions, effective and responsible professional associations, and improved status in the community. It seems important to stress this total climate of a profession before going on to consider social work education as such. It is only, however, in the

³⁹ David Donnison, “The Social Work Profession”, *Case Conference* (London), July 1956, pp. 63-64.

light of this educational analysis that further light will be cast on the claim of social workers that, given the professional education which is now possible and the chance to use it, they may begin to qualify as members of a recognizable profession.

CHAPTER III

THE FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK

TRENDS IN THE EMPLOYMENT OF SOCIAL WORKERS

No actual figures are available to throw light on trends in the demand for qualified social workers, or the range of public and voluntary services and industrial undertakings in which they are being employed. Even if such figures could be obtained, they would probably be misleading in the absence of any agreement, even within a country, about the jobs which should be filled by trained social workers. Some functions, particularly in family and child welfare, are well recognized as falling within the orbit of social work, but beyond this quite considerable variations exist in different countries, even in different agencies, as to what is regarded as essentially a social work function. There is also in some countries a hidden demand in that, because of an extreme shortage of social workers, posts to which they would otherwise be appointed are filled by persons with other or no qualifications.

Nonetheless, even in the absence of any precise information, several valid generalizations can be made. Modern social welfare provisions as it is extending rapidly all over the world is based to an increasing extent upon the assumption that people do not only need specific goods or services but also skilled help to enable them to regulate their lives and their affairs more successively in spite of, and in order to lessen, constricting social circumstances and personality difficulties. This requires social planning, administration and practice based upon the application of a rapidly expanding body of knowledge from the behavioural and social sciences. One effect of this is that social workers, who have often been amongst the lowlier members of an administrative hierarchy, are now beginning to take part in administration and planning. This is happening because their direct contact with many kinds of people in need gives them knowledge and experience which is valuable in various situations. Thus they are being used as members of medical, psychiatric, community development, delinquency and other teams for treatment, prevention and operational research. Their direct knowledge based on practice is, however, not enough. They are only able to make an effective contribution where they have had a thorough training in the behavioural and social sciences and administration, and in the application of the appropriate parts of this knowledge through social work methodology. And where members of allied professions also share a common body of knowledge about human behaviour.

A better understanding of the social worker's ability to work constructively with people is also leading in many countries to an expanding range of social work appointments, often in services where untrained

people have previously been employed, or else in newly created social work appointments, particularly in new services or pioneer projects. It would probably be true to say that this is taking place mainly where the service covers points of incipient or actual crisis or friction, whether in the life situation of an individual, in his relations with society, or in group or inter-group relationships. In situations where a range of services exist, social workers may play a major part in helping people to use services effectively. In other situations the social worker's activities may be directed to trying to secure almost non-existent resources for people who need help. There are, however, other situations in group work and community development and organization, where social workers may be employed to bring about positive improvements rather than to heal damage caused by crises and social breakdowns.

An improvement in the status of social workers follows as a corollary of the changing attitudes to their function. The old idea that social workers are 'do gooders' who think they know what is best for other people and intend to force it upon them dies hard. Yet it is often trained social workers themselves who make the greatest efforts to change such attitudes and practices in the administration of social agencies. It is also important to recognize that professional training and professional ethics based upon respect for people and their freedom of choice are safeguards against a judgmental, or authoritarian approach.

The upshot of the various developments indicated above seems to be an expansion in demand for social workers which in many countries far outstrips supply. This is the experience of most countries which employ social workers and where there are schools of social work. The experience of various countries in expanding their social welfare provision also indicates that there are tasks awaiting social workers over the horizon of today's possibilities. There is, for example, an urgent need for better understanding and remedial skills in work with social problem groups, whether by the use of the methods of casework, group work or community organization, for treatment and preventive action. Indeed to increase group work and community organization skills is probably one of the most urgent tasks confronting the profession of social work and the other related professions and sciences. Expanding social welfare provisions urgently requires such skills, which are now indeed beginning to emerge, largely on an empirical basis.

Because social work is more closely rooted than perhaps any other profession in the social culture of a given country, the ways in which social workers are used will largely depend upon socially recognized needs and accepted means of meeting these. Past history will also play its part in present practice. These factors account to some extent for the markedly different attitudes towards the status and employment of trained social workers in different countries. It is of course essential to take these into account in curriculum planning and in transferring teaching methods and material from one culture to another. It is also important to remember that differences in the range and nature of social work in different countries may in addition be due to prevailing attitudes about appropriate methods of administering services. These may result in failure to recognize fully the range of social and personal problems which could be alleviated by social work methods. This is to be

expected in situations where there has been no opportunity to experience the contribution to social welfare of well-qualified and appropriately employed social workers. This applies not only to countries as a whole but also to uneven developments in different social welfare services within the same country. The accepted function of social workers and the nature of social work education in any given country will also be deeply influenced by levels of basic education as well as by attitudes towards the employment of women and by political, economic and religious views in the country concerned.

The analysis of social work given in the first International Survey of Training for Social Work has been generally accepted and widely quoted. It runs as follows:

“Social work as it is actually carried on has certain very general characteristics in all countries:

“1. It is a helping activity, designed to give assistance in respect of problems that prevent individuals, families and groups from achieving a minimum desirable standard of social and economic well-being.

“2. It is a social activity, carried on not for personal profit by private practitioners but under the auspices of organizations, governmental or non-governmental or both, established for the benefit of members of the community regarded as requiring assistance.

“3. It is a liaison activity, through which disadvantaged individuals, families and groups may tap all the resources in the community available to meet their unsatisfied needs. . . .”¹

Even though in many countries social service has progressed beyond almsgiving in the literal sense, yet it is still common to find the social worker regarded as someone who arranges services of various kinds, who does things for those in need of such services and provides various material necessities. On this view, in-service training or even “learning on the job” could be as effective as professional education. Where, however, the social worker is seen as someone with considerable knowledge about human behaviour and reactions to stress, coupled with a specialized ability to help people, then this professional service is accepted as constituting the social work function.

It is only when social work begins to be recognized as a professional service in its own right, though offered from within the boundaries of social agencies, that full support is likely to be given to schools of social work. The schools themselves are dependent upon social agencies for the supervised field work which constitutes an essential element in training. They are also dependent upon social welfare agencies and members of related professions to help them to clarify the nature of social work, to deepen and improve the training of social work students, and to provide opportunities for social research.

THE RANGE OF EMPLOYMENT OF SOCIAL WORKERS

The development of social work in any given country seems to pass through three definable stages. At the first stage the primary need is

¹ *Training for Social Work: An International Survey* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1950.IV.II, pp. 13-15.

for general purpose community or social workers able to use all three social work methods of working with individuals, groups and communities. There is also from the first a need for highly qualified and experienced social workers able to play their part in social planning and policy formation, as well as in helping to frame specific social legislation. At the second stage, more specialized services begin to emerge, whether provided by voluntary effort or from public funds. These services tend to concentrate on some particular need, for example, within the broad field of health or social assistance or delinquency. There is a danger that if this process goes too far fragmentation may occur, with the focus on specific handicaps (economic, social, psychological or physical) rather than on the over-all needs of persons in their family and social settings who suffer from these disabilities. This also results in a tendency to confuse a narrowly specialized service with deeper skill. At the third stage of social welfare provision—and thus the employment of social workers—the trend is towards providing services with a wide coverage but well integrated with each other so that personal and social needs rather than the symptoms of breakdown may be taken into account, while at the same time more highly skilled services are provided for those who require them. This pattern, which has long been accepted in advanced provision of health and education services, is creating a demand in many countries for well-qualified “general purpose” social workers able to use their skill in a variety of settings. The need is already becoming apparent for more advanced training after several years’ experience in practice, for example in the field of delinquency, mental illness or child welfare, as well as in social research, community organization, administration and social work teaching. There is, however, a well marked trend towards general social work education at the basic learning stage, followed by some degree of “specialization by experience” and, where the facilities exist, by more advanced (though not necessarily specialized) training at a later stage.

The total range of employment of social workers is divisible according to the particular service offered by the employing agency, or else into general categories, that is to say, direct practice, preventive action (direct or indirect and often combined with practice) administration, social action, and the educational and administrative functions of consultation, supervision, teaching and research.

Direct practice

Direct practice with individuals, groups or communities is naturally the point at which the largest number of social workers is employed. It is also the base on which the whole pyramid should rest, if it is accepted that the exercise of wider functions should be conditional upon experience gained in direct practice of social work with individuals, groups or communities.

As was said earlier, family and child welfare services probably still constitute the most widely accepted field of direct social work practice. Social workers are also employed to an increasing extent in public assistance and social security services, in medical social work (whether in hospitals, clinics or field services), in the rehabilitation of the severely handicapped, in child guidance clinics and mental hospitals and

sometimes in the community care of mentally defective or mentally disordered people, in services for old people, in probation or other services for social defence (including prostitution, alcoholism, and children in moral danger), and in work with potentially or actually homeless or displaced people (including refugees). Social workers are employed in group work with children, adolescents, adults and old people; as well as in settlements and other forms of neighbourhood work, in holiday camps and a wide range of other social and recreational activities.

Group work is being enriched by the deeper knowledge of group process and the releasing effects of group discussion and participation which is coming to it from group therapy, as well as by the work being done by group work teachers and practitioners in North America. It is being used in children's homes, old people's homes, in mental hospitals and prisons, as well as in work with groups of delinquents, parents, young married couples, tenants on housing estates, and in many other situations where group discussion under skilled leadership may help to resolve problems, lessen fears, anxieties and tensions more effectively and produce a greater feeling of confidence and "belonging" than could be achieved through individual casework or psychotherapy. It is also being used in a wide variety of community situations to develop local leadership and to further social change and cohesion.

Administration

There is of course an element of administration in the work of all practitioners in social agencies. It is not unusual to find senior social workers with responsibility for the administration of, for example, the social service department of a hospital or as executive secretary of a voluntary social welfare agency. It is, however, rare to find professional social workers occupying high administrative positions in public social welfare services. Such positions are usually held by persons with a legal or other university qualification. The reasons for this are said to be the lowly status still accorded to social work as a member of the professions; together with the fact that in many countries social workers do not hold a university degree; and that professionally qualified social workers tend to be women, while most senior administrators are men. It is also said that many social workers are reluctant to forsake practice for administration, and that their concentration on individual need often makes them poor administrators. The result is that "in many situations, social workers are still only employed to render direct services to individuals while senior administrative posts involving direction of their work are occupied by officials without professional equipment or understanding."² At the present day administration is ceasing to be regarded as a rigid hierarchical structure within which decisions are made and orders carried out. The practice of administration is at its best an art; it is now to an increasing extent also based upon the application of science, one of its major purposes is to enable various individuals and groups with different functions to work together effectively in planning and implementing the purposes of the agency. Social workers, like members of other professions, require training and

²"Report of United Nations Meeting of Experts on Social Work Training, Munich, 28 July-1 August 1956", p. 4. (Working Paper No. 3).

practice if they are to become competent administrators. Given this, their knowledge of working with people, of lowering tensions and improving relationships could be used in the administration of social agencies, as well as in direct service to clients. At the same time, it must be recognized that some first-rate social workers prefer to remain in direct practice. They should be given recognition and status, even though they do not wish to climb an administrative ladder.

Part of the failure of social workers to make their appropriate contribution in administration no doubt arises from failure to attract candidates with potential administrative abilities to schools of social work, as well as from lack of sufficient opportunity later. This, however, is a vicious circle because such candidates are only attracted to the career where adequate promotion prospects exist. It would often be inappropriate to teach in detail about more complex administrative processes at the initial training level. Young students who will normally become field workers on qualification cannot put to use at this stage knowledge and abilities which they would not be called upon to use for some years to come. Yet there is an almost complete lack in most countries of more advanced courses for administrators in which social workers can both learn about and contribute to the study of administration. No doubt the inadequate and overstretched resources of schools of social work partly account for this situation by hindering them from playing their part in the study and teaching of this subject at a more advanced level.

In spite of this limited employment of social workers as administrators of social welfare services, a trend may be noted to employ them as advisers and consultants in such services, that is to say, in a professional rather than administrative capacity. In this capacity their advice may be sought as to how and where social workers should be employed; and they may also be consulted about social policy and planning, as well as various aspects of the day to day operation of the service. Social workers holding such key positions may also have an important liaison function with schools of social work. They may indeed act as inter-ferers to the school of the realities of employment in relation to the school curriculum, while they may bring home to the service concerned the importance of co-operating with schools of social work as a means of raising the level of training and subsequent practice. Social workers employed in this way are to be found in Ministries of Social Welfare, Justice and Health, as well as in operative services.

Social planning, policy making and prevention

It is of course impossible to draw any hard and fast line between the employment of social workers as administrators and consultants and their use in social planning and policy formation. It has certainly become more common in recent years to find social workers as members of appropriate government committees of enquiry, advisory committees and planning boards. Professional associations of social workers are also active in presenting evidence to such bodies and in expressing views on the need for social action in relation to particular social and economic problems. It is perhaps in those countries where social wel-

fare provision is newly developing that social workers are being given their best opportunity to contribute to policy formation and planning. In such situations they are often called upon to draw up a programme of social welfare provision in a particular field, to draft suitable legislation or to occupy senior positions as chief welfare officers and the like. Where this is happening, it seems likely that it will continue to be assumed that professional social workers should take their place with members of other professions, health, education and the law for example, in forming and executing social policy. This is further reinforced by a tendency in these countries to send certain of the best available people for social work training overseas while the provision in the country is at a preliminary stage. At a further point of development graduate schools of social work are started, which then take their place alongside other graduate professional schools of the university.

Professional social workers with wide experience are also employed by the United Nations and by a variety of national and international non-governmental organizations to act as consultants on various aspects of social welfare to countries which request this type of technical assistance. The experience so gained is helping to improve the qualifications and status of social workers, nationally as well as internationally.

Social workers are barely beginning to play their part in planning services and policies which might prevent certain social or personal ills from arising. They themselves are perhaps insufficiently aware of their obligation to relate their experience of the needs of individual clients to better social welfare provision. Even so, they often draw attention to points at which earlier preventive action, better co-operation between agencies or professions, or less rigid administrative practices might lessen the need for a costly individual remedial or rehabilitation service. From this same angle of preventive action, it may be suggested that the contribution which social workers might make to education for other professions is as yet insufficiently explored. In all the educational, helping and healing professions there is a need to understand human responses and motivation as a necessary element in good professional practice. This lies at the heart of social work, and social work knowledge could be used by other professions as an important preventive measure, particularly in regard to the stress and frustration experienced in certain critical life situations in which other professional practitioners may be rendering service.

Social work education, supervision and research

There is a shortage in every country of social workers qualified to supervise students and agency staff. This is perhaps partly because, outside North America, the use for supervision as a field teaching device has only begun to be recognized within the last decade or so. Now, however, this shortage is accepted as being a chief obstacle to expanding or raising the level of training. This situation will be discussed from various angles at different points in this present study.

The number of well-qualified social work educators is also unequal to the demand. This sometimes results in persons with other qualifica-

tions being appointed as directors of schools of social work. It also means that there is a universal shortage of social workers adequately qualified to teach the methods subjects in schools of social work, to direct the field work and to take their share in in-service training courses. The result is that existing teachers are overworked and have too little time to prepare their courses, to keep up-to-date with the literature, to be sufficiently conversant with developments in social welfare, and to contribute to social research.

The charge is often levied at social workers that they are not intellectually curious and that they neglect the demands of social research. This is partly accounted for by their heavy work loads and by the absence of research units in most social welfare agencies. It is, however, becoming more usual to employ a social worker as a member of an operational social research team, or in pioneer projects and pilot programmes which have a research element in them.

The employment of social workers in institutional settings

As has already been said, general and mental hospitals are a well-defined setting for the employment of social workers. Usually these are caseworkers, though in some countries group workers are also employed, usually to run various social groups for patients, and sometimes to conduct group discussions with a therapeutic aim. Appointments are also beginning to be made in institutions for the industrial and personal rehabilitation of disabled persons.

In a few countries social workers have been appointed to prisons to work with individual prisoners and their families, that is in effect to provide a casework service. Similar appointments exist in institutions for young delinquents, whether children or adults. The aim would seem to be to provide an individual social treatment service (often in conjunction with a psychiatrist and psychologist) and to undertake casework with the family to improve relationships, and thus to alter the dynamics of the family group, as a preliminary to the child's return. Similar appointments exist in institutions for emotionally disturbed or physically handicapped children or children deprived of a normal home life. Some group work appointments have also been made in institutions for delinquents, as well as those for children.

A few directors of children's institutions and of penal institutions are social workers. However, they are usually appointed at a fairly low level in an administrative hierarchy. Sometimes the roles of the social worker and the resident staff are not clearly defined. When this is so there may be confusion of aims in relation to clients. There are also situations in which the social worker, not having been well integrated with the whole operation of the institution, tends to become a welfare extra or "frill", with various minor administrative, social and recreational responsibilities. The time has not yet arrived when social workers are drawn into consultation about the total social and psychological milieu of the institution in question, from the point of view of improved human relationships amongst both the staff and the persons using the institution.

"To give an example of this, the social worker's part in helping individual patients in hospitals is well accepted: the contribution she might make in planning and implementing hospital policy is less recognized. Similar considerations apply to the use of social workers as experts on human relations in such other settings as prisons and industrial or other large scale undertakings."³

When social workers are very much better grounded in psychology and sociology than they usually are at present and when they have more skill in working with groups as well as individuals, they should be in a position to make a major contribution as consultants on the social aspects of institutional care. Their membership of the institutional team may also include playing a part in the in-service training of other staff.

Social work for personnel in large undertakings

In some countries social work for personnel employed in industry, offices, hospitals or other large establishments is well recognized and may indeed be one of the chief avenues of employment for social workers.⁴ In other countries it is not customary to employ social workers in this way. There are also quite substantial differences in points of view as to whether the practice of social work as such can be suitably carried on within an industrial enterprise. The result is that those who are variously called industrial social workers, personnel social workers, labour officers and the like may sometimes be trained in schools of social work with field work placements in industrial undertakings, and with special courses on industrial legislation, the economics of industry, collective bargaining, industrial relations and so forth. Alternatively, in some countries the rapid growth of knowledge about industrial relations and group process and tensions in industry, the social culture of factories, and methods of personnel selection, training, placement and dismissal, is leading to the employment of persons with specific training in the use of this knowledge, sometimes after a basic training in psychology or sociology.

Thus although the picture may be reasonably clear in any one country as regards the employment of personnel social workers in industry, it is highly diffuse if viewed internationally.

"If one must define the particular role of the social worker in the human relations team, we think that the social worker should be the one to establish direct social contact with individuals, groups and organizations. The particular techniques would be to maintain personal relationships, to give counsel, to use the techniques appropriate to groups, and to orient in social matters workers in responsible positions."⁵

³ "Report of United Nations Meeting of Experts on Social Work Training, Munich . . ." *op. cit.*, p. 4.

⁴ For a discussion of some of the issues involved, see "Report of the International Study Group on the Function and Working Methods of Personnel Social Work", *International Social Work* (Bombay), October 1958, pp. 16-20.

⁵ M. Witvrouw, "Professional Preparation of Personnel for Social Work in Industry and the Public Services", *International Social Work* (Bombay), January 1958, p. 12.

Apart from the debated issue of whether or not it is desirable that social workers should be employed in industry, personnel work is one of the many points at which various more or less parallel groups of professional or quasi-professional workers are emerging, using skills based upon the application of psychology and sociology for a range of purposes in various group settings. There seems no reason to think that these divergent trends will not continue for some time to come. It is, however, regrettable that the schools of social work are usually too hard-pressed in other directions to absorb and use this body of knowledge and emerging skill, so that separate professional practices grow up which do not benefit from nor add their quota to the quite substantial body of social work knowledge about working with people.

RESIDENTIAL STAFFS AND SOCIAL WORK

Essentially the same diffuse situation exists so far as the qualifications of residential staff of children's institutions, institutions for various types of disadvantaged or dependent or handicapped people, and reformatory penal institutions are concerned. Historically speaking, such staffs (other than specialists and technicians) carried out an almost wholly custodial function. When, however, such concepts as "making a substitute home" (for example for children or old or disabled people) or "reformatory training and character building" in penal institutions began to creep in fundamental changes became inevitable in the planning and regime of such institutions and in the qualities and qualifications of the staff. If these new aims were to be achieved, then the question of how this was to be done became more and more insistent.⁶ In the deliberately created artificial conditions of a residential community it was, for example, little good to aim to build character without having any idea how character is built.

Moreover, studies in recent years have shown that some institutions so far from doing good may actually do positive harm unless their operation is based upon application of knowledge about human development and the basic human needs. For example, Dr. John Bowlby's studies of the effects on small children of maternal separation have made a profound impact on the whole operation of children's institutions.⁷ The trend is thus towards doing away with the large institution, even if this takes the form of grouped cottages, in favour of small units which can more easily become part of the local community. Even where large institutions must be retained, great efforts are made to give one staff member continuing responsibility for a small group of children. The same trend towards working through a sustained relationship may be noted in penal institutions for young people and to a lesser extent in those for adults. There is also a well defined move towards maintaining and strengthening family relationships through social work with the family and through encouraging the family members to keep in touch with the resident in the institution. Attempts to

⁶ For example see *European Exchange Plan Seminar on the Institutional Treatment of Juvenile Offenders*, United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1955.IV.13.

⁷ See John Bowlby, *Maternal Care and Mental Health*. Geneva, World Health Organization, 1951.

take part in the life of the local community and to bring it into the institution are also part of the endeavour to enhance rather than severing the connections between the residents, the staff and the life of society.

These changed objectives have naturally focused attention on the need for staff with good personal qualities and considerable knowledge and skill. It is little use to have high ideals for the social and personal rehabilitation of severely damaged people if in fact the resources available are quite inadequate to achieve the desired results. The essential requirement, in the context of the present discussion, is emerging as a need for staff members who are able to work harmoniously together for a common purpose and to make and sustain a therapeutic relationship with a small group of residents. Much devoted work is being done by large numbers of such staff in many institutions all over the world. The demands on them, already considerable, will go on increasing as more knowledge makes greater skill possible. It is also becoming clear that general trends towards foster home placement, probation, and skilled services in their own homes, for the old, the physically and mentally handicapped or disturbed, result in institutions being filled with a higher proportion of the most sick (whatever its form) members of the particular category. This places a heavier burden on the staff to accept and meet the demands of a higher proportion of immature, dependent, demanding, regressed, disoriented, senile, neurotic or even psychotic people. Though many "untreatable" people may be cared for in institutions there is also a marked development in the use of institutions as a form of social treatment rather than for last resort, restraint and custody.⁸

The situation itself thus demands an increasingly high level of training, including the development of a considerable measure of self-awareness, and of attitudes which make possible a combination of warmth and objectivity. Yet by and large in most countries the status of institutional staffs is low, the salaries poor and the life as lonely and isolated for the staff as for the residents. Part of the problem is thus to recruit sufficient candidates of sufficient calibre and to give them a training of a sufficient length and standard, when in view of the acute staff shortages in many countries almost anyone can get a job of this kind. There is of course a vicious circle here, because it is only possible to raise the status of this work in proportion as training and a high standard of skill can be required. The general dislike of residential work is another obstacle to recruitment. Attempts are being made to meet this in some countries by giving students a training which would equip them for both residential and non-residential work, so that they may transfer from one to the other during their career.

Training for staffs of residential institutions, house parents, house masters, "group leaders" and the like is unevenly developed and tends to be specialized, in that there is almost no common training for various forms of institutional care. Training for work in children's institutions exists in a number of European countries and elsewhere.

⁸ See for example, World Health Organization, *Expert Committee on Psychiatric Nursing*. First Report. Geneva, 1956 (WHO Technical Report Series No. 105).

This training is either given in *ad hoc* courses or educational institutions or in schools of social work. There is no measure of agreement as to whether the functions under discussion fall primarily within the field of education or primarily within the field of social work.

“ . . . The question ‘How can this field be defined so that it will fit within the general theoretical framework of social work practice or of education?’ is important. We have to face the fact that if institutional care seeks to-day the help of established schools in social work or in education it will have to be prepared to answer questions like: ‘What is the rationale for investing professional efforts in this field?’ or ‘What contributions can be expected in exploring the practice in residential care to the concept and theory of social work of education?’ ”⁹

At the present time there is a considerable measure of agreement that this training necessarily involves a substantial amount of study of child development, including the effects of deprivation and the various manifestations of deviance; it also involves an understanding of community patterns and resources, as well as of group relationships. This latter is particularly necessary in regard to the grouping of children, to their activities; and also to problems of staff relationships, which often present a major obstacle to good conditions in institutional work. There is also agreement that the staff should be able to plan and participate in a variety of leisure time activities for the residents. There is less agreement as to whether they should also have some training in home economics and be required to cater, cook, do the housework and the sewing.

An understanding of personality development and functioning, of motivation and of the dynamics of family and group life is basic to modern concepts of institutional care, which aim at social rehabilitation and the better personality development of the residents. This indicates a large measure of social work content in the equipment of such staff, and thus that social workers trained in the basic social work methods of casework and group work would often be well qualified for employment as directors or in a direct small group relationship in these various forms of institutional care.¹⁰ The general shortage of social workers, as well as questions of poor salaries prospects and status, probably account for the meagre developments so far, and the failure of almost all schools of social work to co-operate with psychologists, psychiatrists and educationalists in undertaking some of the fundamental studies necessary to incorporate knowledge from this field with basic social work practice.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT

During recent years a form of community work having different aspects and called by various titles has begun to emerge.

⁹ A. Hofer, “Training in Relation to Social Work”, *European Seminar on Training of Personnel for Children’s Institutions* (United Nations, UN/TAA/SEM/1956/Rep. 3), p. 117.

¹⁰ *The Institutional Care of Children*, United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1956.IV.6.

"The term 'community development' has been used to describe efforts to help communities in less developed countries; the term 'community organization' to label attempts to plan welfare services in North American communities; and some such term as 'community relations' to identify efforts of an organization, agency or industry to participate in the life of the community in which it is located. But careful analysis suggests that a similar, if not identical, approach is frequently found in these three rather different settings. . . . It is surely not the setting (India or America) or the content (agriculture or welfare) that determines the nature of the community organization process; this process exists as a distinct pattern of work which can be utilized in a wide variety of settings to deal with any one of a number of problems."¹¹

The social element in community development will be discussed in greater detail in chapter IV. It will suffice to say here that schools of social work are likely to play a bigger role as time goes on in training for work with communities. There is also an expanding demand for social workers either as field workers or at the district level or as consultants and trainers.

The following quotation from the report of the Community Development Section of the United Nations Asia and Far East Seminar on Training for Community Development and Social Work sums up thus the contribution of social welfare services in community development:

These "although defined and developed in many varied forms throughout the world included a basic core of activities which made a significant contribution to community development. This basic core of activities includes assistance to families in solving both economic and social problems; improving the status of women and youth where required and obtaining their fuller participation in community life; strengthening family relationship by promoting child welfare and facilitating adjustments to rapid social changes; helping individuals or groups in need of special care (physically or mentally handicapped, the aged, the infirm and the children requiring special attention); assisting the community as a whole to understand and meet its own social problems through social survey and social work research followed by organized community action. Social workers, like health or home economics workers and teachers, were in direct contact at the local level with families, individuals and local leaders."¹²

Community organization is almost confined to North America as a systematic field of training and practice. Nonetheless, social workers are employed in a number of countries as executive directors of local or national councils of social service and in a variety of other capacities in which considerable skill is required in working with a community, in identifying and interpreting social needs and in helping groups of individuals and agencies to work together. This is, however, an aspect

¹¹ Murray Ross, *Community Organization: Theory and Principles* (New York, Harper and Bros., 1955), pp. xiii-xiv.

¹² *United Nations Asia and the Far East Seminar on Training for Community Development and Social Work, Lahore, West Pakistan, 9-20 December 1957* (TAA/AFE/4), p. 26.

of social work practice in which there is a serious lack of formulated principles, of case material and of opportunities for advanced study and consultation.

THE MOST EFFECTIVE USE OF SOCIAL WORKERS:
THE NEED FOR GOOD EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES

The extreme shortage of well-qualified workers should lead to their most economical and effective employment, both individually and as members of a professional team. This requires job analyses in which professional social work functions are isolated from tasks which require less or different skills.

The contested issue of the employment and training of auxiliary workers for some of these activities is discussed in chapter VI. The issues perhaps become less debatable if the term "auxiliary" is applied to functions rather than persons. It is undoubtedly wasteful to use very scarce professional workers to carry out duties auxiliary to their main function and the skill they have acquired in fulfilling it. It is this which has led in many instances to the appointment of social aids, welfare assistants and the like to act as auxiliaries to fully qualified social workers, working under their direction:

- (i) To undertake receptionist duties and to do some initial and other interviews where information or a service is required but not social diagnosis or treatment.
- (ii) To make various arrangements for clients.
- (iii) To undertake straightforward "welfare" visiting where greater skill is not required.
- (iv) To take responsibility for various administrative procedures.
- (v) To undertake play group and other allied activities.

All the above involve a "social work approach" in understanding and allowing for people's feelings, as well as simple interviewing skill. They do not, however, call for social work skill. These functions may of course all be vested in the same person or divided between more than one, or between paid and voluntary workers.

If skilled social workers are to be economically used they should also be given sufficient clerical help for recording, correspondence, filing and the like. They also require telephones for their many contacts with other agencies, where these are used in the agency concerned. The need to visit their clients at times convenient to these or to exercise other social work functions in the community means that they cannot necessarily observe office hours. They may also require to have their own means of transport where public transport would make it difficult or impossible for them to do their work with individuals, groups or communities.

In many countries as training for social work develops it is felt that there is a strong case for protecting the rights of qualified workers. This may be done by confining the title of "social worker" to those with a recognized qualification; by requiring that certain specified posts

shall be filled only by such workers; and by paying higher salaries to trained than to untrained workers.

In addition to various auxiliaries working under their direction, it is desirable that social workers should be able to consult other professional workers or else to work as a member of a team with these. They should work co-operatively with doctors, teachers, home economists, public health nurses, psychologists, sociologists, administrators and other allied professions, and be able to consult with psychiatrists about mentally disturbed clients. This team work, which is so significant a development in modern practice, makes it essential that each member of the team should know what is within the professional competence of the rest and should have sufficient knowledge to co-operate with efficiency and respect. The particular synthesis of knowledge and skill required of social workers should make them expert in personal social relationships and the use of community resources. It follows that professional social work decisions should always be made by social workers rather than by members of another profession or by administrators.

The successful after career of newly qualified social workers depends largely on the degree of support and the opportunities for further learning in their first jobs. The skill which has begun to develop at the student stage can be all too easily dissipated unless new workers are placed under experienced and sympathetic senior workers who will help them to consolidate this skill and to learn good agency practices. Loneliness, lack of understanding, overwhelmingly difficult tasks, and lack of supporting help are common causes of failure on the first job.

It is general in social work to find poor salaries, poor promotion prospects and lack of status. All these have adverse effects on recruitment, as well as sometimes causing experienced social workers to change to another career at a point when they should be able to give their best service. The poor salaries and very limited avenues of promotion in some countries are a major deterrent to men. These seem to be relics of an era when young women social workers lived at home and were partially supported by their families; and when in any event they only expected to work for a few years before marriage. As has been said earlier, poor salaries, poor promotion prospects, poor working conditions and over-high case loads all have the effect, where they exist, of perpetuating a vicious circle of inadequate recruitment. In countries or agencies where social work offers poorer prospects than other careers its emergence as a profession is delayed. This also has the effect that the service offered may be unduly expensive because the returns are comparatively poor in relation to the expenditure. Yet the well-directed action of a skilled worker could often prevent a need for prolonged care at a later stage. In addition, study of the case loads of unqualified or badly used workers may often show much diffuse, and in the long run expensive, activity to little purpose. Agencies which are appointing social workers for the first time should be advised by knowledgeable officials in agencies or ministries which already employ social workers about the suitable use of such workers, about the working conditions they require, and about the effects they may well have on the work and methods of the agency. Wherever possible such newly

created posts should be filled by experienced workers well acquainted with administrative procedures and who know how to work in a hierarchy, rather than by newly qualified workers who may make mistakes which damage the repute of social work, and who may receive too little support to practice as social workers.

Avenues of promotion should be such as to enable social workers who have the necessary ability and experience to become administrators, consultants, supervisors or social work teachers. It is also extremely desirable that recognition by way of promotion should be given to first class practitioners, who are indeed the base of the whole social work service.

CONCLUSION

The broad trends outlined in this chapter indicate that there are far too few well-qualified and experienced social workers in relation to demand. This has the twofold effect of hindering the development of the profession and narrowing the field of employment. Progress is thus less rapid than it might otherwise be in advanced practice, in the use of social workers as consultants about social policy and planning, and about human relations aspects of the administration of hospitals, industrial enterprises, social agencies and other large concerns. This also applies to the employment and use of social workers in institutions.

The demand for those with group work skill in particular is well ahead of training resources to produce social workers skilled in the use of this method. This applies with even greater force to community organization. Yet social workers with ability to work with individuals, groups and communities are required not only as field workers but also at senior administrative and consultative levels, in social welfare programmes and in institutional planning and administration.

There is a wide range of "fringe" activities which do not clearly fall within the field of education, health, or social work, and where people trained primarily within any one of these fields are in fact being employed. The common denominator in these "fringe" activities is that they have a large human relation and social component. No doubt it will be necessary for some time to come to continue to experiment in various marginal cases with the employment of workers primarily trained in various fields in order to discover which is most effectively related to the job to be done. Job analyses will from time to time help to clarify the issue. They may sometimes show that too wide a range of functions is being required of the same group of workers. In any event, the social or human relations or mental health component (as it is variously called) in other professions and occupations is steadily increasing. This is bound to lead to lack of clarity of function, with the resulting frontier disputes. The trend itself is, however, one which should be warmly welcomed by social workers in view of the large contribution they have to make in this field and the better co-operation with other professions which should result if knowledge about human relations and social conditions were to become more widely diffused.

The trends noted in this chapter face schools of social work with a considerable challenge. They indicate that there is a potential demand

for social workers for a wider range of functions, based upon a more thorough grounding in the behavioural and social sciences, together with better conceptualization and teaching of social work methodology and practice than is usual at the present time.

CHAPTER IV

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND SOCIAL WORK

INTRODUCTORY

In this chapter an attempt will be made to discuss the relations between a form of social action and a profession which up till now have only to a limited extent been related to each other. Schools of social work in some countries are playing their part in community development, but in general the contribution of each to the other is little understood. This will make it necessary to describe the social component in community development, though this is of course only one element in it, and in any event this social component is broader than social work as such.¹ So far as is known, no comparative study has yet been made of the discoveries and methods of such social pioneers as Vives, St. Vincent de Paul, Count Rumford, Thomas Chalmers, Canon Barnett, Octavio Hill and Jane Addams in the West and Gokhale, Gandhi and others in the East in relation to modern discoveries about the processes at work in community development.² There seems little doubt that they would be found to have some things in common, so far as certain essential knowledge about working with people as members of groups and communities is concerned. It may well be that certain discoveries and projects which were comparatively abortive in earlier times are now coming to fruition in rural conditions in a more favourable social and political climate.

The concept of community development, which emerged in the 1930's and 1940's with limited projects aimed at specific improvements in village life in health, education, agriculture, sanitation or crafts, has now flowered into what some regard as a movement, and which may be capable of application to urban as well as rural communities. The major emphasis in community development is upon helping communities to change and develop in ways which they themselves desire and with material aid of which they are willing to make effective use. This is a concept which has been familiar to social work for a century or more, as the chapter on the early history of education for social work will have shown. Some currently accepted principles were also pioneered by various organizations for mutual aid. Others are familiar educational principles. All previous efforts to stimulate community

¹ A study of the general (social and educational) content of training for community development is being undertaken by the United Nations in collaboration with UNESCO and in consultation with the other specialized agencies.

² See, for example, *Social Progress through Community Development* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1955.IV.18), p. 20.

participation in social and economic change were, however, on a small scale compared with the present national and international advance.³

THE EVOLVING CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

This democratic process of consulting the people about their needs and involving them in decisions about priorities which increasingly constitutes the core of community development objectives must obviously also be embodied in appropriate political forms and local and national administrative structure.⁴ The place of community development in this wider structure of local and national life and that which is probably unique to community development is a consciously planned, directed and evaluated endeavour to precipitate and guide desired social change.

“Success in community development programmes demands that the people emotionally identify themselves with these programmes. Such identification (as is occurring in some countries) gives community development the character of a movement providing strength and a sense of purpose to the current of change over a whole country.”⁵

Perhaps the most precious element in it is that instead of being a mechanical means of carrying out government regulations it has in favourable circumstances become a dynamic measure which has caught the imagination and fired the enthusiasm of nations in their struggle towards higher levels of living for their peoples which have now become possible in this century. This endeavour has also coincided with the evolution of the United Nations and its specialized agencies, together with much voluntary international activity so that the growth of the movement for community development could be effectively stimulated by the help which international agencies of varied kinds were able to offer.

“In some countries, community development programmes are being formulated from the outset as a long-term programme of rural development for the whole country. The trend is away from limited or experimental community development projects and decisively towards comprehensive rural development programmes conceived as an integral part of general national development policies. With this transition from initial or fragmentary activities to full-scale national programmes, community development enters a phase decisive for the future—one in which the promises inherent in the community development process are being translated into specific commitments of Governments for the welfare of the people. At this stage, the future of the movement depends not only upon the ability of the

³ For a discussion of various forms of community welfare centres and community development and action, see *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., pp. 18-40.

⁴ The United Nations is at present undertaking a study of types of community development programmes in relation to public administration problems involved in community development (including some aspects of personnel qualifications and functions).

⁵ “Twentieth Report of the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination to the Economic and Social Council” (United Nations, E/2931), Annex III, p. 4.

people to respond actively and constructively to immediate tasks and ultimate goals, but also, and to an increasing extent, upon the ability of Governments and the nations at large to discharge these responsibilities.”⁶

At this final stage, community development may merge into new economic organs and into a well established local government structure with social welfare provision which the people have learned to use without the need for techniques directed at arousing their desire for and participation in this. To say this is, however, to suggest that at some defined stage the community's needs are met, or that they themselves may cease to be active about their affairs. On the contrary, both socially “developed” and socially “under-developed” communities need to evolve means by which they can continuously look at themselves with a view to identifying their needs, deciding upon priorities and agreeing on ways to meet these needs. What is being discovered in the comparatively simple community of the village may therefore prove also to have relevance for urban communities in any part of the world so far as the actual processes are concerned, though the formalized structure will be very different.

It is also coming to be recognized that there is imbalance in the growth of communities which have a high material level of living and yet manifest symptoms of social and cultural poverty, calling for skills in community study and development which are now glimpsed over the horizon as being possible of attainment. “Although each local problem presents a unique challenge, and every community has its distinct personality, many problems faced by local communities are common to the whole world.”⁷ This is particularly true of new or rapidly growing towns where: “The new townsman needs to discover a new sense of belonging, to develop new loyalties, to build a forceful public opinion. A community development programme can help to foster these; and when new towns are envisaged a community development officer should be an active member of the planning authority.”⁸

From the earlier days of mass education movement there was recognition that the people themselves must desire that which was offered to them if it was to be used effectively. “Measures taken by authority must carry with them the active and understanding participation of the community itself. Success presupposes objectives with which the people can readily identify themselves . . .”⁹ In the last decade or so attention has been increasingly devoted to analyzing the processes by which the people concerned might be enabled to identify their needs as they saw them and be helped to set about meeting them.

“People will not participate in community development programmes unless they are getting what they want. Accordingly, the first duty of those responsible for community development pro-

⁶ “Report on Concepts and Principles of Community Development . . .” (United Nations, E/CN.5/325), p. 144.

⁷ *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 13.

⁸ Colonial Office, *Community Development: A Handbook*, (London, H.M.S.O., 1958), p. 19.

⁹ “Twentieth Report of the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination”, op. cit., Annex III, p. 6.

grammes is to identify the felt needs of the people. They should also assist the people in making better judgments for themselves on what their needs are and how to satisfy them. Finally, they should be able to identify needs not yet perceived and make the people conscious of them and aware of the importance of satisfying them."¹⁰

Community development has itself gone through various stages of development as it has faced with increasing urgency "the need to find effective ways of stimulating, helping, and teaching people to adopt new methods and to learn new skills".¹¹

In the United Nations study on *Social Progress through Community Development* it was said that "the term 'Community Development' is currently used mainly in relation to the rural areas of less developed countries, where major emphasis is placed upon activities for the improvement of the basic living conditions of the community, including the satisfaction of some of its non-material needs. The complementary term 'community organization' is more often used in areas in which levels of living are relatively high and social services relatively well developed, but in which a greater degree of integration and community initiative is recognized as desirable. Both terms, as well as the combined form 'community organization and development' refer to similar concepts of progress through local action."¹² In the Report on *Concepts and Principles of Community Development*, this was expanded as follows:

"1. The term community development has come into international usage to connote the processes by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation, and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress.

"2. This complex of processes is then made up of two essential elements: the participation by the people themselves in efforts to improve their level of living with as much reliance as possible on their own initiative; and the provision of technical and other services in ways which encourage initiative, self-help and mutual help and make these more effective. It is expressed in programmes designed to achieve a wide variety of specific improvements."¹³

METHODS OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Various methods are being used in pursuit of these objectives. Murray Ross identifies the following three main approaches as:

(a) The "single function" approach in which programmes or techniques are implanted by external agents—"a new school, a medical program, or a housing project, which the external agent (or the or-

¹⁰ "Report on Concepts and Principles of Community Development", op. cit., Annex 2, p. 5.

¹¹ *Mass Education in African Society*, (London, H.M.S.O., 1944), Colonial 186, p. 9.

¹² *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 6 (footnote).

¹³ Annex II, pp. 1-2.

ganization he represents) thinks will benefit the community . . . In general, it may be said that the trend is away from crude methods of imposition of a project, which neglect the attitudes of residents to the innovation, and towards winning the support of the community for the project."¹⁴

(b) The "multiple" approach in which there is recognition of the wholeness of community life and a team of experts seeks to provide a variety of services and to solve some of the problems which may arise as alterations are made in the community. "There are, of course, many aspects of life in the community which relate to customs, beliefs, ceremonies and rituals, which may be affected in a fundamental way by technical changes. The units of service provided in the multiple approach seldom provide a program to facilitate adaptation or adjustment in these areas."¹⁵

In both the foregoing approaches "the direction and nature of the change is externally, rather than internally, imposed."¹⁶

(c) The "inner resources" approach. "Here stress is laid on the need to encourage communities of people to identify their own wants and needs and to work co-operatively with governmental and other agencies at satisfying them. Projects are not predetermined but develop as discussion in communities is encouraged, proceeds, and focuses the real concerns of the people. As wants and needs are defined and solutions sought, aid may be provided by national governments or international organizations. But the emphasis is on communities of people working to define their needs and then to combine their resources with the supplies and services made available to meet the need in question. In such an approach, technical change follows social movement and not vice versa. Change comes as a community sees the need for change and as it develops the will and capacity to make changes it feels desirable".¹⁷ The initial action required to arouse communities to desire and work for change itself requires considerable skill.

The last approach springs from experience that plans imposed on the people frequently break down because imposed change may disrupt a people's way of living and therefore disintegrate their community life. "Development' is achieved only when people are helped to adjust themselves to a whole cluster of related changes. Otherwise the innovating agency may cause the disintegration of the communities in which it works, not their development."¹⁸ Yet the problem remains of reconciling the people's needs and priorities with those of the programme. This dilemma is expressed in a nutshell by the Indian village level trainee's question: "But, Sir, how can we make sure that the people have the *right* felt needs?"

It would seem that social workers should have a contribution to make in motivating communities to work on their problems, to identify those

¹⁴ Murray Ross, *Community Organization: Theory and Principles* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1955), p. 8.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

¹⁸ T. R. Batten, *Communities and Their Development* (Oxford University Press, 1957), p. 16.

which most urgently call for solution or are most quickly soluble and to set about discovering how these problems may be overcome or alleviated. In conditions of rapid technical change, it is also necessary to motivate communities to desire and accept changes which will alter their ways of living while at the same time maintaining and even strengthening their social cohesion. Numerous examples are available in the literature of community development which show how modern science may conflict with traditional beliefs. "In some communities, for example, the introduction of sanitary facilities has been regarded as a threat to the sweepers as an occupational group; in others, the pest control campaign has met with resistance due to certain traditional beliefs concerning insect life. In public administration, the use of tribal chiefs or local leaders as counterparts for the purposes of tax collection, book-keeping or the maintenance of law and order has sometimes resulted in a weakening of the traditional role of such leaders or protectors of the community".¹⁹ Too rapid technical change which destroys old social forms without giving opportunity for new ones to develop may indeed actually disrupt the community, unless it is already prepared for and desires the change.

"One of the reasons why these problems cannot be successfully attacked in isolation is that the rural community in most less developed areas is a highly integrated unit held together by strong and ancient bonds of kinship, religious affiliation, intensive social interaction, agricultural activity in a contiguous territory, and strong consciousness of identity. It is reasonable to expect, therefore, that a sound approach to such a community would involve all of the community's various aspects, and would take into consideration the effects of change in one upon the others."²⁰

SOCIAL GOALS IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

In the most advanced programmes attention is paid not only to meeting material needs and increasing resources but to doing this in ways which enhance less tangible values in community life. "Planning in a democratic state is a social process in which, in some part, every citizen should have the opportunity to participate. To set the patterns of future development is a task of such magnitude and significance that it should embody the best thought of the country and reflect as fully as possible the impact of public opinion and the needs of the community."²¹ This is based on recognition that: "The level of living is an organic unity embracing both material and non-material aspects of existence. It consists in large measure of a state of mind as well as of the consumption of material goods and services, and of participation in non-material aspects of culture."²²

¹⁹ *Study Kit on Training for Community Development* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1957.IV.6), p. 4.

²⁰ *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 7.

²¹ Government of India Planning Commission, *The First Five Year Plan: A Draft Outline* (New Delhi, 1951), p. 5.

²² *Report on International Definition and Measurement of Standards and Levels of Living* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1954.IV.5), p. 79.

This increased sensitivity to all the components of social change is related to experience of the disintegrating effects of too rapid change and also to present ignorance about the degree of diversity and speed of change which any particular society at a given time can absorb within its unity, its area of "common understandings". "While we have no answer for the question of how much diversity or how much unity there is to be in the ideal community, forces at present are dissipating 'common values' or 'common understandings'".²³ The physical needs of backward communities are clearly discernible as compared with the delicate balance of gains and losses in community relationships.

"A problem of particular importance in the transfer of experience from more developed industrial cultures to the economically underdeveloped societies is how to secure material progress in those countries without loss of spiritual values and those forms of mutual aid which exist in many pre-literate societies."²⁴

It is thus essential to carry out change through and with the people's active participation in order that it may be absorbed within the culture in ways which lead to the enrichment rather than impoverishment of social relationships and community ideals. Where this does not happen the people may grow in knowledge but lose their faith, the philosophy by which they make sense of existence, and thus be left with the frustrated feeling so characteristic of some urban areas, that "they don't know what they want and won't be happy till they get it". This situation inevitably arises where there are no structured and culturally accepted ways of meeting family, work and community relationships, when people do not know what is expected of them, and thus withdraw into isolation or break out into anti-social behaviour.

In all these fields social work has a contribution to make through an understanding of the personal causation and social consequences of deprivation of those satisfactions fundamental to human well-being, primarily, love, security, achievement, creative activity and recognition. The fulfilment of these emotional needs, as social workers know from their experience, involves good family, group and community relations as well as the enrichment of individual life. The resistance of communities to externally imposed change is no doubt an intuitive resistance to being "grown" too rapidly in a direction which they have not desired or understood and which may thus upset the equilibrium between man's physical, mental, emotional, social, and many would add, spiritual, development. It is through their knowledge of the essential wholeness of man and their skill in working with individuals, groups and communities that social workers can contribute to the community development team. "The single most important objective of village development work is the change which is brought about in *people* and not in *things*".²⁵

The nature of the community development process is thus:

"concerned with changing such attitudes and practices as are obstacles to social and economic improvements, engendering particular

²³ Murray Ross, *op. cit.*, p. 81.

²⁴ *Social Progress Through Community Development*, *op. cit.*, p. 81.

²⁵ Government of India. Community Projects Administration. *Manual on Social Education* (C.A.P. Series No. 31, 1955), p. ii.

attitudes which are conducive to these improvements and, more generally, promoting a greater receptivity to change. This implies developing the capacity of the people to form judgments on the effects of activities and to determine the goals to be arrived at, to adopt technical changes and to adjust themselves to changes brought about by outside forces. In actual operations, field workers (or practitioners) must be concerned with getting specific things done . . . But community development should not be regarded simply as a series of episodes embodied in concrete achievements. Success in these, important though it may be, is less important than the qualitative changes expressed in attitudes and relationships, which add to human dignity, and increase the continuing capacity of the people to help themselves to achieve goals which they determine for themselves."²⁶

The importance of considering man as a totality and thus moving forward on a broad front rather than introducing specific changes which may dangerously affect a total equilibrium is recognized in some, though not all, programmes of community development. For example:

"An outstanding feature of the Indian programme is its conception of the human being as a whole and the community as a single entity and of meeting all the needs of the village people in a co-ordinated way. The aim of the Community Projects and National Extension Service is not merely to provide ample food, clothing and shelter, health and sanitation facilities in villages. More important than the immediate material improvement is a change in the outlook of the people, instilling in them an ambition for a richer and fuller life and developing the capacities of the individual so that 'he can master matters for himself'."²⁷

The balanced approach is an accepted principle of national programmes for community development and applies to all technical services because "to serve the ultimate objective of a fuller and better life for individuals within the family and the community, the technical services must be conceived in a manner which recognizes the indivisibility of the welfare of the individual".²⁸ Varied organizational means are of course used to further this approach.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AND URBAN CONDITIONS

The whole team engaged in large scale community development projects includes agronomists, nutritionists, doctors, midwives, public health nurses, home economists, sanitarians, housing experts, experts in co-operatives, handicrafts and vocational guidance, educationalists, social workers, cultural anthropologists, sociologists, economists, social planners and others. In short, the village community may be regarded as a microcosm of modern society in which a team of scientists work together, seeing the contribution of each as part of a total co-ordinated

²⁶ *Report on Concepts and Principles of Community Development*, op. cit., Annex II, p. 4.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 94.

²⁸ "Twentieth Report of the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination", op. cit., Annex III, p. 6.

endeavour, to help the village to move forward several hundred years in a generation. So far, in community development attention has been concentrated on the problem of shifting rural communities across time while retaining community cohesion rather than trying to create conditions for the growth of such cohesion in the populations which have shifted themselves across space to form the rapidly growing urban areas. This situation is, however, changing as interest begins to turn towards the contribution which community development methods might make in urban areas.

“Community development has been applied mainly in rural areas. But there is a wide and growing range of economic and social problems in towns and cities, particularly in cases where urban growth is proceeding at a rapid rate because of migration from rural areas. The question therefore arises whether community development techniques are applicable to urban areas.”²⁹

One essential difference is the strong sense of belonging in the village community and the problems created by the lack of this in rapid urban growth or in such shifts of population as occur when people are moved from old slum areas to new housing estates. “The over-all considerations will, however, be the same as in rural areas. The programmes must begin with felt needs and must have the capacity to grow by the resources of the local community.”³⁰

The social and organizational structure is very different in rural and urban conditions, but so far as social work is concerned, such differences would not change the fundamental processes of group formation and functioning, nor what social workers and others know at present about working with individuals, groups and communities. Even though the manifestations and possibly the complexity of problems would differ, and thus the social diagnosis would be affected, yet the basic methods of engaging people in identifying and solving their problems as they see them would not be different. The problems of which people are aware and about which they can be motivated to do something may differ widely as between village and city and from culture to culture but their essential reactions of aggression, frustration, fear, anxiety or apathy in attenuated conditions of living will not differ, nor will the basic methods of helping them to overcome difficulties, though the forms and the organizational structure will differ in different circumstances. It may indeed be more difficult to get groups working together initially to begin to form a web of social relationships, to help leadership to emerge and to follow through long-term community plans in the fragmented conditions of living in new urban areas than under most, though not all, rural conditions. At the same time, complexities of agency structure, of inter-agency relations, of legal framework and administrative processes add a different dimension to work with urban communities.

The task of social workers in learning how they may most effectively contribute to community development is, therefore, to endeavour to deepen their knowledge and refine their skill in working with groups

²⁹ *Report on Concepts and Principles of Community Development*, op. cit., Annex II, p. 2.

³⁰ *Manual on Social Education*, op. cit., p. 62.

and communities. In so doing they will no doubt profit from much that has been discovered by other workers in this field. What this implies in terms of certain basic processes in community development will be considered next.

SOME BASIC SOCIAL PROCESSES IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
AND THEIR RELATION TO SOCIAL WORK METHOD

The following processes may be identified in current literature on community development. Although their close affinity to social work principles and practice will be noted it is not suggested that social work has any monopoly of them; indeed some are common to several professions or have emerged and been reinforced by the empirical experience of community workers (using the term in a broad general sense to cover both general and technical workers) all over the world, most of whom were not social workers. Some of these processes have long been familiar aspects of good educational method. It is, however, suggested that, because these processes and their use in varied social conditions and with people under stress are familiar to social work, it may have a contribution to make in the development of skill, since there is reason to think that some of the processes which have been identified are not always effectively taught to community development workers in ways which 'transmute knowledge into skill'. Indeed the conclusion cannot be escaped that attempts are made to teach some necessary processes in the form of instructions and admonitions rather than through the systematic development of skill, and in such a way as to bring about the necessary changes in attitude. This is perhaps a point at which social work teachers and supervisors could contribute to the training of community development workers through the educational methods familiar to them. To say this is not to deny that in social work too perception of what could be done, given better knowledge and improved skill, exceeds what can be achieved at present, particularly in work with groups and communities.

The following are some generally identified processes at work in the human relations aspect of community development. These processes will be discussed further in later chapters from the angle of teaching of social work method.

(1) *Getting to know the local community* and winning acceptance by them as a person who is able and willing to help; in social work terms 'building a relationship'. There is a difference here from most though not all social work with individuals and groups in that the client has not sought the workers' help but the worker has gone to the community. The length of time taken to win acceptance, and the skill required to do so, will partly depend on the community's attitude towards the agency which the worker represents, his ability to get on with people, and their desire for the service which he comes to offer. The skill which he needs will depend both on these factors and on his own familiarity with the people and their way of life.

(2) *Gathering knowledge about the local community*, that is, gathering relevant material about it. This may include factual information about the population distribution by age, sex and occupation, literacy, economic status and so forth. It will also include getting to know com-

munity values, attitudes, rituals and customs; as well as the various group formations and both the natural and institutional leaders in the community. Some factual information will already be available; sometimes fact finding must be done gradually in order to avoid arousing anxieties which may lead to antagonism. The local community itself should be involved to the maximum extent possible in making self-surveys. Some of this is analogous to helping a group to formulate its purposes, and to social diagnosis in work with individuals. The aim is the same, that is to say, "it seeks to establish what the trouble is, what psychological, physical, or social factors contribute to (or cause) it, what effect it has on the individual's well-being (and that of others), what solution is sought, and what means exist within the client, his situation, and organized services and resources by which the problem may be affected . . . Clearly such a judgment would not evolve from the simple addition of one item to another but rather from the combination of these data in relevant ways, from viewing their relationship to one another, and from the assessment of their single and combined significance in the light of possible action."³¹ This helps to reveal capacity to identify problems, resources and opportunities realistically and the degree of motivation to deal with them.

This stage in community development work is also analogous to social work in that the study of the situation is not a survey imposed upon the people by an external agency but is itself part of a dynamic process of working with them in the identification of their own problems, or 'felt needs' and of their resources, both internal and external. "People take part in social action for improving their homes and communities if they are emotionally involved or if the motive is strong."³² Thus, as in social work, some of this material will be gathered by observation, questioning, discussion and listening from the beginning, other material will only emerge after a relationship of confidence has been established.

In community development, as in the more traditional forms of social work, the conscious use of the relationship is the chief means by which the worker helps the community to bring about change. Thus all types of workers in community development will in varying degrees need skill in human relations. They will necessarily have other skills but to further the aims of community development they must also be able to establish relationships which the people themselves welcome and find helpful.

"In fact, the discussion and study group is the most universal method of community development . . . Although the method is universally used, advanced techniques exist only in certain countries. Most groups rely too heavily upon public meetings and lectures rather than on real discussion and study in small groups or work-teams."³³

(3) *Identifying the local leaders.* The community worker at the field level cannot get to know everyone in the community and must in any event discover, work through, support and develop the indigenous leaders. This, however, imposes a difficult task in that although "the

³¹ Helen Harris Perlman, *Social Casework* (The University of Chicago Press, 1957), p. 171.

³² *Social Progress Through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 76.

³³ *Ibid.*, pp. 83-84.

village level worker accepts as his responsibility helping all the people [to] participate in discussing their common problems and deciding what should be done and how it should be done . . . "yet it is the experience in some projects that "he may have to work with a few leaders in the beginning, which means working with only a segment of the village population."³⁴ The danger here is of becoming identified with one group against others or of becoming isolated with a small group and making little impact on the other groups instead of bringing various groups together to work on common community problems.

"At the neighbourhood and local community level stimulation activities are often aimed first at certain groups and at sporadic projects undertaken by a few but not all the groups in a community. Co-ordination of all the community's forces has repeatedly proved to be, however, an indispensable condition at the stage where continuing action and a comprehensive programme are being created."³⁵

The essential process is analogous to working with sub-groups in a larger group, with the leaders of the group, and with several interrelated groups, or with individual strengths, assessing a family constellation and participating with various family members on the identification and solution of a family problem. The importance of working with but not becoming identified with any one member, for example, with wife against husband or parents against children, is clearly recognized in social work. It applies with equal force in working with different groups in a club or neighbourhood house programme, or different agencies in community organization. The social worker's "special expertness is in bringing diverse groups together, in clarifying issues, enlarging the area of common concern in the community, in establishing processes and procedures by which a community can make a collective decision."³⁶

(4) *Stimulating the community to realize that it has problems.* This may be a necessary first step in some communities, as with some apathetic or extremely custom-bound or isolated or anti-social individuals and groups.

"Perhaps the worker's most difficult task is with communities which appear apathetic, disorganized, degenerate. Here the worker faces the difficult task of stimulating a sense of need for more adequate life. Many such communities are content with the *status quo*. Not only do they not wish to change, but they resist the possibility of change with a strong and rigid defense structure. Here the community worker takes the initiative. The initiative takes the form not of offering help, but of stimulating a sense of need, of discontent, of 'pain' about existing conditions, and of suggesting other alternative conditions which may prove to be more rewarding."³⁷

This is in tune with social work knowledge that offers of help in such circumstances merely heighten the defences and that some degree of anxiety or tension must be stimulated—or if the apathy is due to all-pervasive anxiety, given a satisfying experience of relation with the

³⁴ Government of India, Community Projects Administration, Planning Commission. *Manual for Village Level Workers* [1953?], p. 15.

³⁵ *Social Progress Through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 94.

³⁶ Murray Ross, op. cit., p. 209.

³⁷ Murray Ross, op. cit., p. 205.

worker which creates confidence—before any movement can be expected. This may include encouraging expression of hostility, in the knowledge that this is the first step in releasing the healthy aggression needed to solve problems. In some circumstances, it may be sufficient to rely on educational media of various kinds and on making individuals conscious that their discontent is shared by others in the community.

In community development a study of the total situation will of course include a realistic appraisal of the causes of apathy. It is always necessary to bear in mind the effects of disease and poor nutrition; of long centuries of isolated village life at a primitive level; and also "that it is usually the people who have most to gain by changes designed to increase wealth who are the most reluctant to accept them. This is because they of all people can least afford to take risks. They have no reserves to tide them over failure. They know that they can just make a living by doing as they do, and they need to be very sure before they do anything differently. After all, it is they, not the worker, who will suffer if the worker suggests the wrong thing."³⁸ There is also the difficulty that:

"Sometimes basic needs cannot be clearly defined by the people concerned. For example, in areas gravely affected by endemic diseases such as malaria, local people being unaware of the cause of malaria or of the effectiveness of anti-malaria measures, are often not able to identify health services as their most important need."³⁹

They may also be suspicious and indifferent because "they have been exploited, lied to, and imposed upon for so many centuries that they seem unable to grasp the possibility that anyone honestly intends that they should participate in making any of the real decisions about their future. In consequence it [is] most difficult to get them involved in any fundamental way".⁴⁰ This often means that other changes are essential as a condition of successful community development. "Obstacles were seen in social injustices and economic deprivations, under which the incentive for improvement could hardly develop among the people. In the initial stages of the programme, attention was drawn to rural indebtedness and the perpetual dependence of the peasant producer upon the landlord and money lender."⁴¹ This emphasizes the importance of a real commitment by the public or voluntary agency to the purposes of community development, support for the field workers and willingness to provide essential services which are beyond the people's own resources.

(5) *Helping people to discuss their problems.* This is the first step in social 'treatment', or social change and advance, whether with individuals, groups, or communities. It is part of the professional self-discipline of the social worker that he encourages people to talk about their problems as they see them, not as he sees them, and does not impose his assessment of the situation or his solutions upon them. It is accepted in casework that the problem with which the client comes to the social agency is

³⁸ T. R. Batten, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

³⁹ *Social Progress Through Community Development*, *op. cit.*, p. 79.

⁴⁰ Ernest F. Witte, "Community Development in Selected Countries", *Social Work* (New York), January 1957, p. 8.

⁴¹ *Report on Concepts and Principles of Community Development*, *op. cit.*, p. 105.

frequently not the real underlying problem, which the client may either deny, fail to recognize, or else not be willing to discuss until he has tested the worker's competence and also gained more insight into his needs. This is equally true in work with groups and communities; though in some ways the urge to produce results is greater in that both agencies and workers are eager to improve health, sanitation, nutrition, crops, animal husbandry, water supply, and child welfare, and to introduce co-operatives, home industries and vocational guidance.

It is the results of experience in this field, as earlier in casework and group work, which have led to emphasis on helping the community to identify and work at its own pace on its own felt needs, or even as has been said above, to arouse it from inertia to the point where it begins to feel that it could have desires and see them fulfilled.

"It is generally conceded that development programmes must take into account the people's expression of 'felt needs'; but how can 'felt needs' be ascertained? The problems which members of the community bring to the attention of the worker are not always those which they believe to be the most important. Fear of authority, the desire to please, ostentatiousness, or indifference to the programme are among the many reasons why people often state 'needs' which are not truly 'felt' by them. Likewise there are many reasons why felt needs are sometimes left unspoken. An individual may prefer not to disclose his opinions out of respect for authority, distrust of the worker or even his own lack of confidence in the worth of his opinion."⁴²

There is only limited reference in the literature on community development to the therapeutic effect of listening, which is a basic tenet in social work, yet it seems probable that the worker's respect for the community, interest in hearing about their problems, and realistic understanding of them in itself helps to evoke self-expression and to build confidence in the community's own capacity for mutual help. Where ignorance is a main cause of lack of confidence and inertia informal education techniques may be a primary means to arouse interest which leads to action.

"... skill in working with groups is the basic tool of the community development worker. He values groups primarily because they satisfy material and psychological needs people cannot satisfy in isolation from each other. But he also values them because they provide ideal educational situations for the worker. It is easy in a group to stimulate discussion, and discussion provides a good medium for interesting people in new ideas, knowledge and skills . . . It is the practical effect of such discussion on the aim of the worker, on the knowledge and attitudes of the people, and on the decisions and action they subsequently take, that constitutes the core of community development . . ."⁴³

(6) *Helping people to identify their most pressing problems.* A given community may be conscious of no problems at all; conscious of a host of pressing and overwhelming problems; or of various and nebulous problems; or acutely aware at a given time of one particular problem.

⁴² *Study Kit on Training for Community Development*, op. cit., p. 6.

⁴³ T. R. Batten, op. cit., p. 227.

The task of the community worker in the first instance has already been discussed. In the second instance it is important, as in casework, and group work to partialize problems and to help the community to decide which would be most easily tackled first. In the third instance it is essential in all but extreme cases for the worker to follow the community's lead rather than imposing his own priorities.⁴⁴ A vivid account is given in the Indian Community Projects Administration *Manual on Social Education* of the trainees' pre-occupation with a literacy campaign in a village and the villagers' pre-occupation with stolen bullocks and their fear that more would be taken.

Whether or not the problem is urgent on the workers' scale of values, it is the common experience of social workers that the only successful method is to start where the client is, and that it is only when the problem which he sees has been accepted and taken seriously that he is able to work on it, sometimes in this very process becoming able to move on to other problems which in the worker's eyes are more pressing.

"Almost every set of principles being tentatively formulated for community development action in different parts of the world starts with the first principle of recognizing 'the felt need' of people before undertaking any project. Therefore, the problem of needs, wants and desires is crucial in the process of community development."⁴⁵

(7) *Fostering self-confidence.* A fundamental aim in all social work is to build up confidence in the individual, group or community, that they are able to help themselves and have some resources to meet their needs. It is thus important where a community is conscious of a number of problems that it should be helped to select for initial action one problem or aspect of a problem which will show positive results quickly.

"While it is important to talk in general terms about a great many village problems, it is necessary to bring the discussion round to specific village problems... it is also important... to agree on which problems will be taken up first... Usually it will be better that the first problem taken up for consideration be the kind that a great many people can participate in doing something about and that the results can be seen by many in a comparatively short period of time... if the early projects taken up are successful, the villagers will gain self-confidence and interest in seeking solutions for more difficult problems."⁴⁶

This procedure, which is accepted in community development, is the familiar social work concept that quickly to participate with the client in meeting the most manageable part of his problem begins to give him confidence that something can be done about it and makes it more possible for him to tolerate frustrations and delays later. "Nothing succeeds like success' was never more true than as it applies to the ego. With proof of impotence it shrinks and retreats; with proof of ability it expands and grows venturesome."⁴⁷ It is equally true in group work

⁴⁴ For an instructive example of how members of a community accepted the worker's identification of their most urgent need after they had been helped to meet a (to them) more urgent need, see Murray Ross, op. cit., p. 202.

⁴⁵ *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 76.

⁴⁶ Government of India, *Manual for Village Level Workers*, op. cit., p. 23.

⁴⁷ Helen Harris Perlman, *Social Casework*, op. cit., p. 99.

that the process of group formation and satisfaction in group 'belongingness' is speeded up by quickly engaging the members on some common task of interest to them. It is also wise to remember that: "The Community development officer because of his very enthusiasm may fall into the error of expecting a community to keep up standards of endeavour and unselfishness which it cannot in fact sustain. The need for a healthy leavening of fun in the community enterprise should never be lost sight of, nor should the value of games as a training of character and for public spiritedness be underestimated."⁴⁸

In the Indian Community Projects Administration *Manual on Social Education* it is suggested that:⁴⁹ (a) The problem should be one about which the villagers are worried at the moment; (b) It should be one which affects men and women, rich and poor and various occupational groups so that there will be real community action and support in solving it; (c) It should be fairly easily and rapidly solved; (d) It should be a problem in which the steps in problem solving are clearly demonstrated; (e) It should be soluble by the villagers themselves with their own resources in order that it may help people to help themselves; (f) It should be a problem from which some permanent new patterns of organization may emerge through which the villagers can learn how to continue to solve their own problems, e.g., through a committee.

(8) *Deciding on a programme of action.* These first stages of helping the people to identify their problems shade imperceptibly into action upon them with the help of the worker. This is also well known in social work where forward movement often begins in the first interview or group meeting and conversely diagnosis may be altered in the light of the changing situation. In social work the worker plans the goals with the individual or group, so also the community worker helps the community to decide upon a programme of priorities and how it intends to work out the programme. These same principles apply in helping a group to form itself, to decide on its purpose and how it plans to attain this.

In the Indian Community Projects Administration *Manual on Social Education* the following analysis is given of the total process:⁵⁰

(a) Problem definition. This is the process of moving from specifying the problem to further discussion of its content which leads to narrowing it down as well as breaking it down into its essential components.

(b) Problem diagnosis—full appraisal of the problem and decision as to what further (and accurate) information must be obtained for this purpose.

(c) Information getting—helping the community to organize itself into small groups or committees to gather further information.

(d) Decision making—based upon accurate appraisal of the problem. It demands considerable skill in the community worker to get agreed action without imposing his own views. The risk here is that the community will either become dependent on the worker and demand, or

⁴⁸ Colonial Office, *Community Development: A Handbook*, op. cit., p. 18.

⁴⁹ Op. cit., pp. 6-7.

⁵⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 9-10. See also Murray Ross, op. cit., pp. 200-225.

passively accept, instructions or expressions of opinion, or else that it will break up into a series of discordant groups.

(e) Strategy and action planning—helping the villagers to put into action the decisions which they have made. This tests their capacity to 'follow through'. It may also call for considerable skill in the worker to keep interest from flagging and confidence from ebbing, while at the same time remaining in the background.

(f) Solution testing—reviewing the decisions which were reached and the action decided upon in order to determine whether they have been effectively carried out and if so whether they were appropriate to dealing with the problem or whether this and the action to be taken call for further study and re-definition.

The following description of the effects of an initial project successfully completed are given in the United Nations study *Social Progress through Community Development*:

"The successful completion of a first project often has had a decisive effect on the members of the community. First, the visible results obtained through the pooling of their abilities, manpower and resources have contributed to develop among them a degree of group responsibility, pride and zest, which encouraged them to undertake further communal action. Second, the people have organized themselves and tested their potential leadership. Third, they have learned about the problems of their community and, in the case of self-help projects assisted by outside governmental agencies, they found that technical assistance or material and financial aid from outside the community is obtainable under certain conditions. Once having made an effective conjunction of their own efforts with the specialized services of technical agencies, and having received some material help from government bodies, the local community had greater faith in its capacity to meet its felt needs. Through their contacts with technical agencies the people of the community became aware of basic needs which they had hitherto not recognized. Their desires for better education, better health, better farming, etc., were stimulated, and subsequently met by their efforts and the assistance of the agencies and funds which their Government provided."⁵¹

(9) *Recognition of strengths and resources.* Helping people to recognize their strengths and resources for meeting their problems and to mobilize these. These processes are well known in casework and group work. In community development they are often set in motion initially through local surveys by the people themselves. The unused resources which may thus be identified include labour available on account of under- or unemployment, the neglected contribution of women and young people, and the spirit of mutual help and initiative which the people are able to mobilize to do the things they want done, with the necessary help in carrying out projects effectively. The sheer discovery that they themselves possess these unused resources begins to give them more confidence in themselves. At the same time, the group activities and decisions which have been required in the self-survey have been a first step in the use of a democratic process of group discussion, decision and

⁵¹ Op. cit., p. 80.

action. The aim of the worker, as in casework, or group work, is to help the community to experience the feeling that "we can do something ourselves to overcome our difficulties or to attain ends which seem to us desirable".

"From the community development standpoint, the awakening of a justified feeling among the people that life is improving primarily through their own efforts and that they can confidently expect continued progress by the same means is more important than the material achievements seemed during the initial stages of community development process."⁵²

(10) *Helping people to continue to work on solving their problems.* This is the part in the whole process which may test the worker's skill most severely. Initial discussions or interviews are comparatively simple compared with helping people, both individuals, groups and interrelated groups, to go on working, often at the cost of considerable effort, even ridicule, at agreed solutions to their problems. This is one of the reasons why it is important to start with fairly simple, short-term problems so that the people may learn methods of working together to identify, decide upon and carry out action to solve their difficulties. "This progress will not be steady or continuous; experience shows that community development has its ebb and flow, periods of intensive activity being followed by the periods of inaction."⁵³ Communities thus pass through the "in and out" movement familiar to casework or the spurts and slumps found in work with groups.

They will only successfully carry through longer-term projects or projects which involve taking risks when they have mastered the process of problem solving by mutual co-operation and have some degree of confidence in their own ability to work with outside agencies in meeting other needs. This is the process known in social work as motivating the client to continue to face and try to master his difficulties. The skilled worker will sometimes deliberately arouse anxiety for this purpose (that is to say anxiety as a necessary drive to overcoming obstacles) as well as inspiring confidence through deepening the relationship with himself as a dependable person able to help. The worker most of course be aware of the risk of people remaining dependent upon him but this is far less likely to happen if their need for help and encouragement, for information which they desire and for actual demonstrations of helpfulness are fully met in the early stages. "Two conditions must hold for responsible willingness to work at problem-solving: discomfort and hope. The existence of either element without the other or of an excessive degree of either, will deplete motivation. Discomfort without hope spells resignation, apathy, fixation... Hopefulness without discomfort (that is to say without any inner sense of wanting to strive) is the mark of the immature, wishful person, he who depends on others or on circumstances to work for his interest... using his best perception of reality as his gauge, the caseworker may appraise his client's combination of discomfort and hope in order to judge what he should try to diminish, to

⁵² *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 9.

⁵³ Colonial Office, *Community Development: A Handbook*, op. cit., p. 32.

modify, or to encourage, in order to rouse in his client that push or pull which mobilizes him for change."⁵⁴

(11) *Increasing people's ability for self-help.* One of the aims in community development as in social work is to help people to arrive at new and better adaptations between themselves and their life situations. This is likely to involve changes both in themselves, their social relationships, and their environment. This help is given in the ways already discussed, so that when defined objectives have been achieved the worker may be able to withdraw, leaving the people concerned with a better understanding of themselves and their circumstances and thus with an improved ability to deal with the further problems and challenges which they will meet in their life situations. This means increasing their confidence and at the same time helping them to discover how to deal themselves with a wider range of social situations. This is done in various ways, for example, through the emergence of indigenous leadership, through helping the people to understand the processes of planned group and inter-group action, through giving them necessary knowledge and material and other resources and services. The length of time for which help in this sense will necessarily continue will depend on the skill and acceptability of the worker, the nature of the problem and the response of the community, individual or group to it. "What we seek, then, is no static goal called 'cure'. We seek, rather, to set and keep in motion such capacities for adaptation and to provide such material means and opportunities as will enable a person, at best, to master his ordeals, or at least, to make some balanced compromise with them."⁵⁵

TYPES OF COMMUNITY

There is a relationship between external circumstances and internal pressures and it is only if the worker possesses the skill to lighten both of these so that they do not feel as though they were overpowering, that the people will be able (to use a significant colloquialism) to "get on top of their problems." As in case work or group work, workers with communities in general, whether in community development or other wise, may be concerned with:

(a) Reasonably "normal" communities under stress or the impact of a crisis, in which they need help in dealing with their fears, anxieties, frustrations and lack of confidence in order to set to work to meet their problems.

(b) Communities in which there is considerable social and economic impoverishment, rigid attitudes or unwillingness to accept certain groups within the community. Here the worker will need much greater skill in helping the community towards some recognition of its prejudices and its unwillingness to accept better and more co-operative ways of living, both materially and socially.

(c) Communities with a high degree of social pathology—high delinquency areas, disintegrated neighbourhoods, rural communities sunk

⁵⁴ Helen Harris Perlman, *Social Casework*, op. cit., p. 187.

⁵⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 200.

in apathy. Here help may be needed for a very much longer period, and it would be idle to claim that much is yet known about the means to initiate a growth process or to restore social well-being to such communities or to the individuals who live in them.

UNIVERSAL ELEMENTS IN INCREASING THE CAPACITY FOR SELF-HELP

There are very few known examples of rural communities planning development entirely on their own initiative. For example, it is significant that in India there has been apparent lack of progress in areas alongside those where village level workers were operating. This has led to the idea in community development of the "external agent" or "catalyst".

"Very often their function is described as that of a 'catalytic agent'. Indeed, the main task of the community development agent on the village level is to create confidence that progress is possible and to assist in the process of improvement and in the organization of the community for the new tasks."⁵⁶

This concept seems to be similar to that of the social worker as an "enabler", someone who is able accurately to identify problems and resources for meeting them and who makes it possible for people to find their way through their difficulties and to deal with the external constrictions and internal pressures which prevent them from doing so without skilled help.

Successful community development projects have taken many different forms in different parts of the world. A common factor in their success would seem to be that in working through local leaders they have secured the people's trust. From this has followed the implicit assumption that "they" care what happens to "us". Perhaps this factor in success has been insufficiently recognized as a means of giving confidence and engendering self-reliance. The familiar techniques of national campaigns, inter-village competitions, visits by experts and the use of visual aids, badges, music, pageantry and dancing all carry with them the implication that not only do "they" think "we" matter but also we must be of value for them to do so, in other words we have a status and a role to play in the larger society. Social workers, like workers in certain other fields, are very familiar with the astonishing effects on growth and initiative of getting across to people a genuine belief in them and in their capacity to meet difficulties in their lives with the necessary help to do so. This is particularly true where people have been (or felt) neglected, isolated or devalued. In such cases a "corrective emotional experience" which counteracts past deprivations may be an essential component in mobilizing capacities for growth and change and in giving a feeling of worth and status.

This can only come about where a relationship has been established between the worker and the individual, group or community which they experience as "good". "Personal example has been, of course, the most

⁵⁶ *Social Progress Through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 89.

powerful factor in stimulating action for improvement".⁵⁷ In social work parlance this would be the recognition by the individual, group or community of the worker as a helpful person and the establishment of a relationship through which identification with the worker can be consciously used to bring about beneficial changes. "The labors of mind and body involved in problem solving may feel less arduous when they take place within the warmth and security of a strong relationship. The will to try may be spurred by the helpfulness and hopefulness it conveys; and far below the surface of consciousness the person may absorb from him to whom he feels related that feeling of oneness and yet of separate worth which is the foundation of inner security and self-esteem."⁵⁸

To make and use a relationship as a means to lower pressures, thus freeing the client to become more of a person, more able to respond to reality and thus to control his affairs, is the essence of social work. One of the reasons why it is effective is because the social workers, through listening and through interjecting at appropriate times remarks which show understanding, or appreciation or raise queries, lowers the internal pressures of fear, anxiety and frustration. At the same time, the attention and the warm concern of the worker convey to the client that he is not only understood but also valued for himself as someone who is capable of succeeding in his life struggle. It is therefore through the double effect of realistic understanding of how people feel about their situation, coupled with the use of means to build confidence and to enhance the control of the individual over the more discordant elements in his own personality and his situation that he is enabled to function more effectively. "To feel accepted, nurtured, and understood endows us with energy. This is because insecurity, shame and anxiety consume psychic energy—energy used in the continuous erection, repair and maintenance of protections and defenses against discomfort in a relationship that offers warmth, sustenance and assurance, some of these energies are released from their defensive tasks. They may be invested elsewhere—perhaps in the service of experimentation with change and adaptation in thought or action."⁵⁹

Similarly in industry the realization that "they" think "we" are important has been discovered to be one of the most potent incentives to improved output and to lowering labour turnover, while at the same time, attention is increasingly directed to the vital need for joint consultation and effective involvement of the workers in policy decisions affecting their lives as essential elements in good industrial relations.

Thus in spite of varying methods, community development is coming by another road to the same conclusions.

"A trend can be discerned, however, towards greater emphasis on village-level workers or community advisers, either settled or itinerant, and towards their improved training as well as for improved training of specialists in methods of working with people in local communities. This trend seems to be based upon the growing conviction that the methods of community development can all be reduced to one central

⁵⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 84.

⁵⁸ Helen Harris Perlman, *Social Casework*, op. cit., p. 65.

⁵⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 73-74.

question, namely, the influence that a community worker, whatever his specialization, can exert on individuals and groups to help them achieve some ultimate objectives such as material, social, and cultural improvements, moral and spiritual growth, happiness, etc. Even the images carried by the radio, the printed word, or films contain this personal element, portraying the problems in terms of heroes or villains in the social action and suggesting co-operation and mutual aid with other fellowmen as the socially approved behaviour. Equally strong is the influence on the individual by the group of which he is a member: his family, his group of playmates and friends, his more formal associates in various groups organized in the community and the community itself. The conclusion is, therefore, inescapable that the problem of methods in community development is primarily a problem of improved human relations."⁶⁰

It is with human relations that social workers are essentially concerned, not merely in generalized terms but through the application of growing knowledge with increasing skill. The insights of social work could enrich community development, while at the same time, new knowledge from the field of community development obviously has much to contribute to social work.

Doubts are often expressed as to whether casework and work with small groups as it has been developed in the West is applicable in conditions of mass poverty. Similar doubts are occasionally raised as to whether knowledge of community process gained in rural community development projects in the East would be applicable in western conditions. The conclusion would seem to be that in casework, group work and community organization and certain aspects of community development, as these have evolved in different cultural settings, some fundamentals of working with people have emerged which hold true under all circumstances. Thus a potential enrichment of social work methodology is now becoming available as a result of experience in Asia and elsewhere.

VARIED SKILLS AND METHODS USED IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Important issues in community development programmes relevant to the present survey are the following elements which "are present in every national programme of community development: (a) definition of national policy; (b) administrative organization adapted to the special requirements of such a programme; (c) scheme for the selection, recruitment and training of personnel and encouragement of voluntary leaders; (d) utilization of local and wider resources; (e) research and evaluation."⁶¹

It is obvious that in community development as a whole, a number of specialists must be employed whose primary skill is in health, education, agriculture, animal husbandry, home economics, co-operatives and so forth. It is well recognized that they should be trained to carry out their work with understanding of social processes and human motivation,

⁶⁰ *Social Progress Through Community Development*, op. cit., pp. 96-97.

⁶¹ *Ibid.*, p. 73.

though their main training and skill is in other fields.⁶² As the processes of community development become clarified in the light of experience, there has come to be a place also for workers whose skill mainly lies in motivating communities to work on their problems and by the use of social school and educational techniques to help them to make good use of the services which those who are expert in various fields are able to offer. It will often happen that these community workers are needed in the first stages of community development in a given area in order to work with the community in deciding what specialized services it desires and is prepared to use.

The actual ways in which community workers with social work skills are or might be used will depend partly upon the type of community development programme and the governmental or other national or local agency responsible for its initiation. These programmes have been classified as integrative where the programme is universal in scope, co-ordinated and requiring substantial structural changes in government agencies; adaptive where the programme emphasizes self-help and community organization, using existing technical and other government services; or of the project type when there is a multi-functional programme which is not applied universally.⁶³

In the "Twentieth Report of the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination to the Economic and Social Council" it is said that:

"The personnel to be trained normally fall into one or more of the following categories: (1) political and administrative leaders; (2) professional and technical personnel; (3) specialized auxiliary workers; (4) multi-purpose or generalist village level workers; and (5) voluntary community leaders and workers."⁶⁴

So far as the training of workers for these various purposes and levels of operation is concerned, the report goes on to say:

"the content of the training of all these categories of personnel includes both special and general elements. The special elements consist of skills, elementary or more advanced, in the various technical subject matters. The general elements relate to mental attitudes and to broad methods and techniques of education and of organization; upon these latter will depend the very effectiveness of the process and of the success in inculcating the technical skills already mentioned."⁶⁵

In the last few years the emphasis placed upon the "general elements" in training has increased so that, for example, in the United Nations *Study Kit on Training for Community Development* (1957) it is said that:

"all workers need to understand the importance of good human relations and to know how their own behaviour can affect people. To varying degrees they also need to understand the motivations and

⁶² The United Nations is undertaking in collaboration with UNESCO a wide study of training for community development.

⁶³ The United Nations is at present undertaking a study of types of community development programmes in relation to public administration problems involved in community development (including some aspects of personnel qualifications and functions).

⁶⁴ E/2931, op. cit., Annex III, p. 9.

⁶⁵ *Ibid.*

behaviour of the people with whom they work. This is not easy. Frequently what looks like stubborn and irrational opposition may have a very good basis in the cultural patterns of the community. What appears logical and necessary from the outsider's viewpoint may be seriously disturbing to the community if it requires major changes in local traditions or beliefs. It may be quite clear to the worker that if technical improvements are to be sustained the people need to develop certain understandings, attitudes and mental qualities; yet the human mind is not always willing and ready to grow. Certainly the problem of 'reaching' people is one that continually challenges the worker's powers of comprehension and adjustment."⁶⁶

At the same time, the community development field worker must know how to work with people and also be able to show them better ways of doing things as they become willing to receive these suggestions. As the same report puts it:

"Establishing good human relations is only one part of the job. A second is to help bring about improvements in living standards and to strengthen, directly or indirectly, the people's economic potential. Even the worker who deals with only a small part of the life of an individual is faced with both these problems simultaneously whenever he is concerned with more than the mechanical performance of a task. The people's confidence and interest must be won in order to make practical improvements fully effective; conversely, the demonstration of practical improvements is part of the process of gaining the people's confidence, relieving tensions or evoking interest. For most field workers, 'reaching' people thus implies more than building friendships, being patient and understanding, or teaching through audio-visual devices; it includes showing in a practical way what can be done to improve levels of living; proving that the worker is not above doing the job with his own hands; and convincing by results rather than merely by persuasive talk. Accordingly, workers nowadays are being trained to use their hands as well as their minds and to do practical tasks well."⁶⁷

If the primary function of a given worker is in a particular specialization, for example environmental sanitation, then the main focus of training will be on this subject with a limited amount of teaching about human relations and attitudes. If however the worker's main function is as a general field worker or as one or other equivalent at the district level of the social education officer in India,⁶⁸ then he will require both knowledge and skill in working with people as well as technical knowledge and skill.⁶⁹ This means that he must:

(1) Know how to do a variety of practical things, because:

"this assignment requires that the agent should be familiar with the community and assist in blending their traditional practice and skills with up-to-date scientific knowledge. He engages patiently and with perseverance in the most prosaic village problems—the digging

⁶⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 1.

⁶⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 1-2.

⁶⁸ These officers exist in most national programmes of community development under various titles.

⁶⁹ See footnote 63.

of a compost pit, the building of a better stove, the use of better seeds to secure an improved yield, the ploughing of a contour furrow to prevent erosion or the organization of village games and pageants. He helps the people to secure a clean water supply, build an approach road, open a school or literacy class and establish a village dispensary."⁷⁰

(2) Know how to demonstrate these skills effectively;

(3) Know how to work with people;

(4) Know how to administer a growing and dynamic experimental programme.

This required "know how" is not only theoretical knowledge but also practical skill. Therefore, it involves skill in doing, skill in teaching, skill in personal and social relationships and skill in administration. So far, knowledge from the field of education has been drawn upon more heavily than knowledge from the field of social work in the training of community workers. For example a considerable amount of excellent material exists to train workers in how to create interest and motivate people to learn about their environment and develop positive attitudes through the learning process, how to teach skill in the application of new knowledge by making use of method demonstrations, result demonstrations, radio, "achievement days", visual aids (including flannelboards and film strips), and how to follow up and evaluate the results. But comparatively little attention has been given to the actual content and teaching of the social method and skill as part of the formulation of a body of knowledge and skill in human relations sufficiently simple to be used in training workers with limited formal education.

Thus in the United Nations *Study Kit on Training for Community Development* various case illustrations are given but it is pointed out that "these illustrations deal with the problems rather than the process of getting accepted. More analytic study of the process is needed. It is encouraging that some training staff are already compiling simple materials on how to conduct an informal survey, what principles should govern individual interviewing or house-to-house visiting, how to work with local leaders, or in what way demonstrations and mass meetings can serve to establish rapport."⁷¹ The basic skill of the social worker is in helping individuals under stress and that of the group worker and the community organizer in working with local leaders and learning to establish rapport with various groups in the community by means of defined methods. It is also obvious that much community development work is with individuals and groups and that it thus calls for skill in working with people, whether as individuals, groups or communities.

"Community development is essentially the result of purposeful collective local action. In communities where the forces that make such action possible have yet to be mobilized, the need arises for workers with special skills and knowledge of group work and community organization methods, through whose efforts group initiative and responsible participation may be developed."⁷²

⁷⁰ *Social Progress Through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 89.

⁷¹ Op. cit., p. 4.

⁷² *Social Progress Through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 98.

As will be clear from what has been said already, a body of principles and methods of working with people is beginning to emerge in community development. A number of discoveries have been made about ways of providing self-help and the integrated growth of local communities which represent a synthesis of certain principles and methods derived from various disciplines and professions. Some of these discoveries were already familiar in other settings but the total synthesis may well represent a real advance in knowledge and skill in working with communities of all kinds.

Community development has, in travelling by another route, come to recognize the necessity for conscious use of some of the processes with which social work is familiar and has added substantially to knowledge of their use. In some countries this is leading to a closer liaison between schools of social work and those engaged in the training of personnel for community development. Some schools of social work offer courses which will prepare their graduates for district and other posts in community development. Faculty members are also involved in various training centres for village level workers. As one experienced social worker has appraised the situation as he observed it in several countries in regard to these workers:

“the training of the village level worker is seriously deficient in its lack of emphasis on the theory and practice of work with individuals and groups. More emphasis needs to be placed on a basic understanding of people and the skill required to work with them... They [the village level workers] felt a great need for help in understanding people, for ways to motivate them to want a different way of life, of helping them to think and act for themselves, enter into decision-making, to work together, of overcoming village feuds, and the related things required to achieve a basis for real self-help. Here was a place where social work knowledge and skill were badly needed and where it had the most to offer.”⁷³

At present desirable goals in working with people may be stated but the actual processes involved and the ways of using these effectively may be neglected. The adaptation and use of this knowledge and skill in the training of community development workers at various levels, together with training in specific skills and in appropriate educational method, would relate training more closely to their actual task.

THE PLACE AND FUNCTION OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

In large scale community development programmes employing specialists, multi-purpose workers and administrators there would seem to be a place for social workers with the highest level of professional skill and experience. Such social workers could make a useful contribution to the better understanding of ways of working with communities and the actual processes of initiating and guiding change. It is important that they should have first hand knowledge of village life in order to give them real understanding of the outlook of villagers in a particular

⁷³ Ernest F. Witte, “Community Development in Selected Countries”, *op. cit.*, pp. 10-11.

culture and the problems encountered in working with them. This points to the desirability of closer co-operation between schools of social work and community development training centres in order that each may learn from the other. Schools of social work should also be encouraged and assisted to make appropriate plans for supervised field work in community development projects at a level suited to the needs of professional students. This should of course be coupled with the necessary related teaching of background and methods subjects relevant to rural and urban community development.

The degree of support which the field worker receives from more senior workers and from specialists is of course an element in the effective use of training and in carrying learning further. There is much emphasis in some training programmes on the importance of making the field worker self-reliant and independent. This is necessary if workers are to face the loneliness, lack of amenities and often slowly achieved results in work in villages. It may also be inevitable that because of distances, shortage of senior staff and difficulties of communication the field worker is left on his or her own for comparatively long periods. This is, however, a concession to necessity rather than a desirable practice. In community development itself and in training programmes the vital importance of team work is stressed. It would be hard to overestimate the benefits of such team support to the individual field worker if he is not to lose the benefit of his training and become discouraged in his work. This is particularly true of newly trained workers, whether or not they are familiar with village life, but all field workers need regular visits from more skilled and experienced staff, as well as the opportunity for periodic meetings to pool experience and carry their training further. In some projects field workers return regularly for further training after a period in the field. This support may also be given through manuals and other administrative and in-service training devices, but, best of all, through working as a member of a team rather than in isolation.

"Thus any programme for the training of personnel for community development must also take into account the need for training professional personnel to discharge more effectively their supervisory and training responsibilities *vis-à-vis* village level staff, and the need for training administrative personnel at all levels so as to ensure better co-ordination and unhampered progress of projects and programmes."⁷⁴

In other words, it is of vital importance that senior administrators shall be fully identified with the purposes of community development, knowledgeable about its methods and anxious to support the rank and file workers in furthering its aims.

CONCLUSION

The conclusion is inescapable that social work has barely touched the fringe of community development so far, but there are indications that its contribution is beginning to be regarded as significant. At the same time, certain of the most vital preoccupations of community development are part of the essential nature of social work, which has achieved its

⁷⁴ *Social Progress Through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 98.

success through taking certain knowledge from the social and behavioural sciences and putting it to use to help to meet personal and social need. It is therefore suggested that a closer working partnership might be of mutual benefit, contributing some more effective working methods to community development and enlarging the horizon of social work by forcing it to apply its knowledge and skills on this broader scale. In the Twentieth Report of the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination it was suggested that:

“social welfare services... include a basic core of activities which may make a significant contribution to community development. Conversely, community development programmes often create or reveal additional needs which can be met through application of the skills of social welfare workers. This basic core of activities includes assistance to families in solving both economic and social problems (such assistance may be either material or psychological or both); improving the status of women and youth, where required, and obtaining their fuller participation in community life, strengthening family relationships by promoting child welfare and facilitating adjustments to rapid social changes, particularly where the impact threatens the stability of the family and its social security; helping individuals or groups in need of special care, such as the physically or mentally handicapped, the aged, children requiring special protection, offenders and delinquents, etc.; assisting the community as a whole to understand and meet its own social problems through social surveys and social work research, followed by organized community action... The social worker... may play an important role in promoting a desire for constructive change on the part of the people, receptivity to other technical services and fuller participation in activities designed for the common good.”⁷⁵

This is a very wide field, covering social workers at various levels and with casework, group work and community organization skills. It has been suggested in this chapter that the skills required in community development are technical, educational, social and administrative, and that more attention requires to be given to methods of training workers in social and educational skills. So far, social skills have not been clearly differentiated from the skills required in fundamental education; there is indeed an overlap between them although they are not identical with each other.

The over-all contribution of social work knowledge of working with people to community development staffs could be made: (1) To workers in other technical services as a social element in their training. (2) To multi-purpose or village level workers, who require a considerable measure of knowledge and skill in working with individuals, groups and communities, as well as some technical skills. (3) To community organizers at a higher administrative level who need to combine knowledge of public administration and educational techniques with social work knowledge about work with individuals, groups and communities. (4) As teachers and supervisors on the staffs of community development training centres. (5) As consultants in matters within the special competence of social workers. (6) As social workers at field level.

⁷⁵ E/2931, op. cit., Annex III, pp. 24-25.

PART II

**THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND CURRENT
TRENDS IN TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK**

CHAPTER V

TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK: AN HISTORICAL RETROSPECT

INTRODUCTORY

Social work as an occupation or profession is of very recent growth, though the impulse to give social service, to succour those in need, is both older and more universal. Systematic training for social work is also a recent phenomenon, indeed its beginnings even now lie within living memory. A study of the ways in which social work as a profession is beginning to evolve in time and place, and of the preparation which is thought necessary for it, helps to cast light on its nature as this is beginning to emerge. No thoughtful person could consider the path which it has trodden so far in its brief life, the claims made for it and the various interpretations of its purpose without concluding that its journey has as yet barely begun. This is indeed a profession still in its infancy, whose potentialities and tasks stretch beyond the bounds of present possibilities, whether in work with individuals, groups or communities. A study of the essential content of training for social work is thus bound to include not only solidly based knowledge and its application but also tentative hypotheses and empirical experience not yet validated nor made part of consistent theories of personality and social functioning. These theories themselves only exist fragmentarily at present, but they feed into and are added to by the theory and practice of social work.

It seems worth while before considering the present situation to look at *the first attempts at training for social work in order to see what it was thought relevant to include in the curriculum of the earliest training courses and what were the origins of the systematic studies which later resulted in a conceptual framework for social work with individuals, groups and communities.* Inevitably such a review can only be illustrative and no attempt will be made to analyse the whole development of training for social work during this century.

Social work as a healing profession is a newcomer, though its origin lies in the *religious or humanitarian impulse "to comfort and help the weak-hearted, to raise up them that fall . . . to succour, help and comfort all that are in danger, necessity and tribulation"*. Its roots, like those of medicine and teaching, lie in religious motives of charity and good neighbourliness or in a political or humanitarian faith based upon a desire that mankind may live more richly and in greater freedom. Some of the basic concepts of social work have indeed found expression in different cultures and religions the world over across the centuries.

Social work as it is practised today started to emerge when some reformers with deeper insight began to see that the ways to relieve the necessities of men were not self-evident. Neither the giving nor the

withholding of alms sufficed. Thus it was characteristic of the pioneers of social work as it is understood today—Vives, St. Vincent de Paul, those who evolved the Elberfeld system, Count Rumford, Thomas Chalmers, Octavia Hill, the Barnetts, Charles Loch, Jane Addams, Mary Richmond and others—that they struggled, though in differing ways and with differing insight, to help the individual through an understanding of him in his social *milieu*. They strove not merely to discover how to alleviate material poverty but also how to free men sufficiently from the burden of their circumstances in ways which would make it possible for them to take greater responsibility for the conduct of their lives and the well-being of the community in which they lived.¹

“... charity organization meant a wise, personal charity that would prevent poverty by encouraging independence, providence, self-reliance. Indiscriminate charity demoralized; it encouraged habits of laziness and dependence; it harmed under the guise of help. True charity was concerned to strengthen character and to preserve the family as the fundamental unit of society.”²

Study of the causes of poverty and other social ills as well as of the individual who suffered from their effects was, in varying forms, the basis for action of these pioneers of social work. Sometimes it seemed as though the protection of charitable funds from abuse was regarded by voluntary agencies as a major aim of social work; at other times those who did not themselves suffer from the rigours of extreme poverty or temptation to delinquency appeared to be over-conscious of the thriftlessness and moral laxity of those who did. Nonetheless from the sixteenth century onwards the great pioneers of social work practice, as we know it at the present time, clearly saw man in society as the object of their study, and individual man outcast or hindered from playing his proper role in society as the subject of their compassion.

THE BEGINNINGS OF SOCIAL WORK METHOD

Historically speaking, then, the methods of casework, group work and community organization, as well as rudimentary social research were inherent in the work of the early leaders. These three methods were practised empirically as efforts were made to lift individuals and groups out of the morass of poverty by means of workshops, classes, housing management, clubs, study of the district and its needs, individual visiting, and other devices interwoven with each other. At the same time, consistent attempts were made to try to understand the individual and collective causes of poverty, drunkenness, crime and other social ills.

“This realization was based, understandably enough, upon a rather fragmentary knowledge of ‘causes’ but it tended to shift some emphasis from an internal to an external causation. It may be more accurate to say that the approach became two fold: first, to con-

¹ This also applies to the pioneers of probation in the United Kingdom and the United States, and to the work of Josephine Butler, though these did not themselves add to the methodology of social work nor promote training for it.

² C. L. Mowat, “Charity and Casework in Late Victorian London”, *The Social Service Review* (Chicago), September 1957, p. 260.

tinue to give an individualized service in the light of a growing insight into human character (the more technical term "behaviour" was to appear later), and second, to seek for changes within the existing framework of society that would produce less devastating effects upon the individual."³

Unfortunately, those who conducted the great social and economic analyses of the causes of poverty in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in England did so in isolation from and sometimes with a reciprocated antagonism towards the pioneers of the charity organization movement. The result was that those who were fired with the need for social enquiry and research as a prelude to social action found themselves out of sympathy with those who believed that the problem lay primarily in the individual rather than in his circumstances and who strove painstakingly, though often inappropriately, to help the individual towards responsibility for his affairs, as well as to understand the social and personal causes for his plight.

There were times when the social, environmental and personal approaches began to come together in the days of Octavia Hill and the Barnetts in London and later of Jane Addams, Graham Taylor, Julia Lathrop and the Abbots in Chicago. But in fact that fruitful fusion in the health field which, during this same period, brought together research into the environmental causes of physical disease, laying the foundations of preventive medicine concurrently with the treatment of the sick individual, did not begin to occur until much later in social work. Perhaps it would be truer to say it has only just begun to occur, for it may well be that the discoveries now being made about group relationships and work with communities, as well as about individual motivation and behaviour, will in time enable professional social work to contribute its proper quota of knowledge and skill to social planning and preventive social action. If so, it will be returning to its origins, though on a higher level of the spiral, and with major advances in the behavioural and social sciences incorporated into its methodology. For example, the concept of Thomas Chalmers, Octavia Hill, the Barnetts and the early Charity Organization Society⁴ and settlement movement leaders on both sides of the Atlantic, that to help people effectively does not consist simply in giving them relief but also in helping them through practical means and through belief in their own capacity to make the best use of their own resources is as familiar a postulate in community development as in social work.

THE BEGINNINGS OF TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK

There was of course in the nineteenth century and earlier a far wider range of voluntary effort to meet social and personal need in many countries than that mentioned here. It is, however, significant that it was within those voluntary agencies most concerned to study and understand

³ Arthur Fink, *The Field of Social Work*, rev. ed. (New York, Hay Holt and Co., 1949), p. 105.

⁴ Usually referred to as the COS. This society was started in England and similar societies followed in various cities of the United States.

causation—primarily the early settlement movement and the COS⁵—that systematic training first began, whether in England or the United States. This training was a learning by doing, so far as its content has survived for the analysis of a future generation, and yet it was not purely a “do as I do” apprenticeship learning. The earliest students were composed of little groups of voluntary or full-time paid workers and “agents” gathered round some experienced leader whose creative imagination and realistic devotion to the task of social betterment must have fired them with a sense of purpose, a respect for “the poor” and a desire to help them, which disguised and in a measure atoned for the vast unproven assumptions on which practice was based.

“Fundamentally the training for all these workers (part-time and full-time) was the same: they must all learn to deal with people, to understand the conditions under which they lived and the ways in which these could be improved: they must be familiar with the various agencies for helping people.”⁶

Phrased slightly differently this might represent the objectives of any present-day school of social work, yet it refers to Octavia Hill’s first training activities in 1873.

These led on, from about 1890, to joint training for settlement work and rent-collecting on the Octavia Hill system at the Women’s University Settlement in London. In 1896 this Settlement, the National Union of Women Workers and the COS united to form a Joint Lectures Committee. It was explained in the twenty-eighth annual report of the COS (1897) that “in all these lectures stress is laid on the practical side of charitable work, numerous instances are cited, and the application of the principles of charity explained”. This series of lectures covered an eighteen months’ period and was intended both for paid workers and volunteers. The lectures were given concurrently with field work in the district offices and there was opportunity to “pay visits to institutions”. The following subjects were included:

The scope of charitable work (4 lectures); The family and character, personal work, co-operation and character, thoroughness (4 lectures); The history of the English Poor Law (4 lectures); The care of women and children under the Poor Law (4 lectures); The standard of life (4 lectures); The co-operative movement (4 lectures); Education, care and training of children under the Poor Law (4 lectures); Industrial and reformatory schools; care and education of children under the School Board; children who require special training. Children under the Metropolitan Asylums Board (4 lectures);

Later a number of lectures on medical relief were added.

In the meantime, across the Atlantic there were developments similar to those in London. Courses of lectures were started for workers in the various COS societies, beginning in Brooklyn in 1891. The next step towards more organized training came when Mary Richmond read a paper at the 1897 National Conference of Social Work in which she urged the setting up of a “school of applied philanthropy” whose faculty

⁵ Charity Organization Society.

⁶ Moberly Bell, *Octavia Hill* (London, Constable and Co., 1942), p. 121.

would both study and teach the basic elements common to all forms of social work through a combination of theory and practice. Next year the New York COS started a summer school in philanthropic work. This was a six week's course of lectures, visits of observation and field work under guidance. The lectures included: Private charitable agencies; Child saving (child placing, history of institutions, kindergartens, delinquency, truancy, etc.); Public charities; Medical charities (dispensaries, hospitals, sick children of the poor); Public activities affecting the poor; Treatment of needy families in homes; Neighborhood improvements; Institutional care of adults and others.

Later, additional lectures were added; in 1903, the course was lengthened from six weeks to six months, and evening classes were made available.⁷

In August 1895 a summer institute on social economics was held at Chicago Commons, followed by another sponsored jointly with Hull House. From 1903 social work courses were taught by Graham Taylor and others under the auspices of the University of Chicago.

All the foregoing involve series of lectures interspersed with visits and field work.

The next, and perhaps the biggest step forward was taken in 1899 when the Institute for Social Work Training, the first real school of social work in the world, was started in Amsterdam. The following is an edited version of part of the prospectus of the first course:⁸

Institute for Social Work Training
(established in Amsterdam)

(1) The Institute aims at the methodical, theoretical and practical training of those who wish to dedicate themselves to certain important tasks in the field of social work.

(2) For the time being, the training will be limited to the following fields in social work:

(i) Welfare of the poor; (ii) Direction of workers' housing (housing management); (iii) Providing for the spiritual needs of workers and for a reciprocal *rapprochement* and respect between the various communities (Toynbee work—settlement work); (iv) Child care, for those deprived of their natural guardians and for those who have been taken away from them; (v) Overseers in factories and workshops (social work in industry).

(3) The duration of the training is two years, i.e. the first year provides for social knowledge of a general nature and for a review of the whole field, so that by the end of the first year the students make their choice in the work to which they wish to devote themselves; and the second year aims at the preparation for this special work.

In addition, full-time students may be accepted: either for the first year only, if they aim at a general knowledge of social work, or for the

⁷ See Saul Bernstein and others, *The New York School of Social Work 1898-1941* (Community Service Society of New York, 1942), pp. 8-11.

⁸ Prospectus of the Institute for Social Work Training, Amsterdam, 1899, reproduced by courtesy of the present Director, Dr. J. F. de Jongh.

second year only, if they possess sufficient social knowledge and have already chosen the work to which they intend to dedicate themselves. Part-time students may also be admitted to certain classes and lectures.

(4) The Institute is open to both men and women. The minimum age is twenty-three for the full-time students, and twenty for part-time students.

(5) The theoretical tuition, distributed over two years, comprises:

A. For all students:

1. Regular weekly classes in: (a) State economy and sociology; (b) State institutions; (c) Public Health; (d) A review of the various problems which bear upon the social welfare subjects listed above under 2 (Welfare of the poor; direction of workers' housing; Toynbee work (settlement work); deserted children; overseeing in factories and work-shops).

2. A number of lectures on the following subjects: (a) Workers' legislation; (b) Influence of the main types of employment and their significance for national production and on the workers; (c) History of socialism; (d) Professional associations and trade unions; (e) Youth criminology; (f) Co-operation and co-partnership; (g) The alcohol problem; (h) Savings banks and insurance.

(6) The practical training consists of:

1. The first year (for all students) a preliminary introduction to the activities listed above under 1, without participation in the activities proper;

2. Optional in the first year: attendance at cooking lessons in a school of domestic science;

3. The second year (according to the chosen work field), participating regularly and under adequate supervision, in the activities related to the field;

4. Mainly in the first year, visits to various social institutions and factories, attendance at lectures, conferences etc. related to the field of the particular type of agency. . . .

"We feel that in social work a sound and serious preparation should be considered an indispensable element, if it aims at all at catering for a need. It should be a training with scientific aspects, leading to a general sociological development, linked with knowledge of a large field of legislation, as well as an historical study of various problems. This should, however, emphatically be of a practical nature consisting of active participation and experience in the daily task, in a chosen field, and under adequate scientific and inspiring supervision. . . ."

At the beginning of the present century developments took place rapidly in the United Kingdom and in the United States. In 1903 the School of Sociology, providing a two-year course of integrated theory and practice, grew out of the endeavours of the London COS. Mr., later Professor, Urwick said in the introductory lecture about the curriculum and its purpose: "There is a new knowledge; in it may be found the scientific basis for the social education we need: and it is essential

that the worker should learn it". This new knowledge, as it was to be presented in the course, could be divided into

"(1) The *natural history of society*; (2) That which dealt with how society and the individual grow and change, and what they can and ought to grow and change into, or *social philosophy*; (3) The framework of economic necessities, or *social economics*; (4) Knowledge of the mental processes on which development depends, or *individual and social psychology*."

Social workers cannot be "mere practitioners, leaving to others the task of understanding the theory on which their work is based". Therefore they

"must learn to realise the slow growth that lies behind each present condition and fact; to see in the social structure, whole or part, of state or of institution, the expression of a vital meaning; to feel beneath the seemingly plastic relationships of social life the framework of economic necessities; and to find in each casual tendency and habit the effect of slowly changing mental processes. Not the training of the man of science but the scientific attitude must be theirs; that at least is necessary if experience is to be used aright. And is it unreasonable to believe that experience so guided will lead to a higher level of administration, a surer touch in dealing with what we call our 'social problems'; and above all a better conception and fulfilment of our recognized social duties?"⁹

A systematic plan was also worked out for the students' field work, showing what ground was to be covered and what they were to be taught "under special guidance". This included:

A. Case work. Study of case papers, home visiting, inquiry work, interviewing, preparing a plan for assistance and devising means of carrying out the plan, reporting on applications and advising as to suitable treatment.

B. District work. Study of the district, including industrial conditions and rates of wages, housing and sanitation, poor law and charitable agencies, churches, trade unions, friendly societies and clubs.

C. Organization. Co-operation on sound principles amongst various agencies, organizing meetings, thrift agencies, dispensaries etc., working on local government bodies.

D. "Definite work under an experienced person in some branch or other of charitable work that is not primarily relief work." The list given includes "evening clubs and classes" and "the study of normal industrial and social conditions."¹⁰

There is an astonishingly modern ring about these courses in the basic principles of social work, with emphasis on casework, group work and community organization, on scientific knowledge and on the means of translating this into practice.

A year later, the first university department of social science in England came into existence at the University of Liverpool, following

⁹ Quoted by Marjorie Smith, *Professional Education for Social Work in Britain* (London, The Family Welfare Association, 1951), p. 33.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 64-65.

a training scheme at the Victoria Settlement for Women, and under the inspiration of Charles Loch, Eleanor Rathbone and Elizabeth McAdam.

In the same year, 1904, the scene shifts once more across the Atlantic when the New York School of Philanthropy secured the funds which made a one-year full-time course possible, with Edward T. Devine as Director.

"The 1904-05 courses were largely in the form of a series of lectures, some given by one individual and others given by several. The broad scope of the series is so impressive that it seems worthwhile to illustrate it by reproducing the outlines which appeared in the school catalogue of the period.

"Group A. Survey of the Field:

1. General Survey and Analysis of Social Work
2. The Literature of Charity
3. Social Reform in the Nineteenth Century
4. Some Industrial Causes of Distress
5. Financial Administration of Charitable Agencies
6. Office Economy
7. The Value of Annual Reports and the Art of Writing Them
8. Bequests and Endowments

"Group B. The State in Its Relation to Charity:

1. Public Charitable Institutions in New York State
2. The New York State Board of Charities
3. Boards, Institutions, and Methods in Various States
4. Public Aid and the Right of Relief

"Group C. Racial Traits in the Population, a Study in Sociology:

1. Immigration
 2. The Social Meaning of Immigration
 3. Italian Characteristics
 4. The Characteristics of Jews Coming from Eastern Europe
 5. The American Negro
 6. The Negro in the City. Health and Morality
 7. The Negro in the City. Economic Conditions
 8. The Characteristics of Slavs
- Special Course. The New Basis of Civilization:
A Study in Economics

"Group D. Constructive Social Work:

1. Social Work in Large Cities
2. Social Aspects of Sanitary Work
3. The Tuberculosis Problem
4. The Scope and Function of the Board of Health
5. Welfare Work in Factories and Stores
6. Social Tendencies of Modern Industrialism
7. The Boy's Club
8. The Modern Church as a Factor in Social Progress
9. The Visiting Nurse as a Social Factor

"Group E. The Care of Needy Families in Their Homes:

1. Principles of Relief
2. History of the Development of the Scientific Method in Charity
3. Systems and Methods of a Charity Organization Society
4. Investigation and Treatment. Illustrated by a Study of Actual Case Records
5. A Modern Mendicancy Department
6. The Homeless Man
7. Hospitals, Dispensaries, and Diet Kitchens

"Group F. Child Helping Agencies:

1. Care of Destitute, Neglected, and Delinquent Children
2. Problems of the Institution
3. The Organization and Management of a Society for Helping Children
4. The Practical Work of the Committees and Agents of a Child-Helping Society
5. Placing out and Probation
6. The State and the Defective Child
7. The Feeble-Minded Child. Psychological and Physiological Problems
8. Methods of Education of Feeble-minded and Backward Children
9. Defective and Backward Children in the Public Schools

"Group G. Treatment of the Criminal. Reformatory Methods. Probation:

1. The New Penology, Its Principles and Problems
2. Prison Labor
3. Minor Correctional Institutions
4. Principles and Methods of Reformatory Work
5. Probation Work for Girls and Women
6. The Practical Art of Dealing with Wayward Girls."¹¹

The field work was done under supervision (a full-time supervisor was employed in the succeeding years). It consisted of casework in the COS and of another placement in an agency of the student's choice. There were also "excursions" to other agencies once a week. In 1911 the course was lengthened to two years. In 1919 the School of Philanthropy became the New York School of Social Work.

In 1903 the Chicago Institute of Social Science was started by the Extension Division of the University of Chicago to offer training in social problems. In 1908 it became the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy and offered full-time training for social work under the leadership of Graham Taylor, Allen T. Burns, Edith Abbott and Sophonisba Breckinridge. It was the first school in the United States to become part of a University when, in 1920, it became the Graduate School of Social Service Administration in the University of Chicago.

The early development of training for social work thus passed through various stages, from individual lecture courses and "picking up frag-

¹¹ Saul Bernstein & others, *The New York School of Social Work, 1898-1941*, op. cit., pp. 18-19.

ments of experience under the guidance of other practitioners who have worked long enough to learn that some methods succeed while others fail"¹², to planned courses of theory and practice provided by settlements and the COS, then to independent schools of social work giving one- or two-year full-time courses, and finally to university status as a graduate school or social science department.

It is almost impossible to gauge from lecture titles the content and standard of the various courses which were offered. The following description of early days in Chicago may not be untypical of other courses of the period:

"Looking at the course offerings of either the institute or the school in its first years shows the nature of the educational program. The subjects covered varied somewhat from year to year, but they were all related to social problems, which we would recognize today as concerns of social workers. Usually one course, occasionally two, would be given by a single instructor; most of the courses were series of lectures on one subject, given by almost as many different people as there were sessions in the series. One looks in vain for any semblance of a curriculum or an integrated program of study. The catalogues give little indication of the academic standards that were maintained or even that were attempted. From my own experience, however, which began four years later, it seems that they were far below those of a recognized college. The lectures were usually informative; occasionally they were stimulating. They had the advantage of bringing before us well-known figures in the field who talked about subjects that they knew from experience; but the lectures all too often lacked structure and sounded as if they were given with hasty preparation or no preparation at all."¹³

It seems to have been general for these early lecture courses to be given by a series of different lecturers, which must have meant that the courses lacked coherence. It is also likely that they were largely descriptive, though at the same time the conscious aim of distilling underlying principles from factual material and from practice is clearly apparent in the stated objectives of the courses.

"Fortunately, the early leaders in the field laid a groundwork on which we should be able to build for many years to come. They recognized the necessity of preparing students to render the direct services for which people come to social agencies, to understand the findings of social research and even to use research methods for the advancement of knowledge, and to participate in efforts to modify the social conditions which are inimical to the growth and development of the individual. For many years their problem was to find transmissible knowledge available for teaching."¹⁴

¹² L. Urwick, "Social Education of Yesterday and To-day", 1903, quoted by Marjorie Smith, *Professional Education for Social Work in Britain*, op. cit., p. 32.

¹³ Helen Wright, "Three against Time", *Social Service Review*, March 1954, p. 49.

¹⁴ Helen Wright, "Social Work Education: Problems for the Future", *New Directions in Social Work*, Cora Kasius, ed., (New York, Harper and Bros., 1954), pp. 181-182.

This was indeed the problem because adequate theories of personality development and social functioning were alike lacking when the first courses were started. Much of this was apparent to the early leaders; for example Charles Loch in a paper written in 1907 said:

“Whatever originality of treatment the future may bring forth is not likely, I think, to come from generalities of passing opinion, but from actual observation and experiment in regard to individual cases and in regard to groups of individuals.”¹⁵

His earlier reference to the importance of “social evidence”, as well as much of his writing, profoundly influenced Mary Richmond in her belief that people suffered from social sickness which could be diagnosed and treated. It was she who did more than anyone before her day to analyse social “forces” and to conceptualize social casework through the detailed study of cases, using standard research techniques, thus giving to social work the beginnings of a theoretical basis for its practice.

“The ideology of charity organization in 1889 consisted of an accumulation of slogans concerning general purposes, and minute instructions for the personal behavior of friendly visitors, with almost no attempt to unify the two.”¹⁶

ADVANCES IN SYSTEMATIZING SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

By 1917, with the publication of Mary Richmond’s *Social Diagnosis*, the first great step forward was taken to provide a conceptual basis for social casework practice.

In the United States soon after the First World War the next decisive step was taken when social workers began to incorporate the psychoanalytic theory of human behaviour into casework theory and practice. This interpretation of the dynamics of human motivation, with its emphasis on the nuclear importance of family relationships, particularly in childhood, as well as of unconscious motivation, provided the theory of internal drives as distinct from social “forces” acting upon the individual from without, for which social workers had been seeking. Moreover it made explicable much behaviour which before had been baffling, and showed more effective and transmissible ways than the use of moral exhortation and common sense in helping people to change their often self-destructive behaviour.

“To do this, we came to know that we had to relate ourselves to our troubled client in consideration of what it was he wanted, what his hunger and aim were. Thus, his motivation rather than ours became the propelling force, and he could become an actor in his own problem-solving task rather than, as before, a recipient of such guidance as an active caseworker could give. Toward this end, we learned to enable our client to express and examine his own feelings and attitudes which, formerly, as we had appealed to his conscious

¹⁵ Marjorie Smith, op. cit., p. 35.

¹⁶ Muriel Pumphrey, “Mary Richmond’s Process of Conceptualization”, *Social Casework* (New York), vol. XXXVIII, No. 8, October 1957, p. 399.

reason, had been cloaked or glossed over. Now he came to know and to be better able to cope with some of the unreasonable forces that held him in their grip. As our knowledge and skills grew, the whole practice of social casework expanded to include work with the many problems of psychological as well as social stress as they arose in people's daily functioning."¹⁷

By degrees the knowledge from dynamic psychology was incorporated into casework practice and used as one of the chief tools in social diagnosis and remedial action. Thus for the first time social casework became effectively related to a theory of human functioning which added depth and coherence to the practice and provided a transmissible body of basic knowledge with a related methodology upon which teaching could be built. This personality theory was also found to be consistent in its application with the democratic philosophy of self-determination, or acceptance of the individual and of his freedom of choice, upon which the ethics of the profession were built.

THE BEGINNINGS OF GROUP WORK

Comparatively early the American schools began to include material on work with groups. For example, in 1906 the Chicago School of Civics had a course on "children's clubs and outing work". But social group work began to be systematized for teaching in schools of social work considerably later than social casework. The first course in "group service work" was given in the School of Applied Social Sciences of Western Reserve University in the 1920's. Grace Coyle, a pioneer of social group work teaching in the United States of America, writes of this period:

"In the 1920's, as group work itself was defined and gradually gained some acceptance in the agencies, the theory available anywhere about the group process was very meager. . . . As group workers began, in the 1920's and 1930's, to define their functions and to examine their practice by a study of group records, there evolved certain agreed upon concepts and at least a rudimentary theory which drew upon the theoretical sources available at that time for its understanding of the behavior of groups. When group work began to be taught in the schools of social work (1925-1935), the theory of individual behavior taught was already in its psychoanalytic stage. It therefore became necessary to integrate an advanced and highly developed personality theory already focused on treatment purposes, especially on emotional problems, with a relatively rudimentary small group theory and with agency programs geared to recreation and informal education rather than individualized treatment."¹⁸

Even now, in schools of social work as a whole, this aspect of social work practice is barely beginning to be systematically studied and taught. This holds true to an even greater extent in regard to work

¹⁷ Helen Harris Perlman, "Freud's Contribution to Social Welfare", *Social Service Review* (Chicago), June 1957, p. 198.

¹⁸ Grace Longwall Coyle, *Social Science in the Professional Education of Social Workers* (New York, Council on Social Work Education, 1958), p. 31.

with communities. Much of the understanding of human behaviour, which has come to casework from dynamic psychology and been extended in practice and the analysis of practice, is also applicable to work with groups and communities. Significant advances have been made in this respect, particularly through group therapy and the study of small group process. From the beginning in all branches of social work, efforts have been made to incorporate findings from sociology and cultural anthropology, both to achieve better understanding of social work with individuals, groups and communities and also to add this further dimension to the understanding of human relationships and to the administration of social agencies. Recently considerable progress has begun to be made as a result of advances in these branches of the social sciences.

GAINS AND LOSSES IN EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK

In these early days of training for social work, there was much emphasis on the necessity to understand social and economic factors as they influenced the lives and fortunes of individuals. Many of the early leaders of social work, whether in America or Europe, were also afire with a passion for social reform. To them, knowledge of social causation was to be sought, however painfully, in order to campaign effectively for social action to right social injustice. That is to say, the knowledge was to be used to effect social change, as well as to help the individual, either by direct work with local communities, as in the settlement movement, by field research or by direct political or community action for social reform.

In England, attention was increasingly focused on broad social and economic issues. Important though they were in themselves, these contributed to a divorce between social work practice and the basic knowledge on which it should rest. The independent School of Sociology in London came to an end in 1912, and social work education began to move into university social science departments from 1904 onwards. By degrees the teaching became more academic with less emphasis on the relation between the study of economics, social administration, political theory, and psychology and actual practice in social agencies. An Australian social work educator says of this period:

“In England . . . there was excellent teaching of the social sciences, social philosophy and history in the social science departments of the few universities where training had already been established, but academic studies were almost unrelated to practical work that was either apprenticeship training or observation in the various forms of social administration. In the many fragmentary, specialised vocational training courses outside the university students lacked the aid of disciplined theory. Yet in the 1890's when the first lectures were arranged, the closest relations had existed between academic study and practical work in the Charity Organization Societies and the Settlements between the needs of practical situations and the study of social problems.”¹⁹

¹⁹ Amy Wheaton, *Education for Social Work* (Adelaide, Australian Association of Social Workers, 1957), p. 2.

No attempt will be made in this study to go beyond the first beginnings of training for social work by outlining the expansion of training for social work as it developed later by stages in Europe, Latin America, Canada, Australia, various countries of Asia, South Africa, New Zealand, the Philippines, the Middle East and elsewhere. These developments have already been described and analyzed in the two preceding United Nations Surveys of Training for Social Work.

The reason why in the present study the early beginnings of social work education in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries and the actual curricula have been assessed is in order to show that although social work education is nowhere as old as one man's allotted three score years and ten, yet it was based in the beginning on some principles which would still be regarded as sound today. At the start, theory and practice went hand in hand with each other, students were to learn the fundamentals of the social sciences and to apply these in direct observation and practice. They were to learn skill in social work and administration in a planned way and under guidance; while the school faculty and the teaching agencies were to undertake continuous research and enquiry into the causation of and remedy for social ills.

It is salutary to remind ourselves at the present day that all this happened in rapidly growing cities where people suffered from gross poverty, long hours of work in insanitary conditions at sweated wages; where alcoholism, begging, destitution, homeless children, bad health, high infant mortality and other death rates were general; where there were almost no public services except a deterrent poor law; and where, moreover, only rudimentary knowledge existed about causation, treatment, cure or prevention of any of these social ills; and in any event opinions differed as to whether or not they were treatable at all. Yet the pioneers in these "under-developed" areas of Amsterdam, Chicago, London and New York discovered empirically what would be regarded at the present day as essentially the right answers about the subjects and methods of social work education. All the same, as has been shown, they were only at the beginning of building up the content, evolving teaching methods, undertaking research and producing the necessary teaching material.

The fact that in the United States of America social work education continued on these early lines of integrated theory and practice, absorbing material from the social and behavioural sciences and struggling to apply this in practice, as well as to feed back field observation into the theoretical structure, probably accounts for that country's leadership in this subject at the present day. But what went wrong elsewhere? If this method of professional education seemed obvious to the leaders on both sides of the Atlantic why did it fail for so long to develop on similar lines elsewhere? To analyse why this happened would not be particularly profitable for the purpose of this study since it is already clear that essentially the wrong turning was a divorce between theory and practice. This took different forms as training for social work began to spread to other countries in the first part of the twentieth century. In the British and other university social science departments in different parts of the world students were well, sometimes inspiringly, taught social history, social philosophy, psychology, economics, and social

administration and legislation; but systematic connexions between these subjects and practice in social agencies the students were expected both by the university and the agency to make for themselves. In other courses, lectures were given in the training institution and the students learned, often by careful instruction in the class-room as well as in the agency, to carry out particular jobs efficiently. Thus in some training institutions there was much theory and little practice, in others much practice and little theory. So, in effect, students often received an apprenticeship training, partly in their student days and partly when they began to work. It was left to the individual to apply general principles to individual situations, as well as to learn when it was valid or not valid to generalize from particular examples. The result was that much of the social science knowledge evaporated because it was not put to use, while practice was based more on giving agency services efficiently than on application of any consistent theory of human behaviour and motivation. Hence the comparatively narrow margin of difference in performance between the trained and the untrained, and the failure

“to recognize that good social work is no field only for robust and commonsense goodheartedness, and material and medical relief. It needs also the leadership of very skilled people, trained to assess situations, not in terms of [relief] scales or [their own] emotions, but in the light of a critical understanding of the infinite variety of human relationships in a continually changing society.”²⁰

For some years now, social work education has been striving to recapture its lost early wisdom and to learn to apply, adapt and expand American methods and literature creatively in different social conditions and cultures. The present-day curricula of many of the older schools, as well as the newer schools of Asia and Australia, are based on interrelated theory and practice; while in other countries the world over great efforts are being made to heal the breach between theory and practice. Various attempts to test out and use generic principles of social work in different cultural settings are a significant development at the present day. Unfortunately they have so far gone almost unnoted from the point of view of systematic recording and study of the results.

So far as the three social work methods are concerned, casework and group work as they are now understood have chiefly grown from American experience, analysis and study. There have also been recent reinforcements to group work theory from experience of group psychotherapy and the sociological study of group processes and relationships in other countries as well. Community organization has also begun to be systematized in North America and elsewhere. At the same time, research, administration and teaching are taking their place as aspects of practice and developing theory, which are essential to any profession as it begins to establish itself.

NEXT STEPS

Professional social work education used to be regarded by some as the prerogative of economically rich countries. This is changing, as social

²⁰ Roger Wilson, “Social Work in a Changing World”, *Social Work* (London), October 1950, p. 477.

welfare provision calls for skilled personnel to implement it. It is in any event interesting to reflect that casework and group work methods of social work began in the poverty of Western cities, while work with communities, which started in the slums of Western cities through the settlement movement, is going through its growing pains afresh in the poverty of Eastern and other villages. It is also being applied in new ways, with much needed additions to basic theory, in disintegrated urban areas. Although social work concepts and methods as they are now emerging have proved to be applicable under all circumstances, it would appear to be poverty which has been the intellectual and emotional spur to their initial discovery. In countries where poverty, disease, ignorance and a low level of living are normal, it would seem that training for social work must concern itself with the relations between the practice of social work, the need for fundamental changes in the socio-economic structure of the society, and the steps being taken or contemplated to bring about these changes.

At the second stage, that is to say in certain countries where gross material poverty no longer exists, it is social maladjustment, tensions in industrial relationships, and problems of delinquency and of mental ill-health which are providing the incentive to experiments with the use of individual casework and of group discussion, group process and group therapy to lessen personal and social malfunctioning by releasing tensions and lowering the barriers to understanding and co-operation. Where a number of highly organized public and voluntary social agencies exist, further skills are called for to engage these agencies in working co-operatively to identify and meet new social needs, in conformity with the desire of the local community.

Much of this discovery and experimentation is going on outside traditional social work practice. The three major challenges facing social work practitioners and teachers at the present time might be said to be how to add to and translate into social work practice this growing knowledge about group and community process; how to turn sociological knowledge to effective use in social work practice; and how to make the old and new knowledge and skill of social workers available in helping to create communities, in administration and in the formulation and carrying out of social policy. "The way ahead, it may be suggested, lies in the alliance of sociology, psychiatry and social work and administration."²¹

CHAPTER VI

NON-PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF AUXILIARY WORKERS: IN-SERVICE TRAINING

INTRODUCTORY

One of the major trends in social welfare at the present time is the recognition that both professional and non-professional workers whose

²¹ T. S. Simey, "Social Service as a Profession," *Social Service Quarterly* (London), Winter 1956, p. 113.

functions involve direct services to people need a "social" or "mental health" component in their training. Thus, although the professionally qualified social worker is emerging as an expert in working with man in his social relationships, yet because of the all-pervasive nature of these relationships and the delicate balances of mental health, it is now well recognized that all the professions whose aim is to help and heal need knowledge about human behaviour. This is partly on account of the damage which may be done and the frustrations which may be experienced through reliance on common sense alone. Examples are the effect of studies on maternal deprivation in changing attitudes of hospital staffs to parental visiting of sick children, and the failure of some community development projects where insufficient or misdirected attention was paid to the people's desires as expressed in their responses to the project. This psycho-social orientation is thus recognized as a necessary part of the skill and understanding of doctors, nurses (including public health nurses and midwives), teachers, institutional staffs of all kinds, home economists, agriculturalists, administrators, architects, magistrates and judges, and persons performing various other functions which involve direct work with people.

VARIED MEANING OF THE TERM "AUXILIARY"

In almost every part of the world there is a shortage of persons with full professional qualifications so that it has been found necessary to identify the less skilled portions of their work and to use auxiliaries to them to carry out certain functions. This alone is not a wholly accurate statement because there is a noticeable trend for auxiliary or semi-professional occupations in their own right to develop as scientific knowledge is applied. Thus a physiotherapist, for example, is auxiliary to a doctor but not a doctor *manqué*, in that an intensification of skills would not result in his becoming a doctor. A truer concept in such instances would be of various well-qualified workers performing complementary functions, with any one of them at any given time being "auxiliary" to the other. Thus a psychiatrist may advise a social worker on the psycho-dynamics of a case and the social worker may advise the psychiatrist on social functioning.

In the commonly accepted meaning of the term an "auxiliary" is someone doing less skilled work of the same nature as that of the person to whom he is auxiliary. The term is also used when from time to time a member of one profession may be working under the direction of a member of another not closely related profession, as for example, when a teacher may be "auxiliary" to a nutritionist in a school feeding programme. In short, it would appear that the term "auxiliary" is used in different senses and that at some points it is sometimes confused with team work.

The following definitions were proposed by the United Nations and its specialized agencies in the fifteenth report of the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination to the Economic and Social Council:

"(a) The term 'auxiliary worker' is used by the United Nations family or organizations to designate a paid worker in a particular technical field with less than full professional qualifications in that

field who assists and is supervised by a professional worker. Illustrations may be found in each field, e.g., nurses' aides, sanitarians, nutrition aides, personnel for children's institutions, or labour welfare staff. In some cases he may be fully qualified in one particular field and 'auxiliary' in another field; for example, a teacher may be a nurse's aide on a part-time basis.

"(b) A 'multi-purpose worker' is a paid worker trained at a sub-professional level in two or more technical fields, e.g., health and welfare. Certain experiments are now being carried out in a number of countries to test the practicability of training and employing such workers for community development.

"(c) The term 'community workers' is used to designate the generalized village worker, often a volunteer, who not only performs many simple tasks such as emergency relief work but is also highly important in organizing groups for community enterprises, recreation or other social action. They may often be the political, religious or educational leaders of the village."¹

It seems that in relation to social work the term "auxiliary" is commonly used in the following different senses:

(a) Persons who are assistants to and working under the direction of professionally trained social workers to carry out a number of functions. These functions include reception of clients, some interviewing and routine visits, making arrangements of various kinds in connection with a social service offered to clients, conducting play centres and other group activities.

(b) Persons who are otherwise trained, for example as secretaries, and who assist social workers by undertaking some administrative functions.

(c) Persons with other professional qualifications who, for purposes of social work co-operation, carry out a function auxiliary to their own main function. For example, public health workers or home economists who report cases which seem to require social work intervention.

(d) Persons with related professional qualifications with whom social workers co-operate as members of a team, for example, in a child guidance clinic.

(e) Persons who, with or without training, undertake a range of semi-skilled social work activities within their competence, but not necessarily under the direction of a professionally qualified social worker.

(f) Persons who, with or without training, are being used to fill posts in which some of the work requires a full social work training. This situation arises either because of ignorance of the professional social work skills required to give certain services, which results in failure to appoint only fully qualified workers to such posts; or because insufficient qualified workers are available to fill these posts.

The essential distinction thus rests upon functions performed rather than upon whether or not there is supervision or whether or not the task is inferior. These functions are of value and importance in their own right. The auxiliary is not the poor relation of the social worker, any

¹ E/2512, annex, p. 11.

more than the social worker is the poor relation of the psychiatrist or sociologist, or the nurse of the doctor. Confusion and dissension only arise when different functions are not clearly distinguished and suitably qualified persons employed to fulfill the appropriate function. "In social work . . . there are functions of varied degrees of complexity and calling for differentiated degrees of skill. The functions that call for specialized professional knowledge and skills on the part of the worker may be referred to as a professional functions. There are other functions which, though falling within the area of social work, may not call for the exercise of specialized skills and which can be performed by persons with lesser equipment under the supervision of a professional. These latter functions may be referred to as auxiliary. It is important to note that the terms auxiliary and professional describe the nature of functions and not the persons."²

The present discussion is, of course, confined to the social work function and training of auxiliary workers for various types of service in different parts of the world.

The auxiliary function to be analysed will be almost wholly confined to semi-skilled social work activities.³

SOME COMMON ELEMENTS IN THE USE OF AUXILIARY WORKERS

In discussing the use of social work auxiliaries the world over, it is inevitable that broad generalizations must be made which do not necessarily fit all situations. Most international discussions about auxiliaries have referred primarily to community development programmes in backward rural areas. This has perhaps tended to divert attention from the degree to which essentially the same problems exist in practically every country. The shortage of professionally qualified social workers is almost universal. Therefore "the need for auxiliary and community workers arises in the first instance from the lack of a sufficient number of professional personnel. By entrusting certain functions to auxiliary workers it is possible to spare professional workers for tasks in which their technical competence can be used to the best advantage."⁴ This problem exists not only in countries with practically no clearly structured and well-established social welfare provision, but also in those with a highly developed and complex range of such services.

The employment of auxiliaries is often taken to be a concession to necessity, with the implied suggestion that the services in question should be staffed by professional social workers if and when these become available. It is, however, also argued that in any country there is some straightforward work which could be satisfactorily carried out by auxili-

² *United Nations Asia and the Far East Seminar on Training for Community Development and Social Work, Lahore, West Pakistan, 9-20 December 1957* (TAA/AFE/4), p. 37.

³ For a useful discussion of similar issues in a related field, see World Health Organization, *Expert Committee on Professional and Technical Education of Medical and Auxiliary Personnel, Third Report*. Geneva, May 1956. (WHO Technical Report Series No. 109).

⁴ "Summary Report on the Training of Auxiliary and Community Workers" (United Nations, E/CN.5/306), p. 5.

ary workers, provided that adequate methods exist for identifying needs or situations beyond the competence of such workers to meet. This of course involves a thorough-going analysis of the job to be done and the degree of skill involved in it. Unfortunately, however,

“in many agencies jobs are not clearly defined in terms of the qualifications required for effective performance. Hence, no distinction may be made between functions assigned to professional workers and those assigned to semi-professional and auxiliary workers or untrained volunteers. Consequently, professional social workers may be heavily burdened with tasks that could be equally well performed by workers with quite different or less advanced preparation, and conversely, auxiliaries may be called upon to undertake tasks for which they lack knowledge and skill.”⁵

To some extent the level at which auxiliaries are able to work effectively will depend on the amount of support they receive through the way their employing agency is planned and operated. It is impossible to escape the conclusion that analysis of social work as a whole should take into account the social agency and the community's social awareness, as well as the social worker *per se*. Some aspects of this support and its relation to the use of auxiliaries will be discussed further in the section on in-service training (see pp. 145-150). The point of note at the present moment is the risk that auxiliaries may do damage, miss important indications of need or malfunctioning, or be wasteful because ineffective, unless they are in fact auxiliary to persons with higher qualifications than themselves in the same field. This also means that the jobs they are to do should be clearly defined; that they should be given a training strictly relevant to this function; that they should receive appropriate support in their work to ensure that their training is consolidated rather than wasted; and that they should be enabled to carry out at an acceptable level the task which is expected of them. It is especially important that auxiliaries should be supervised by persons with higher qualifications (including greater experience) in the same field. It is not uncommon in countries where social welfare provision is well developed, as also in those where it is newly starting, to find non-professional social workers directed by administrators, or by professionals qualified in another field, for example medicine.

If there is an auxiliary social work function to be fulfilled in countries at any stage in the development of their social welfare provision, this must be related to job definitions and to the most effective use of professionally qualified social workers. It is suggested that the following are key points at which such qualified workers should be used when they have gained sufficient experience:—

(a) To undertake certain selected initial interviews or appraisals of a situation, whether people are referred by social agencies or come direct to the service; or whether the service is taken to the people, as in work with groups and communities.

(b) To allocate cases, after the initial social diagnosis, to workers able to give a social work service at the necessary level.

⁵ *Training for Social Work: Second International Survey* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1955.IV.9), p. 8.

(c) To undertake direct work requiring a professional skilled service, whether in casework, group work or work with communities.

(d) To supervise the work of less or newly qualified workers, in the teaching as well as the administrative sense. This will include an in-service training function.

(e) To act as consultants both to qualified and less qualified social workers as well as to members of related professions.

(f) To fill senior posts as administrators, consultants and trainers, and in social planning and policy making in the operation of social welfare programmes.

The foregoing suggestions would apply universally because in essence they are principles for the most effective use of scarce professional personnel. The only qualification that needs to be made relates to the clientele of the service, whether this be in pioneer situations in backward rural areas or in a social agency in a highly complex urban area. In most agencies the clientele is mixed, so far as the level of skill demanded of social workers is concerned. But in some forms of social work, for example probation and psychiatric social work, most of the clients will require professional treatment skills, because this itself is the nature of the service. The same principle applies to some group work and community organization where this can only be effectively undertaken by skilled workers. It is also of course true that some individuals, groups or communities will need skilled treatment at certain points of crisis or failure of motivation but may be handed over to a less skilled worker if they become more stabilized. In short, to summarize by a misquotation, professional social workers will be needed in many social agencies by some of the clients all of the time, by some of the clients some of the time, but not by all of the clients all of the time. They will all require (and should ideally receive) an initial social diagnosis to determine the level and type of service they require. Hidden problems may also come to light at later stages.

If these conclusions are valid, they have important implications for the total programme of social work education in any given country.

"It is usual in most countries to provide only one level of full-time professional training. In countries where social work education is at a high professional level it is not possible to meet the total demand for such qualified workers, consequently programmes of in-service training are widespread as a means of continuously raising the standard of both the trained and the untrained. In other countries the accepted training may be at a lower level, but this may result in more extensive recruitment of rank and file workers. Thus there may be less necessity for a lower level training in such countries."⁶

Neither situation can be regarded as wholly satisfactory. The demands of present day social welfare provision call for a nucleus of social workers of the highest personal qualities and with the most advanced training which it is possible to give them, so that a general training at a com-

⁶ "Report of United Nations Meeting of Experts on Social Work Training, Munich, 28 July—1 August 1956", p. 5.

paratively elementary level does not meet the needs of the situation. On the other hand, highly qualified workers are likely to be in short supply in any foreseeable future. In this imbalance between supply and demand a series of *ad hoc* specialized courses and planned or unplanned on-the-job training tend to fill the vacuum. Often, indeed, workers with no training at all are in fact employed to do work that must be done.

This unsatisfactory situation may be perpetuated by professional social workers themselves because they fear that to train another group of workers at a lower level would undermine the status of social work and result in a less good service to clients. Yet in fact "no system of training and employing auxiliary staff can be established without professional workers to train, supervise and guide such workers and to assist in the planning, organization and evaluation of services".⁷

These fears are however bound to persist if there has not been thorough job analysis resulting in clear definition of function; if agencies make ill-judged use of their best qualified workers so that performance does not reflect the best development of professional talent; and if the programmes offered by schools of social work are not at a sufficiently high level or sufficiently well related to the demands of practice to guarantee that someone with a professional qualification will be able, with good working conditions, to give a better standard of service than someone with a lower level of training. Another type of difficulty arises where attempts to secure higher salaries for professionally qualified social workers leads agencies to prefer auxiliaries.

"In view of the growing demand in the social welfare field for the services of personnel of the highest calibre, the problem of the kind of training to be given and the academic level on which it should be offered merits careful attention. There is evidence to suggest that, in some countries at least, there may be a need for two distinct types of social work preparation, with education on the university level (though not necessarily within a university) for persons wishing to qualify as professional social workers and less intensive training on a lower academic level for persons who would subsequently function under the supervision of fully qualified social workers as social work aides or assistants. Different level of training might have the disadvantage of creating hierarchical distinctions within the profession, or increasing existing confusion as to the boundaries of social work practice, and of denying opportunities for professional preparation to persons, otherwise well-qualified, who do not possess the necessary academic requirements for study on a high educational level. On the other hand, the problem of hierarchical distinctions is already present in social work, with persons not qualified by professional education occupying executive and administrative positions and with both trained and untrained persons working side-by-side for the same wage in positions of lesser responsibility. Training on two academic levels might therefore have the advantage of opening up posts of high responsibility to persons with professional social work training, of placing more competent personnel in the lower ranks and of hastening the day when all personnel

⁷ *Social Progress through Community Development* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1955.IV.18), p. 109.

discharging social work responsibilities would have preparation for the tasks they perform.”⁸

It is also important to look at the whole subject of the use and training of auxiliaries from their own point of view. They too may have a life career and proper pride in their job at stake. They may have years of experience and devotion to the service of their clients behind them. They have the right to training and advancement and that their work shall not be devalued nor they themselves demeaned because their qualifications are less good than those of the professional social worker. If there is an essential and permanent place for them in such social welfare services then their work should receive recognition as good in its own right rather than being a makeshift or a second best. This necessitates adequate training for them, planned in such a way that they may go forward to take full professional training on proof of ability, together with agency recognition and support, and well organized in-service training. The social work auxiliary has no less right to appropriate status, to a satisfying career, to decent conditions of work and to community recognition than the professionally qualified and experienced social worker, under whose direction he should work.

On any realistic appraisal of the situation in any country from the most to the least socially developed, it appears that the total range of social work education should provide for:

(a) Professional education through courses of integrated theory and practice at the highest level which knowledge and resources make possible.

(b) Substantial full-time courses of integrated theory and practice at a lower level of knowledge and skill for auxiliaries who will undertake less skilled work, under supervision. It is realized that in present circumstances it is not invariably possible for such workers to be supervised by professional social workers.

“ . . . we know that in most areas where the need is greatest, such highly qualified workers, under whose close direction auxiliaries could work, hardly exist. In reality . . . auxiliaries are often ‘enabling workers’, using their native intuition in helping people to solve their problems and working without dependence on outside guidance.”⁹

This situation reinforces the necessity to give them the best and most appropriate training that can be devised; and at the same time to improve the available professional training, qualitatively and quantitatively.

(c) Well planned and continuous in-service training.

(d) Courses of various kinds in which the “social” content is shared with candidates going into other allied occupations—medicine, public health nursing, teaching, home economics, work in children’s institutions, penal institutions and various types of institution for the care of socially inadequate persons.

“There is need for better knowledge of the process of co-ordination and concerted action as well as for improvement of skills in human

⁸ *Training for Social Work, An International Survey* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1950.IV.11), p. 91-92.

⁹ “Training of Welfare Personnel” (United Nations, E/CN.5/304), p. 6.

relations. Some of this knowledge can be imparted in the traditional manner by lectures and written material. Such material should reflect the common-sense observations of experienced workers with regard to problems and processes in community development. Training in co-ordination and co-operation skills is far more difficult. An increasing use is being made of methods worked out in the 'human relations' and 'group work' fields. Such methods are particularly useful where personnel must be trained to work in teams, in committees co-ordinating the work of various agencies and departments and in relations with the public."¹⁰

The nature and content of full professional training for social work has already been discussed in some detail. It remains to consider in this chapter the essential content of the training of auxiliary workers and of in-service training.

TYPES AND FUNCTIONS OF AUXILIARY WORKERS

The ways in which auxiliary workers are actually used are highly relevant to the desirable content of training courses.

In some countries they may be known as social or welfare assistants or aides. They are then employed in public assistance, social security and other mass public services. They may have full-time or in-service training and they may or may not work under the supervision of professional social workers. Such workers whether paid or voluntary are "single-purpose" and they usually fulfil a comparatively narrow function within a highly organized agency. This function may or may not carry the obligation to show initiative and to take responsibility for decisions. Essentially the same situation exists in group work and community organization.

"Auxiliary workers are needed and are being used in a number of countries in urban as well as rural areas for such organized social services as: family and child welfare, including day care services and institutions for children; welfare services for youth; medical social services; recreation; and relief rehabilitation programmes."¹¹

In many countries auxiliaries are employed in large numbers in complex public services with a well-defined structure. In other countries the major focus is on the use of auxiliaries as multi-purpose and community workers in community development programmes.¹²

"A multi-purpose worker has been defined as a worker who is trained in more than one technical field, of which at least one can be considered his basic field."¹³

This definition as such applies alike to certain workers in community development programmes and also to those in established public welfare services who fulfil a double function.

¹⁰ *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 111.

¹¹ "Training of Welfare Personnel", op. cit., p. 8.

¹² The United Nations and the specialized agencies intend to make a study of the use of various types of workers at the local level.

¹³ For a detailed discussion of these terms and the overlapping between them in different countries see "Summary Report on the Training of Auxiliary and Community Workers", op. cit., p. 9.

The auxiliary may be a "specialist" in that he operates in one field only, with or without close supervision; or he may operate and have knowledge in more than one field. The two universal characteristics of auxiliaries are that they have less than professional training, and that they are field workers whose activities bring them into direct contact with the consumers of the service, indeed they are the medium through which the service reaches the willing, indifferent or unwilling consumer. It is this which makes them of such great importance because for many communities, groups or individuals in need, their experience of the service and its effectiveness in meeting a given need is embodied in the particular auxiliary worker or workers with whom they have dealings.

"Many agencies are now realizing that the worker is even more important than the programme; that it is his attitude to the people and his skill in working with them that mainly make for success or failure."¹⁴

TRAINING OF AUXILIARY WORKERS

The core problems in the training of auxiliary workers are to recruit persons of adequate personality, intelligence and educational background; to provide courses which will give them sufficient knowledge and skill, and bring about essential changes in attitude in the time available; and to continue to reinforce their initial training by planned in-service training when they are on the job. These problems are different in degree though not in kind from the considerations which apply to the more substantial professional training. The discussion of educational method in Part IV relates also to the training of auxiliary workers.

Selection

There is universal agreement about the importance of good selection. In large social welfare agencies the workers to be trained as auxiliary social workers (or field staff) may be selected because of special aptitude and interest from staff already employed by the agency. Alternatively, a defined period of employment may be regarded as a vocational selection test before admission to the training course, or the candidates may be required to undergo a pre-entry selection course.

The basic education qualification demanded will depend on the general education available in the country. In some it will be completion of secondary school education: in others literacy may not necessarily be demanded unless it is essential to the services to be performed. This educational balance is in fact redressed to a large extent by personality factors, since in countries which offer a good general education and also enjoy full employment some persons of fairly limited calibre may have to be trained as auxiliaries; where in countries without universal education and where employment is more restricted, candidates for training may have limited basic education but may possess considerable intelligence and personality. Also:

"with improved teaching techniques, including the use of audio-visual devices and of demonstration, discussion and activity methods,

¹⁴T. R. Batten, *Communities and Their Development* (Oxford University Press, 1957), p. 188.

it has frequently been possible to relax scholastic requirements in recruiting trainees, without prejudice to the quality of the service rendered. The idea that some subject matter is 'theoretical' or 'difficult' is undergoing change; it is now possible to bring within the reach of unschooled persons knowledge and skills for a variety of responsible functions that would not otherwise be theirs."¹⁵

It is generally agreed that it is desirable to train village people for work in villages, partly because they themselves accept and know village life and partly because they are more easily able to gain the people's confidence.

"Thus it has been said with regard to rural areas that the 'key to the extension of services is local personnel—people who are willing to live in the village at the standard of village life, who are known by local people, know their customs and speak their language'. In a more general way, it is asserted that auxiliary workers have shown themselves able to understand local needs and attune their approach to the psychology of the community served. The fact that these workers 'belong' to the community enables them to demonstrate more effectively to the community its own capacity for self-help and to promote active and responsible co-operation by the people."¹⁶

This is not universally true because not all outside workers are regarded with suspicion and in some communities it would not be acceptable, for example, for young men and women to return after training to teach and advise their elders. One of the basic reasons why local people are usually more readily accepted anywhere is no doubt because they know local customs, prejudices, moral codes and ways of regulating conduct and relationships. This is also true in some highly sophisticated urban areas. In effect, local workers know by nurture those things which it would be much beyond them to assimilate by the study of sociology and cultural anthropology. "As experienced workers have stated, it is quicker to give the 'insider' technical knowledge than the 'outsider' community knowledge".¹⁷ It is important to recruit and train suitable women as well as men because much social welfare centred on raising the level of life in the home, in other situations, it may be desirable to recruit men to a predominantly feminine occupation.

In most training programmes the emphasis is on personal qualities, ability to get on with people, non-authoritarian attitudes, willingness to stick at difficult and sometimes disheartening work, a desire to serve people rather than a regard for personal gain. The qualities listed as requirements in various auxiliary worker training programmes run the gamut of desirable human attributes. In realistic terms, it is important that there should be a sufficient number of suitable candidates from whom to select; that effective means should be used to assess the candidate's personality and capacity for growth: that these methods should result

¹⁵ *Study Kit on Training for Community Development* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1957.IV.6), p. 12.

¹⁶ *Summary Report on the Training of Auxiliary and Community Workers*, op. cit., pp. 5-6.

¹⁷ *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 100.

in the most suitable being selected; that their further growth should be promoted by the whole training experience; and that they should receive adequate support and encouragement in their jobs.

Selection methods vary considerably. Some of the most thorough-going include periods of a few days to a couple of months in work in villages in order to give both candidates and the training agency a chance to test aptitudes. Some selection procedures include tests of physical endurance, mental attitudes and willingness to become a 'dirty hands' worker. Some of these methods are similar to the officer selection tests used by the armed services of various countries during the Second World War. A comparative study has yet to be made of the principles involved in such selection procedures, how they should be used and how results may be validated. They are likely to be more useful than selection under artificial interview conditions, but unless they are used with precision they have an affinity with the 'throw them in at the deep end' philosophy on which some social work students were trained in the past. Probably the most important single item in personality selection (that is, apart from education, intelligence and physical health) is to assess the candidate's capacity for growth and development, thus any selection procedure should be looked at in the light of this rather than at responses at a given point in time and under artificial (and stressful) conditions. For a general discussion of selection procedures, see Chapter XIV.

Training centres

The aim should be to make the best and most economical use possible of scarce teaching resources and accommodation. Many training courses tend to be small, specialized and inbred, with syllabuses which seem to have been designed without the help of specialists in educational method. Many have also been started on an *ad hoc* basis as programmes have been initiated for which some staff training was essential: others are permanent training centres for one agency or serving various agencies. The tendency appears to be to set up permanent training centres where various types of worker may be trained together in order to strengthen the team spirit and give an inter-disciplinary approach.

It would seem to be highly desirable, so far as the social content is concerned, that health, child welfare, home economics, agricultural and other workers should share certain teaching and discussion of practice with each other so that the overlap in their social function, their knowledge of how to work with people, may create a common bond and common attitudes.

There are arguments both for and against regional as opposed to local or national training centres. From the point of view of administrative efficiency and the most economical use of resources there are cogent arguments in favour of regional or national training centres. Regional centres may also help "to establish common bonds between the workers everywhere and at all levels and thereby help them take a broad view of their work as a movement".¹⁸ The disadvantages, in addition to language problems, are that the local field work opportunities may be too different from the conditions in which the students will ultimately work

¹⁸ *Study Kit on Training for Community Development*, op. cit., p. 14.

and that to train them far from their own locality destroys some of the realities of such training for them, besides activating personal problems. These disadvantages are overcome by local courses. But local courses not only face problems of staffing but also that the people in surrounding villages or urban localities may grow weary of being 'developed' by students. Occasionally these difficulties have been met by making the courses themselves mobile so that the staff moves as a group to another locality as and when this seems desirable.¹⁹

Under any circumstances it will be appropriate to discover what available resources exist for the various aspects of training and to endeavour to make use of these, in so far as it is possible to do so while at the same time securing a well co-ordinated syllabus. It is also desirable that the overall planning for the training of auxiliary workers should be done on a national basis, even though particular courses may be provided by national, international or voluntary agencies.

Schools of social work could play an important part in the training of auxiliary workers in general. They are usually hampered in doing so by lack of staff and lack of funds. Nonetheless:

"professional schools . . . are being confronted with such questions as: whether at this stage of their development they should extend their own programmes to include special training courses for auxiliary and community workers in the welfare field: what their responsibilities and relationships should be to training programmes for this purpose under other auspices and for in-service training for employed workers; what responsibility they should assume for contributing to the social content of training programmes for auxiliaries in related fields such as health, or for multi-purpose auxiliary and community workers; and how they might best discharge such responsibilities. The tendency of some of the professional schools in economically less-developed areas is increasingly to accept responsibilities for training at different educational levels, and in so far as their resources permit for contributing to the development of auxiliary training programmes under other auspices."²⁰

Training centre staffs

It is of course essential for training centres to have at least a good nucleus of full-time staff; even though some part-time teachers must be used. Those who teach aspects of social work should be professionally qualified and with good experience as practising social workers (in the particular field under consideration). These social work teachers may be required to teach some aspects of human behaviour and methods of working with individuals, groups and communities, both to auxiliary workers whose primary function will be social work or work with communities, and also to those whose primary function will be in another field. They will also be called upon to supervise field work. "It is . . . considered desirable that at least the directors of training centres for auxiliaries

¹⁹ For a detailed description of a number of training programmes see *Experiment in Training for Community Development*, United Nations ST/TAA/Ser. D/27.

²⁰ *Training for Social Work: Second International Survey*, op. cit., p. 16.

should be persons qualified to interpret and foster an understanding of common social objectives and methods."²¹

In common with other specialists, professional social workers with an interest in teaching are not necessarily skilled in educational method. Yet it is particularly important in the training of auxiliaries that the most appropriate teaching devices and educational method should be used. This involves "training the trainers". Thus "international assistance in training might well be concentrated on a regional welfare training programme for senior staff or 'trainers' of auxiliaries. In such a programme, methods and techniques of training having broad regional applicability could be developed."²² The need for such seminars on methods of adult education and selection of subject matter is universal, since teachers in these courses for auxiliary workers require teaching skill and knowledge of educational method as well as knowledge of their subject. Moreover, the connexion between sound educational principles and the speed and effectiveness of the students' learning makes it vitally important that the best possible educational advice should be used in planning these courses, and that they should be regularly re-evaluated from this point of view.

The content of training

As for professional social work students, this will include :

Knowledge—that is, facts which can be precisely taught and learned ; principles and theories which can be introduced and later tested in practice ; and philosophical considerations ;

Skill ;

Attitudes.

For workers with more than one function it will also include one or more technical subjects which call for :

Skill in doing ;

Skill in teaching.

The core problem in the training of auxiliary workers is how to cover all this effectively in the limited time available. The problem is greatly magnified for multi-purpose workers who must often learn about and develop skill in various technical subjects, as well as in methods of teaching these and in methods of working with people.

The situation calls for as exact analyses as are possible of the work actually done by auxiliaries so that the content of their training may be realistically related to this. It also calls for regular evaluation of the results of training, with special reference to knowledge, skills and attitudes in relation to the objectives of the service in which they will operate. The total content of the curriculum should be ruthlessly cut down to the bare essentials (even at the cost of leaving out some "essentials") judged by the criterion of what students can really assimilate in the time available and what they will use later—as measured by subsequent evaluations. The total assimilation will of course include knowledge, skills and attitudes, and it should be remembered that knowledge

²¹ "Summary report on the Training of Auxiliary and Community Workers", op. cit.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 29.

is more rapidly acquired than proficiency (particularly in working with people) and that both are quicker than bringing about substantial and permanent change in attitudes. Because of the comparative speed of "knowledge learning" and because of the pressure to train workers quickly, it is all too easy to confuse this learning with the much slower pace of growth of skill and attitude changes.

The danger of teaching "knowledge" concepts ahead of their being incorporated through use, understanding and attitude changes is vividly illustrated in the following anecdotes:

"In the first the Administrator meets a village level worker in a backward area and the following dialogue ensues:

" 'How long have you been here?'

" 'Four months, Sir.'

" 'What have you been doing?'

" 'Collecting data.'

" 'What about?'

" 'Felt needs, Sir.'

" 'What do you mean by felt needs?'

" 'Mass approach, Sir.'

" 'Mass approach method?'

" 'Yes, psychological approach, Sir.'

"The second anecdote concerns another village level worker, very neatly dressed and with a notebook under his arm, found watching a thousand men and women at work on a community project. 'Who are you?' asked the Administrator. 'I am your extension worker, Sir', he replied. 'What sort of extension work are you engaged in here?' the Administrator enquired. 'I am inspiring the people', said the worker."²³

The integration of one subject with another and of theory with practice is as important as in professional training, if possible even more so, in that these students are less likely to be able to make connexions without help and to translate conceptual terms into practice, and vice versa. One teacher can usually bring about this integration better than a variety of different teachers. The balance of the course and the amount of time to be allocated to different subject matter is also of crucial importance. This also applies to the careful identification of essential content in each subject and well thought-out presentation to ensure orderly progression in learning, and for thorough assimilation at each stage before more material is presented. Those who will be required to work in isolated conditions largely on their own initiative especially need to acquire deeply ingrained orderly methods of setting about their work and making their own evaluation of results. They should take material from their training courses, as well as knowledge, skills and aptitudes, which will help them in this. This skeleton development of a "professional self" is one of the ways in which they can be helped to consolidate what they have learned as well as to go on learning.

The formal lecture unaccompanied by discussion is not a suitable method of teaching, particularly when students are semi-literate.

²³ T. R. Batten, *op. cit.*, pp. 101-102.

"In analysing past failures it has been found that lectures as such are not a very effective way of training field workers. The trend has therefore been in favour of practical training and the use of demonstrations, workshops, observation, discussions and audio-visual techniques to bring reality into classroom teaching."²⁴

By this means use is made of hearing, talking, seeing, dramatizing and doing as methods to reinforce learning.

"The key to this kind of training is to treat the opinion of the students with real respect, getting them to think constructively for themselves, and to draw their own conclusions. Community development is essentially a matter of understanding and working with people, and the trainees will already possess a wealth of relevant but latent knowledge and experience which it is the trainer's job to help them relate to their community work. This he can do by promoting group discussions which should be the core of the course, for these discussions also stimulate interest, mollify attitudes, and form opinion. However many lectures and talks are given they should be designed to supplement discussion rather than direct it and control it."²⁵

It is important to give knowledge in a form in which it can be assimilated for use through discussion so that the students' own previous knowledge is called upon and added to. This method is one of the most effective devices for helping students to take responsibility for their own learning. It is necessary to teach auxiliary workers "know how" but discussion helps them also to "know why" at points which are significant to them. Otherwise the training will have "a flavour of a directive and authoritarian approach on the presumption that trainees are like empty bottles to be filled up and corked with the award of a certificate".²⁶

An analysis of the syllabuses of existing courses made for the *United Nations Study on Training for Community Development*²⁷ showed that:

"The content of training falls broadly into three areas of study:

"(1) Background knowledge, e.g., of human behaviour, of society and of basic economic principles;

"(2) Knowledge and skills applied to the programme in its general aspects, including methods of 'reaching' people;

"(3) Specialized knowledge and skills for particular services."²⁸

The first aspect includes in a simplified form psychology, sociology, anthropology, history, public administration and economics, together with philosophy and general principles. The comment is made that:

"Not all training staff are able to adapt this knowledge to the needs of field workers. Too often the unfortunate tendency is to talk above the heads of trainees, with the result that they memorize and reproduce material that has not been assimilated."²⁹

In any event it is "course content and methods of instruction, not course titles, [which] determine the effectiveness of their contribution

²⁴ *Study Kit on Training for Community Development*, op. cit., p. 18.

²⁵ T. R. Batten, op. cit., p. 203.

²⁶ L. S. Kudchedker, "Training Problems in Community Development in India", *The Indian Journal of Social Work*, September 1957, p. 7.

²⁷ Op. cit., Annex P.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 14 (footnote).

to goals.”³⁰ Possibly this is because the essential core of knowledge in the social sciences has not been identified, nor sufficient attention given to how it could be presented and integrated so that it is solid knowledge in itself and at the same time comprehensible to and usable by the students.

The second aspect “comprises knowledge directly related to field work in community development. It frequently includes the specific objectives of the development programme, its administration and operation, and the knowledge and skills required for meeting common social and economic problems. In its simplest form it is limited to basic notions of how to work with people.”³¹ This aspect is of equal importance in the training of auxiliary workers for highly organized public welfare services. In such circumstances a considerable amount of time will be required to be spent in learning about agency procedures, administrative practices and legal requirements.

The third aspect is “specialized knowledge, e.g., in agriculture, health education, home economics or co-operatives. It may consist of a detailed study of one technical field for specialist workers or of more than one field, for multi-purpose staff.”³²

The close similarity will be noted between this analysis and the one given earlier in this present study in which social work training was divided into background subjects, methods subjects and practice. The background subjects are the same as those identified in this study, since they also related to an understanding of man in society. The comments made in the Study Kit on the second group of subjects (which are equated with the methods courses in this survey) is that they constitute:

“The meeting point of social science content and of specialized knowledge and skills for technical improvements. It helps the worker to understand how he can carry out his particular functions so as to contribute to social and economic processes. It may be termed ‘core content’, for purposes of this discussion, since it is that ‘core’ or essential part of training which enables different workers to make concerted efforts in community development. The importance of this ‘core content’, as a common denominator in training community development personnel, has only recently been recognized. It is sometimes referred to as ‘social content’, as ‘extension techniques’ or as the ‘educational approach to services’. The term ‘development content’ has also recently come into use.”³³

This is familiar to social workers as the “core” of their knowledge about people, to which they add social work understanding and skill in working with them. This, then, is a basic requirement for those who perform an auxiliary function, no matter in what type of setting. To it might be added a thorough grounding in good administrative practice.

Inevitably this listing of subject matter makes it sound separate and unrelated. But:

“These divisions of subject matter must not be taken as water-tight compartments. On the contrary, there is a very commendable trend

³⁰ “Training for Social Work in Pakistan” prepared by J. R. Dumpson (United Nations, TAA/PAK/3 Rev. 1), p. 9.

³¹ *Study Kit on Training for Community Development*, op. cit., p. 14.

³² *Ibid.*, p. 14.

³³ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

towards co-ordinating the teaching of different subject matter in a way that makes for integrated learning. In many programmes this is achieved by emphasizing field work and by introducing theoretical knowledge and technical skills in relation to it.³⁴

The basic question to be asked throughout courses for auxiliary workers in relation to their future work is: "What do we need to know about the basic problems the agency exists to meet and about the people with whom we are to work; and what must be able to do in order to help them effectively in conformity with their desires, our function and the objectives of the agency?" One way to act about this is:

"To construct a curriculum that would develop a philosophy of approach to people in need, elementary established concepts . . . , and simple tools and techniques of the helping process. Furthermore to structure the learning process so that the basic concepts would be introduced in some sort of sequence or order; that there would be a repetition of the same principles in a variety of contexts . . . In brief . . . to identify those concepts of helping people that had immediate meaning and validity wherever people were in need."³⁵

In such an approach, that is to say starting with immediate situations and working outwards from them, orderly methods of enquiry would be necessary in order to assemble the data (whether through discussion or field work) necessary to post questions and find answers. The social science or background subjects would be of direct relevance to understanding the economic, social and personal causes of need and human reactions to need, while the resources available to meet it would be considered specifically in relation to the structure, legal framework and administration of the social agencies in which auxiliary workers are employed. The "methods" content of the total course would clearly come in in the ways indicated. In short, the real problem of this method of teaching lies not in its effectiveness but in the demands it makes on teachers.

This method of structuring a course requires that the ground to be covered shall have been assessed but that there should be no hard and fast lines between one subject and another and that the total content shall move forward at the students' pace—which may differ from course to course. It also makes heavy demands on teachers to teach in this way and yet to ensure that the students are covering the ground in an orderly fashion. Skill is also involved in helping the class to function as a group which learns effectively.

Where sufficiently well qualified teachers are available, there is much to be said for the same teacher covering most of the "background" subject of human growth and behaviour and also the "core" or "methods" subject of helping people, or basic concepts of social work. The material on the structure of the particular service should also be set in the total context of the country's economic, cultural and human resources and the ways in which the particular programme is intended to enhance these.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

³⁵ "Training for Social Work in Pakistan", *op. cit.*, p. 28.

The structure of the society (whether of village life and the rural economy or of urban communities) would of course include a simple understanding of cultural assumptions, traditional habits, social and family roles, prejudices, attitudes to the family, to women, to children, relevant problems of cultural change and individual and social resistance to change. This material would be intimately related to that on individual behaviour and to the structure of public and voluntary social welfare provision. Philosophical implications should run through all the material more particularly in order to give students a sense of identification with the objectives of the programme as an expression of their country's desire to raise the level of living and to enrich the lives of its citizens. Discussion of ways in which this might be achieved should also run through the courses, one such way being through application of social work and educational principles in working with people.

If, as is suggested, the primary emphasis is placed on the methods courses, it is extremely important to relate these to the background subjects (including administration) so that trainees do not come away from the course with a series of isolated techniques from the methods or "core" courses not related to well-articulated basic knowledge about human growth and behaviour and man's needs in society. For example, simply to know "how to help people to express their felt needs" has comparatively little meaning unless it is related to simple understanding of the basic human needs, drives and motivation, their expression and satisfaction in a particular culture. It is also necessary to stress the importance of good administration as a means to meet need.

In order that students may be able to apply this knowledge, it should be taught dynamically. Much of the difficult material with which professional students must come to grips and learn to use would not of course be appropriate in courses of this kind. Some progress has been made in expressing difficult cultural, sociological and psychological concepts in simple terms but much more needs to be done. For example, it is important to set within knowledge about total development an understanding that all behaviour is purposive and is explicable (and usually capable of change) if the cause is understood; that children are not just "naughty" or villagers "apathetic" or clients "ungrateful". But also that people cannot change their feelings to order, even though they may sometimes conform externally. The difficulty is to teach simply but soundly in ordinary language and preferably without the use of terms which tend to become clichés and get in the way of the trainees' real understanding.

A good deal of teaching can be effectively done through case records of varied situations. This illustrates principles, methods and techniques. It also focuses discussion on real life situations, involves the trainees in active participation, and, by forcing them back to the evidence, lessens the possibility of wide (and sometimes wild) speculation. Role playing has also been found useful, and indeed appears to be more frequently used in courses for auxiliaries and in-service training courses than in professional education. Both these teaching methods involve much discussion so that the teacher has a good opportunity to draw out the trainees' knowledge and opinions and to judge to what extent they are assimilating the material. At the same time it should keep the teacher close to the

trainees and prevent him from talking over their heads. It is of course essential to give well-illustrated didactic teaching from time to time and regularly to recapitulate the ground which has been covered so that trainees may build up a sound and orderly body of knowledge and a clear framework of method.

Another advantage of this method of teaching through discussion and demonstration is that it gives trainees direct personal experience of some of the methods they will be called upon to use in work with groups or individuals. The "let's find out" method is frequently used in such courses and is particularly useful in relation to the material under discussion. Thus simple field surveys, planned by the whole class with the aid of the teacher and with the total content broken down between small groups, are a means of teaching how to undertake such surveys, as well as the importance of accurate evidence as a basis for opinion or action.³⁶ Such surveys obviously provide a frame of reference for the total social content teaching in the course and demonstrate to the trainees what they know and what they still need to learn. This again is a method which many of them will be called upon to use in their work.

No hard and fast rules can be laid down about the range or depth of background and methods subject matter which should be included in courses for auxiliary workers. This must obviously depend on the job they are to do, the length of the course, and what they can assimilate and use. This last is an acid test because in these courses no time can be spared for dead knowledge and everything must be judged (and taught) from the angle of its relevance to the job to be done.

The training of voluntary workers

In most countries voluntary workers, whether trained or untrained, play an essential part in the establishment, operation and extension of social welfare provision. Training is therefore important in relation to them, but the principles are the same as for the training of other non-professional workers.

In courses for or taken by voluntary workers, whether chiefs and their wives, other village leaders or women in community development programmes; or for voluntary workers and committee members in social agencies in various countries and differing circumstances, the essential social content (apart from relevant technical skills) is the nature, purpose and administration of the service and its place in a total social programme; the place and function of volunteers in the service; the kind of needs which it exists to meet; the relation of this need to human desires and behaviour; and simple concepts about methods of working with people in ways which meet their real needs and preserve their own dignity and sense of responsibility. The actual focus may be rather different in courses for board members of public or voluntary agencies if they are not also engaged in direct service activities.

"A few simple principles are implicit in the approach to community development work, at whatever level. These include respect for the individuals who are being helped; sympathy with their problem; wil-

³⁶ See for example, *Fact Finding with Rural People*. Rome, F.A.O., 1955.

lingness to work at their pace without exerting pressure for the acceptance of decisions made by a few; relating new knowledge to their interests and motivations; actively engaging them in the learning process; and providing opportunities for the practical application of what has been learnt.”³⁷

It is simple to teach trainees, whether volunteer or paid, to say these things; it is much more difficult to help them to change their attitudes so that these become ingrained ways of responding to people. The tendency of the lay person to try to persuade people into doing things, to blame them when they fail to respond, to moralize; to expect people to do the things they “ought” to do and have the attitudes they “ought” to have is universal. These attitudes in auxiliary and voluntary workers can only be changed by the total atmosphere of the course and most of all in the field work and through much opportunity for discussion.

Field work

The necessity for closely related theory and practice is recognized in most courses for auxiliary workers in community development. This is not necessarily so in all courses for auxiliary workers. In some of these courses the trainees do not have any field work as part of the course: in others they may scatter periodically for block periods of field work under unskilled supervision and without close contact with the teaching staff of the training centre. Wherever possible, it is desirable that for auxiliary workers theory and practice should run concurrently in order that they may learn by and through doing. This is in fact the way in which they will learn best, and it also means that bad working methods can be changed in their early stages, whereas these may otherwise go undetected.

The relation between theory and practice and the ability to use knowledge will also be greatly reinforced if knowledge is intimately related to practice in real life situations all through the course. This quickly recalls trainees from unrealistic speculation and parrot learning, while their respect for knowledge is often much enhanced by the discovery that it is relevant and helpful to them; indeed that they need to use it all the time to answer essential questions of What, How and Why in their work.

The actual planning and amount of the field work differs in different courses, partly in accordance with the trainees' level of intelligence and education. In some instances the course is almost wholly practical, with such theoretical teaching as is given growing directly out of the practical experience. In other courses the proportion between the two may be about equal. In some courses trainees undertake field work on their own, individually or in groups. In others a community project or unit of the agency may be part of the training centre and in this event trainees and staff work together.

The difficulty that the saturation point may be reached in a locality has already been discussed. There is also the difficulty familiar to social agencies training students in casework or group work, that;

“when one group of trainees completes the course and another is assigned to the same areas for field work, there is a gap in leadership

³⁷ *Study Kit on Training for Community Development*, op. cit., p. 16.

that can be very frustrating to the members of the community. It takes time for the new group to learn enough about the community and about ways of helping it, to be of real service. This problem does not arise when training is given in the worker's own environment, but it is not always possible to conduct training in that way. Some centres overcome the difficulty by employing one or two workers on a continuing basis in communities to which trainees are assigned for field work.³⁸

It will not usually be possible to give trainees the thorough individual supervision which is essential in professional training. It is, however, extremely important in the field training of auxiliary workers of any kind that the following conditions should be fulfilled:

(a) That each trainee should have one or two substantial and continuous periods of field work preferably in the locality where he will work, rather than several short and disconnected experiences.

(b) That each trainee should be given real responsibility for whatever work is assigned to him.

(c) That each trainee should have regular discussions, individually or as a member of a group, with a supervisor who is professionally qualified in social work. In these discussions, methods and background material taught at the training centre should be related to the trainees' field experience.

(d) That the skill to be taught and the concepts to be used should have been identified by the staff and related to the trainees' learning abilities at given periods during the total course. In other words, so that each trainee's progress can be tested against expected norms at specific points in the course.

(e) That trainees are taught and helped to use in their field work orderly methods of working. Various useful frames of reference for this purpose will be found in the annexes to the United Nations *Study Kit on Training for Community Development*. These include ways of setting about work with people and also means of evaluating the results.

(f) That trainees should do some detailed recording of their work with individuals, groups and communities. This should of course include what they said as well as the response. Alternatively they may give an oral presentation to a class. It is only through the detailed reproduction and discussion of the process of relationship between the trainee and the group or individual that trainees can be effectively helped to observe perceptively, to assimilate and to discover the relevance in practice of the concepts of working with people that they are being taught. This method helps trainees and teachers to be sensitive to the gap at any given time between knowledge and its application.

The following account of limited field work experience on the first Karachi In-Service Training Course illustrates some of the results that can be achieved by well-planned field work, even where agency resources are limited or non-existent.

"In spite of limitations, those projects provided the most valuable learning experience of the entire course. Students discovered how to

³⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 20.

collect and to interpret facts; to plan in terms of the needs and abilities of people, and to assess available resources. They become aware, too, of the attitudes, prejudices, and resistances that one must deal with in helping people. These projects demonstrated the difference between disciplined and unsystematic, if well-meaning, helping. Further, students become aware of the potentials for self-help that reside in people, neighborhoods, and community. The effectiveness of the field work in training would have been greatly enhanced by closer integration with classroom lectures and discussion."³⁹

The totality of field work in the training of workers required to have a technical skill includes not only learning to apply theory in the practice of working with individuals, groups and communities but also learning one or more technical skills and how to demonstrate these or teach them to people. This means that students may be required to learn how to use visual aids effectively, how to plan, carry through and evaluate a demonstration; how to make and use flannel boards, film strips and other visual aids, how to plan a recreational programme; how to teach a craft or skill. These skills themselves lie outside the scope of the present study.

Some of the methods used in planning, carrying out and evaluating a demonstration are primarily educational, though they also make use of social work concepts which are familiar to group workers. This, indeed, is the major point at which educational skills and social work skills meet and overlap. It is in the actual use of the practical and technical skills related to working with people that social work has most to contribute. This includes helping workers in technical fields with the really difficult problem of moving at the individual's, group's or community's pace, resisting their own desire to do things "for" rather than "with" people but at the same time working with them on practical tasks rather than relying solely upon discussion of needs or on verbal instructions.

Attitudes

Neither knowledge nor skill will make a good field worker unless the worker also has the attitudes towards people which are congruous with the knowledge and the skill. This includes acceptance of people, respect for them, desire to help and willingness to serve them. The degree to which trainees come to training courses with these attitudes will depend not only on individual personality traits but also upon ideas about the nature of social obligation and attitudes towards people in the particular society or social group from which they come. Religious or political affiliations and their effectiveness in motivating altruistic conduct will also be significant in this respect. So will authoritarian or service attitudes in the society at large. Trainees who are "well-educated but reared in a tradition that tends to regard privilege as the right to exact service rather than the obligation to give it"⁴⁰ will require a longer training than less well educated recruits from a different cultural background. So will those who—at any level—think their main task is to learn regulations and enforce orders, rather than using administrative processes as an essential means to an end.

³⁹ "Training for Social Work in Pakistan", *op. cit.*, p. 9.

⁴⁰ Alec Dickson, "Training in Citizenship", *The Fundamental and Adult Education Quarterly*, UNESCO, April 1954, p. 59.

If social work at the auxiliary level as well as at higher levels is a calling rather than a job, then candidates must be selected who have the personality requisites, maturity, liking for people and willingness to change. From these can follow identification with the work and its purpose, together with self-esteem rather than desire for self-aggrandizement. The extent to which training courses can change attitudes will partly depend on the degree to which the attitudes they seek to foster run counter to those commonly accepted in the community. It will also depend on the length of time available, the effectiveness of field work supervision, the methods used in the training centre and what the group itself contributes. The extent to which these changes are consolidated will depend on the whole ethos of the employing agency, the effectiveness of its in-service training, and whether senior officials support and respect auxiliary workers who are trying to fulfil the task entrusted to them.

A good deal is known by social work teachers, sociologists, psychologists and educationalists about the processes of helping to bring about attitude changes. The changes involved are primarily emotional rather than intellectual. In work with people they are necessarily based on increased self-awareness as the trainee sees reflected back from his work undesirable attitudes in himself and tries to identify the reasons for them as a prelude to a maturation process.

These changes do not come about quickly, but on the other hand they endure in proportion as they have involved real reversal of previous undesirable attitudes toward the person himself and other people. The importance of group feeling, group discussion and common staff/student objectives and participation as elements in learning is discussed at various points in the present study. From quite different sources comes evidence that it is the intensity of this positive group feeling, what they learn from each other, and the degree of identification of trainees with the purposes of the course which is the decisive factor in bringing about change in attitudes. If the course is residential (for both staff and trainees) the group feeling will of course be heightened, though so too will group tensions. In a residential centre there is also much more opportunity for those spontaneous discussions which are one of the most valuable parts of any educational experience. Short residential periods have also proved valuable in centres which are otherwise non-residential.

The following quotations illustrate the importance of good group feeling as a factor in learning:

“Opportunity for practical experience of group work and of ways of developing and utilizing leadership is often also provided by the manner in which the training centre itself is organized. For instance, trainees may form various committees for programmes such as sanitation and hygiene, library, kitchen management and general administration. Members of each committee and their leaders are elected each month. These committees run the camp under the general guidance of the training officers.”⁴¹

“As the curriculum was developed, it was found that, more important than the arrangement of courses and their description, were

⁴¹ *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 105 (footnote).

the spirit, approach and preparation of those who would do the actual teaching and an aim common to the entire faculty. Student-teacher relationships became the all-important teaching tool."⁴²

"Training is the entire relationship of staff to trainees. Many of the personal beliefs and attitudes of the training staff will eventually be reflected in the relationship established between the trainee and the community."⁴³

"As one reads much of the literature concerned with training, one feels that those who write it are too much concerned with content and method, and too little with problems of attitudes and relationships. Yet selection and training programmes which ignore them are fundamentally wasteful and inefficient, however efficient they may at first sight seem to be. The trainer who aims at securing the full participation of his trainees and at developing their initiative is faced with the same basic problem that faces the worker in the community—he must work *with* rather than *for*, and help rather than direct, and in particular he must allow ample time for the discussion of issues, including personal issues, that really matter to his students."⁴⁴

This means that not only must the teaching methods of the training course be based upon some of the principles used in working with people but also that the way the whole course is conducted and the attitudes of the staff to trainees should be a demonstration of the philosophy of social work. It is the intensity of this experience which will convince the trainee intellectually and emotionally of the validity of the concepts which are taught and also that if he himself has had this experience, then his feelings about it are valid for others too. These results cannot be brought about in courses which are overloaded with factual information and the teaching of technical skills. It is no more necessary for trainees to change their attitudes to order in line with objectives laid down in a syllabus than it is for villagers to do so at the demands of technical change. In many training syllabuses it is said that the field worker "must do" and "must feel" and then there follows a long list of most desirable qualities: however nothing is usually said about the means by which these are to be achieved, other than by the knowledge and skill components of the curriculum.

LENGTH OF COURSES FOR AUXILIARY WORKERS

This present discussion is concerned with essential content of basic training. There is value in conferences, short courses, workshops and seminars of all kinds for specific purposes but these are not basic training designed for the purposes which have been discussed.

The usual length of courses for auxiliary workers has been three, four or six months. There is now a tendency to lengthen them to a year or even to two years. This has been done in the light of experience as it became clear that although from the point of view of designing a timetable the ground could be covered in a lesser time, yet this was not pos-

⁴² "Training for Social Work in Pakistan" op. cit., p. 28.

⁴³ *Study Kit on Training for Community Development*, op. cit., p. 22.

⁴⁴ T. R. Batten, op. cit., p. 202.

sible if the knowledge, skills and attitudes are to become sufficiently ingrained to be substantially useful.

It is a sound principle periodically to have back those who have finished their initial course for a further period of learning. In this way "the training of these workers may be said to consist of alternative periods of instruction and in-service training, extending over a period of years."⁴⁵ This implies, as does the rest of what has been said in this chapter, that the training of auxiliaries should be directly related to work in particular social agencies rather than being general or "wide open" courses to fit them for any type of social work. This is an important safeguard because otherwise "it might encourage a tendency in trainees to claim or have accredited to them qualifications they had no capacity to fulfil".⁴⁶

This is a major problem in the training and use of auxiliary workers, particularly in situations where senior officials and policy makers have no experience or understanding of the difference in level of work and performance of the well-qualified professional social worker and the auxiliary. It is inevitable that courses for auxiliaries should not be able to impart any appreciable depth of skill in social work practice. The auxiliary should acquire some systematic understanding of people and the use of methods to help them but these will necessarily be at a surface level, so that even if he is called upon to work with disturbed people he will not and should not go further than giving supportive help to them and their relations. One of the safeguards against the misuse of auxiliaries is that experienced professional social workers should have a substantial share in their training and thus help to clarify for them what they can and cannot do. As has been said, they should wherever possible work under the direction of senior professional social workers. It is of course important that some promotion prospects should be open to them, otherwise recruitment will be adversely affected, the more enterprising may leave later for more remunerative employment, and there will be discontent in the service.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Introductory

So far as actual content and much of the educational method to be used is concerned, there is little distinction between in-service training and what has been said already in this chapter about basic training, indeed initial training of auxiliary workers often takes place within the agency.⁴⁷ The vital importance of planned in-service training for all types of worker is increasingly recognized. Although no information is available on a world-wide basis since the United Nations survey of *In-Service Training in Social Welfare* (1952)⁴⁸ there is every reason

⁴⁵ *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 107.

⁴⁶ A. Livingstone, *Social Work in Pakistan* (West Pakistan Council of Social Welfare, 1957), p. 28.

⁴⁷ For a helpful detailed account which includes actual teaching material see: Martha Moscrop, *In-Service Training for Social Agency Practice*. University of Toronto Press, 1958.

⁴⁸ United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1952.IV.9.

to think that many improvements have taken place both qualitatively and quantitatively. A number of government agencies have their own in-service training centres, while there appears to be an increase in the practice of granting study leave for attendance at refresher and other courses. Many more such courses are now available under the auspices of public and voluntary agencies, schools of social work and professional organizations, national and international voluntary organizations; as well as United Nations and other regional seminars.

There can be no doubt that supervision as a teaching device is now more widely recognized as probably the most effective method of in-service training. The universal shortage of supervisors for training both students and less experienced workers is a major reason why this system does not spread more rapidly though compared with a few years ago much is being done through group supervision and through short courses in supervision. There is also more recognition that time for supervision is a necessary part of the supervisor's job. And that workers who have been initially well supervised are capable of taking more responsibility for their own work later.

Increasingly, social agencies begin to recognize some kind of training obligation in relation to untrained staff. Too often this training has been, and still is, a kind of apprenticeship to a more experienced worker, coupled with "picking it up as you go". Too often also, trained workers have been expected to know everything and to need no more than an induction to the working methods of the agency—or if they did manifestly need more, then the schools of social work or study abroad were blamed for inadequate or inappropriate training. This attitude is slowly giving way in favour of realization that any training, however good and prolonged, can only lay the foundations on which deepened knowledge and skill must be built through good working conditions, responsibility, experience and further learning. Moreover, it is evident that without well planned in-service training and considerable support for newly qualified workers much of their precarious skill is likely to evaporate and their knowledge wither through not being put to use under the stimulus of continued opportunities for learning. The traditional purpose of in-service training as primarily orientation to the work of the agency is thus being superseded by a broader concept of in-service training as having the same essential purpose as basic training, that is to say to broaden knowledge, deepen skill and change attitudes.

Objectives of in-service training

The advantages to be reaped from in-service training relate not only to deepening knowledge and skill but also to improved morale and stronger identification with the objectives of the programme. Much that has already been said about a strong group feeling and ample opportunity for discussion as aids to learning at the student stage applies also to in-service training. In order that this feeling may develop it is necessary for the worker to become identified with the agency and its purposes and to feel a sense of personal responsibility for it

"This aim is not necessarily achieved by pep talks, lectures and instructions given by the trainer and based on the authority of the

agency for which he works. It is achieved, if it is achieved at all, in a relationship which stimulates very free and open discussion of the agency's aims and methods."⁴⁹

Unfortunately this discussion is often discouraged rather than encouraged in those who "are paid employees, and therefore expected to do what they are told. This is a view which ignores the fact that no agency can "buy" more than routine work. Workers who feel strongly critical of their agency's policies may conform enough to keep their jobs, but they will lack enthusiasm. Men will go on working hard under poor conditions only for ideals they accept as their own and by methods they really believe in. This means that their views must be sought and treated with respect."⁵⁰ It also means that the worker's degree of identification with the profession of social work as well as with the particular agency and its programme will have an important effect on the quality of his work.

It is frequently said that experience on the job is more "real" than the experience gained during training. Whether or not this is so, the greater responsibility of the worker on the job is a stimulus to heightened learning from experience. This is a two-way learning of which full use should be made in in-service training, since the worker will have much to contribute from his experience as well as to learn from his colleagues and from more highly qualified supervisors, consultants and specialists in other fields. This means that learning is sometimes more rapid in well-planned in-service training programmes than at the basic learning stage, because the participants have experience on which to build.

Team work is becoming of great importance at the present day on account of the growth of the professions as knowledge and skills increase and also because this is one of the ways of securing that the application of knowledge shall interlock effectively under the leadership of whichever profession is chiefly expert about the particular matter at issue. The beginnings of team work can be established at the basic training stage but it can only become really effective through regular interdisciplinary case conferences and group meetings for discussion of matters of common interest.

The over-all aim of in-service training is to support the worker in order to enable him to give better service to the agency's clientele. This will not happen unless it is also the aim of the agency itself continuously to evaluate its practices in order to try to improve these, with the help of its staff. It is necessary that the individual worker should be conscious of this framework of support within the agency and that his contribution within it is valued as well as evaluated. It is only if he feels valued that he will be able to stand the criticism and the competitive pressure which sometimes arises when workers are being pressed to improve their standard of performance. Indeed it is vital that this pressure should be experienced as supporting and helpful rather than as inquisitorial and critical.

⁴⁹ T. R. Batten, *op. cit.*, p. 200.

⁵⁰ *Ibid.*

Methods and content of in-service training

Supervision as a teaching process is the primary tool in in-service training. By discussions with a more experienced colleague the social worker, who deals in such large measure with intangibles, imponderables and immeasurables, is enabled to see more clearly the direction and focus of his work, the missed diagnostic clues, or opportunities for helpful intervention, the indications of growth or recession. It is important that, wherever possible, such discussions should take place regularly, particularly where workers must operate in isolation from each other or else in small groups. They may be held at the headquarters or some other centre. But it is also essential for the supervisor to pay periodic visits to the worker in his own milieu. This type of supervision should support workers in taking greater responsibility rather than keeping them dependent. It is thus closely akin to consultation.

Where lack of supervisory staff or distance (or both) make these sessions infrequent they may be partially compensated for by regular written reports. It is, however, important if field workers are expected to take considerable time and trouble in preparing such reports that they should be properly acknowledged. They will only serve as a learning device and enhance morale if time and trouble is also taken in responding to them and if specific points are picked up and commented upon. This must be done by qualified workers who know the demands of the field work, rather than by administrators without such qualifications.

Regular group discussions or staff meetings are also an essential means of pooling experience, keeping abreast of agency policy and new developments and deepening group membership. They should be concerned with real problems and experiences brought by the staff workers, as well as making a contribution to changes in the agency's policies and procedures. In large public authorities it all too often happens that social workers in different departments meet separately from each other, and indeed often know little of each other's work and objectives. It need hardly be said that there should be periodic and regular opportunities for inter-departmental and also inter-agency staff meetings. A good staff meeting is one in which all the members feel responsible for their share in it and contribute points for discussion, rather than a meeting at which a senior official tells the staff members about decisions made elsewhere which they are expected to implement.

Regular bulletins and staff manuals are also useful in in-service training devices to support field workers and make their service more effective. These staff manuals are particularly helpful if, in addition to factual information about procedures and available resources, they contain clearly formulated working methods and suggestions to the worker for testing the results of his activities. Examples are the *Manual for Village Level Workers* and the *Manual on Social Education* issued by the Community Projects Administration of the Government of India as well as those provided for social welfare staffs in various countries with established services. A well-planned manual is an effective learning device, and its construction a useful experience if various staff members are involved in its production and evaluation, and if it is constructed on sound educational principles.

So far, reference has only been made to field workers. The essentials of in-service training, however, apply to staff at all levels from senior administrators and professionals to clerical and manual staff. Such in-service training is especially important in relation to the social content of the functions of senior staff, particularly government administrative staff.

“The training of workers at this level is a field as yet little explored. It would seem essential that it allow for the principle of direct experience which characterizes the training of all other types of workers connected with community development and that it give due place to the social components of development programmes, to the principles of democratic supervision and to methods of evaluating community development.”⁵¹

Precisely the same considerations apply to senior officials in all types of social agency. This calls for well-planned in-service training and opportunities for joint seminars with members of other professions on common problems of social policy and planning at all levels of administration. This may well include attendance at lectures, refresher courses, workshops and local, national or international seminars. All these should be regarded as important contributory methods of in-service training. They should be used as a planned means of total staff development, as well as the development of individual staff members over a period of time.

Much of the benefit will, however, be lost unless both the agency and the staff are prepared to be receptive to new ideas and new methods brought back from such courses. It is important that other members of the staff group concerned should feel some benefit from the attendance of individual members at courses, if for no better reason than that they will usually be called upon to do some of the absent member's work.

Educational leave to take full professional training is also part of a well thought-out in-service training programme. It is particularly desirable that where training facilities exist for auxiliary workers the best of these workers should be given an opportunity through study leave to take a professional training. Such opportunities have their effect on the recruitment of rank and file workers as well as on their keenness to advance in their career. It is desirable that the successful achievement of a full professional qualification should carry a salary differential.

A more detailed account of the full range of in-service training methods is given in the United Nations Report on *In-Service Training in Social Welfare*.⁵² So far as content is concerned, the experience gained in planned in-service training would suggest that essentially the same educational methods should be used as have been indicated elsewhere in this present survey, while the content itself should be focused upon:

(a) An increasingly perceptive understanding of the people whom the agency exists to serve, their particular needs, motivation and problems

⁵¹ *Social Progress through Community Development*, op. cit., p. 110.

⁵² United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1952.IV.9.

and resources, considered in relation to general understanding of similar people in their social relationships, and to ways of working with them.

(b) The use of appropriate social work methods to fulfil the objectives of the programme.

(c) The changing nature of the agency in relation to social need and social resources. Its structure, policy and methods of operation.

(d) Relevant new knowledge (including changes in legislation and administrative procedures) and ways in which these can be applied to improve the service offered by the agency.

PART III

THE CONTENT OF TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK

CHAPTER VII

THE CONTENT OF TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK: THE STUDY OF MAN

INTRODUCTORY

The following three aspects of man's total being will necessarily be studied:

- (a) Physical growth and functioning, including biological factors.
- (b) Intellectual and emotional growth and functioning.
- (c) The social and spiritual nature of man.¹

"It is a central task of this teaching that material shall be so selected and presented as to emphasize the essential wholeness of man, the essential continuity of his development from conception to the grave, and the need to view the individual in his historical and social context."²

In the methods courses and in field work students are studying the personality and behaviour of individual people so that their awareness of man as something greater than the sum of his parts is maintained, at the same time that they are analysing the parts in their interrelatedness which make up man in his wholeness. Thus they should come to realize that in some respects everyone is the same, in other respects some people are the same and others different, and that in the last resort each person is unique. Most students need help in the beginning with classification and generalisation as applied to the study of human growth and behaviour because they feel that these detract from the uniqueness of each human personality. They can be helped in this by the use of case records in which they apply general knowledge in order to understand an individual person in his family, social and cultural setting. This general knowledge applied to particular people and situations is also necessary in order to develop criteria for deciding whether any given response or behaviour is within or outside the range of the normal, according to the person's degree of psycho-physical maturity in relation to his age, his social circumstances and his cultural milieu, considered specifically from the angle of the stress creating situation in which the finds himself at the point of social work intervention. There is of course a large culture component in the study of man, which must be integrated with the teaching about psycho-physical development. For example, the teaching about child development and family life must be

¹ See "Report of the United Nations Meeting of Experts on Social Work Training, Munich, 28 July-1 August 1956", p. 10 (Working paper No. 3).

² G. Stewart Prince, "The Teaching of Mental Health in Schools of Social Work", p. 1. Working Paper prepared for United Nations Regional Seminars on Training for Social Work (UNESCO/SS/UN Sem/Social Work Training, 58/III).

related to the particular culture, rather than to some other culture where norms of development and behaviour may differ quite substantially. This will be discussed in more detail in the chapter on the study of society.

The term "range of the normal" was used above. One of the core concepts in the study of man in society is that of the flexibility of man as shown in the range of his personal and social adaptations. In some respects this is akin to the concept of homeostasis in medicine, the tendency of the body to achieve and maintain a state of equilibrium and to strive to reinstate this whenever it is threatened from outside or from within. In psycho-analytic theory it represents the function of the ego and the super ego in selectively controlling, regulating and using the raw emotions of the unconscious and in orientating the personality to the demands of external reality on the one hand and to the pressure of his inner needs on the other. Developmentally considered this concept of the flexibility of human adaptation takes account of the hereditary endowment of the individual and the way in which the organism grows and responds to environmental pressures, enrichments or deprivations at each stage of the life cycle. Socially considered, it is concerned with the adaptations which men make to their physical environment; the social structure which they evolve; their ways of adapting this to social change and to disruptive elements from within the community or outside which threaten it with disintegration. Thus the individual's capacity for development is rooted in his physical, intellectual and emotional endowment, and his actual development in the effect of his life experience upon him. From this point of view, too, diseases, whether physical, mental or social, are not entities apart from those who suffer from them but "reactions some common, others rare, many complicated and little understood, between the individual man and his environment".³

Inevitably the total content of the teaching on "man" must be given by different specialists, one or more psychiatrists or psychologists or social work teachers, and medical practitioners will be involved, though their number should be kept to a minimum in order to maintain continuity in the teaching, and to avoid professional identification with non-social workers and to relate the courses to each other, horizontally and vertically (see also p. 301).

"... It will be clear that liaison between all the teachers contributing to the students' total learning experience is vital. The material on human growth and development and its presentation will need to be geared closely to the problems that the student is meeting in his field work, and to what he is learning in his other classroom studies..."⁴

PHYSICAL GROWTH AND FUNCTIONING

So far as the physical nature, development and functioning of man is concerned, there is little agreement about the ground which should be

³ A. E. Clark-Kennedy, *Human Disease* (London, Penguin Books, 1957), p. 7.

⁴ G. Stewart Prince, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

covered, either in depth and range, or about how the material should be presented. This is because of the inherent difficulty of the subject matter, the fact that students will be using this knowledge at one remove instead of directly, and the need to remember that they are not training to become doctors or nurses. There would be general agreement that they should be familiar with the elements of the laws of inheritance and the difficult problems of the relative influences of heredity and environment on personality formation; that they should know something about the physical aspects of sex; the processes of conception; the growth of the foetus, and birth. They also need to know about the physical growth, stage by stage, of the infant and the small child, the older children, and the changes which characterize puberty, adolescence, maturity, the climacteric and aging. None of this should be taught in isolation from psychological development and change because each stage has related physical and psychological characteristic and consequent needs. For example, it is impossible to consider infant feeding in purely physical terms without reference to the significance for emotional nurture of breast-feeding, both to mother and child, and its contribution to mental as well as physical health. In the same way, the physiological developments which in time make it possible for the young child to walk and talk lack their full significance unless they are considered in relation to the new view of the world which walking gives to the child, and to the nuclear importance of language as a primary means of communication between human beings, and as the basis of civilization. Here, as at other points, deviations from normality may be introduced, for example, the different kind of life adaptation which faces the deaf, blind, mentally defective or spastic child, and the effect which this has on family life, whether or not in any given society such children survive.

Similarly, the stage of physical and mental development which makes it possible for children to move from the primary group of the family into secondary groups like kindergartens, school⁵ or play groups, should also be studied in relation to their emotional significance to the growing child, and the kind of family experience which will facilitate or hinder his moving out with confidence or fear. The relation of the total educational experience to physical and mental development and consequently to personality formation, may appropriately be considered here, as well as in relation to social welfare provision and to social structure.

The physiological changes of puberty, with the rapid physical and mental maturation process of adolescence must also be studied in relation to the upsurge of the emotions, the intensity of the sexual urge, and the ways in which the culture of a particular society help or hinder adolescent initiation into the adult world. This will lead on to the characteristics of physical maturity, mating and child bearing. And then to the climacteric, to aging and death. The amount of time devoted to the biological, psychological and social aspects of aging will differ according to the importance of this study in different situations.

⁵ Remembering that only half of the world's children can go to school, see *Report on the World Social Situation* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1957.IV.3), p. I.

Interwoven with this developmental study of the physical nature of man, students must be given at each point a frame of reference in which to see man as a whole, with the limelight for the time being turned on man as a physical being. This may involve an elementary study—perhaps partly through the use of clinical demonstrations, charts, diagrams, film strip and films—of the chemical composition of the body, its skeletal and muscular structure, the central nervous system, the respiratory system and the glandular and alimentary systems.

This knowledge will also be necessary for the students in thinking about the relation between the needs of the body and the social environment in which man finds himself. For example, food is another of the central core themes: it is related to the nutritional needs of the human body and what constitutes a balanced diet at different ages; to the emotional significance of food as the symbol of giving to meet basic need; to its social significance as shown in the food habits of different peoples and who eats with whom; to the place of feasting and hospitality in different cultures; to the means by which food is produced and distributed; to its place in family levels of living; and to social planning to secure primary food supplies and a minimum diet, particularly for nursing and expectant mothers, infants and children of school age. Other aspects of the needs of the body and how they are met in the culture may well be related to material on social habits, social policy and social welfare services, and to the economics of production and distribution, as well as to population composition and trends.

Defect, disease and injury must be set within the framework of natural functioning. They may perhaps best be studied in the following categories:

(a) Congenital defect, whether due to inheritance or to injuries *in utero* or at birth.

(b) Disease processes which affect the major bodily systems, for example, pulmonary tuberculosis, asthma and other respiratory diseases; diseases of the central nervous system, for example, poliomyelitis, encephalitis and epilepsy; diseases of the heart and the circulatory system; and diseases of the alimentary tract including the various ulcers.

(c) Other disease processes—the infective diseases including venereal disease, cancer, tropical diseases (where appropriate), skin diseases.

(d) The glandular system, the important part played by the various glands at different stages in the life cycle; their relation to the emotions; and the physical and emotional effects of glandular dysfunctioning.

(e) Disability caused by accident and injury.

In all these categories students will need some elementary knowledge in relation to certain disease processes as to what is known about symptoms and causation, whether the condition is curable, incurable or capable of being stabilized; self-limiting; or subject to spontaneous recovery. In considering the relation between psyche and coma, they need to know something about the emotional component in all illness and more especially about those psychosomatic conditions in which an understanding of the emotional component is necessary in order to understand the genesis and treatment of the condition. That is to say, in those conditions where “when the right physical factors intersect in

time with the right emotional state, and the genetic predisposition is there, the disease starts off.”⁶

The range of what should be taught, the depth to which it should be taught and how it should be taught is still very much a matter of discussion and debate. It may be helpful to look at this material from another angle and to ask what the social worker needs to know in relation to disease, defect and injury in order to function as a social worker. It must be apparent that this is the focus and that students must be enabled continuously to make this connexion. Sometimes this is done by a social work lecturer giving part of the teaching on this subject, or else being present at the discussion period of a lecture given by a medical specialist, in order to make the social work connexions. Because the primary concern of social workers is to help people with the strains and stresses of crises in their life situations and with better adaptation to or mastery of these, the social work focus is not on the disease process as such, but on its personal, family and social effects. Thus the reason why students need to know the difference between acute and chronic illness and the typical source of the major chronic illnesses is because the feelings of the patient and his family will be different, and so also will be the effect on his way of living and the economic and other adaptations which he and his family will have to make. Social workers must also understand the sense of inadequacy and guilt often felt by parents who have produced physically or mentally defective children, and the ways in which this manifests itself in rejection and hostility or over-possessiveness and anxiety. They should know also that although the dark world of the blind and the silent world of the deaf are different, yet both are lonely in most cultures, calling for considerable adaptation in order to prevent segregation and to enable handicapped people to take their place in family, work and community. Furthermore, they must realize that the effect on people of being handicapped, feeling inferior, different, isolated, pitied, are substantially the same no matter what the nature of the handicap and therefore that many of the ways in which social workers may help them to express and deal with their frustration, to gain more confidence and begin to reach a better adaptation so that they may live more happily are the same. In this, as in all social work, the individual must be considered in relation to his family setting, to his culture and to his social circumstances.

Illness in its very nature also includes the human being's reaction to pain, injury, irreparable loss (of sight, of a limb, of a loved person) and separation. It is thus essential to understand the regression, the excessive demands, the need for warmth and comfort, for imaginative compassion rather than false reassurance in order to meet the fear, the sense of psychic injury, the withdrawal, the need to grieve, and sometimes the deep depression which may accompany illness, injury, separation and death. The student's study of physical defect, disease and injury must include not only the emotional concomitants affecting the sufferers and their families but must also be related to the social effects. This will include attitudes in the particular culture towards sickness in general, and of sympathy or rejection towards those suffering from

⁶ A. E. Clark-Kennedy, *op. cit.*, p. 249.

particular diseases or disabilities. It will also include study of the available social provision, both public and voluntary, for the treatment and industrial and social rehabilitation of the disabled; including whether financial provision exists for them and their dependants, and if so, in what form. Furthermore, students must be aware of the various ways in which knowledge of the human body and its needs is translated into national and international action through such preventive measures as pure water supplies, port sanitary control, sewage disposal, pest control, immunization, regulation of working conditions, the state of dwellings and the like.⁷

PSYCHOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT AND HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

When the limelight shifts from study of the physical nature of man to his psychological development and behaviour, the emphasis is upon emotional and intellectual development and needs. A continuous attempt must be made to show how those fundamental needs and desires of men, which are the same everywhere, express themselves in different forms in different cultures. Perhaps the major "core" concept for this purpose will be the family as the primary social group, with its biological basis in the long dependency of the young human being, compared with the quick maturing of young animals. It is essential for social work students to have a good understanding of the emotional needs of the child, his deep dependence on his mother for emotional, as well as physical nourishment and nurture, as illustrated on the one hand by the normally-thriving child and on the other by the known effects of maternal deprivation in permanently stunting development.⁸ The relation of the young child to his father, to his siblings and to other close relatives will bring out not only basic human needs but also family patterns and socially accepted responsibilities in different cultures. It will include study of the ways in which a child begins to go out to join secondary groups, and then in adolescence or adulthood to go to work and to begin to found a family. The spiral will then come back full circle once more with courtship or other marriage arrangements typical of the culture, marriage in its personal, social and legal aspects, the partnership of marriage and how a home is founded, children brought into the world and reared; the respective roles of husband and wife, father and mother in marriage and the family. The effects on the children of the unhappy or broken family and of marital conflict, sickness, unemployment and death will also be of much significance in the study of human development and of the genesis of deviations from the normal.

Considered developmentally, the ground to be covered would include conception and birth, mother and infant relationship, particularly in feeding and in the loving care which is necessary to stimulate the baby to grow securely in a world which is experienced as good. A suitable film showing or an observation exercise may be helpful at this point. Weaning, teething and toilet training, their significance in the culture,

⁷ See for example, Winslow, *The Cost of Sickness and the Price of Health*, World Health Organization, Monograph Series No. 7, 1951.

⁸ See John Bowlby, *Maternal Care and Mental Health*, World Health Organization, Monograph Series No. 2, 1951.

the way they are handled and the emotional problems to which they may give rise will form part of the next stage in the infant's development together with the effects of increasing mobility and the beginning of language. This leads on to the intense emotional experiences of the small child whose ego is barely beginning to develop and who is thus at the mercy of emotions of love, rage (temper tantrums) and fear (nightmares, etc.) which are at times overwhelming unless the adults provide a secure background and set kindly limits which control the storms within. At this point play begins to be of great importance to the child as a means of playing out his fantasies of love, hate and aggression in harmless ways; as a means, too, of exploring the real world and discovering what it is like and how it works. The controls set and the pleasure given by the properties of objects, and of imaginative stories, as well as by good relations with adults and siblings, help the little child to find pleasure in reality, while his emotions, energies and curiosity are encouraged and given material for development. These are necessary in order that the inner and the outer worlds may become interwoven in a manner which stimulates intellectual growth and the sensitive imagination. It may be useful at this point to introduce an observation exercise in watching children of different ages at play, or (in relevant cultures) to use such a film as "The Terrible Two's and the Trusting Threes".⁹

In the child between three and five there is usually a changing relationship to the parent of the opposite sex; whether or not this stage of development is taught in terms of the oedipus conflict, the fact that these rivalries and rapidly alternating love and hate occur in various cultures, together with their implications for both the child, his parents, and his brothers and sisters will be noted. Here, as elsewhere, there must be reference to the universal and cultural elements at this and other stages of development. Similarly, the psychosexual development of the child below the age of puberty will be handled in different ways by different teachers, though it is likely that some of the phenomena stressed in psychoanalytic studies (as well as in many non-analytically orientated child studies) will be considered as aspects of human growth.

From about four to six years of age the child starts to move out a little further from his immediate family group and to begin to form relationships with other children, both at school and in formal or spontaneous play groups. From about six the emotions begin to become more stable as the regulating and co-ordinating structure of the child's ego develops and as his time span increases, so that for some while past he has become increasingly able to stand the frustration of unmet immediate need. This is also associated with the growth of consciousness and memory, which means that the whole world is not in a moment either created or destroyed by the immediate gratification or denial of bodily desires, for food, for warmth, for the security of being held close. It is now becoming more clearly established that only the child who has had these needs satisfied in a measure, and who has been loved for his own sake, is able to move out freely and independently and to love in an unself-centred way as he grows older; that is to say, is able to pass

⁹ For an annotated list of films see the *Social Welfare Film Loan Service Consolidated Catalogue*, United Nations, TAA/FILM/Con. 1, 1956.

on from the self-gratifying stage of infancy to love other people for their own sakes, rather than for their response to him.

From this point until adolescence there is a period of consolidation in which the differences between boys and girls grow greater, the intelligence increases and the child is able to memorise knowledge which is the foundation of a general education. The emotions should begin to be well integrated and comparatively controlled. At this stage the child is able to play group games, to stand defeat or success, and to think about the feelings and desires of others as well as his own.

Conscience began to develop earlier, beginning with the parental standards, prohibitions, attitudes and approved ways of thinking and behaving. This is extended in the relationships of school and the neighbourhood and as the child becomes capable of grasping wholes, and intangible ideas and ideals.

When puberty comes the earlier emotional turmoil may be reawakened with the up-surge of energy primarily associated with sexual maturing. The degree to which adolescence is stormy, with rebellion against parental authority, will depend upon an interrelation between the individual boy or girl's past development, the family relationships and the way the situation is handled, together with the kind of structured ways provided by the particular society for passing from childhood to adulthood, from school to work and from the dependence of home to independence and responsibility.

The characteristic adolescent behaviour of boys and girls must also be studied, especially the change from friendships with members of the same sex to an interest in the opposite sex, membership of close-knit groups or gangs, and then pairing off with one member of the opposite sex by the means provided for courtship in the particular culture. The role of play, athletics, and cultural interests and other leisure time activities will also be significant because of the part played by membership of small groups as a factor in normal development.

Many students in schools of social work will still have some unresolved adolescent conflicts of their own. The sore places of their own childhood will often be reactivated by this developmental material. They will thus need strong group support, as well as an understanding attitude by the staff, in order to deal with these personal difficulties successfully (see also p. 294).

The developmental review will now no doubt concentrate on the emotional significance of work as conferring status and independence, together with the ways in which authority figures at work may reactivate old conflicts with parents. Normal adulthood will depend upon ability and opportunity to assume appropriate work responsibilities, as well as upon capacity for the other relationships and responsibilities of adult life, especially in regard to friends, colleagues, and above all the marriage partner. This will include the effect on the individual of the status or position conferred by society and his own ability to play his part in various roles. This may well lead to a discussion of the difference between normality and maturity, illustrated by the use of the concept of maturity as a series of different maturities, physical, emotional, intellectual, spiritual, to be measured against cultural norms and aspirations

or else against some "ideal" yardstick. The effect on both men and women of not marrying, considered in relation to the cultural assumptions and available possibilities of sublimation will also require attention.

The next stage of the life cycle, middle age, should be discussed in relation both to its physiological and mental characteristics, as well as to the emotional and social changes which begin as children grow up and leave home, or as childlessness must be finally accepted and major life adaptations must often be made before old age begins to loom ahead, with a tendency to turn inward rather than to go out with the same degree of energy to the external world. Finally, there comes old age, revered in some cultures but in others often accompanied by loneliness, lack of occupation, sickness and infirmity, usually with realization that there are now no second chances, no chance to apply the wisdom which would often lead him to a life lived differently, no new beginnings, and that probably only one great adventure lies ahead. Death will require to be considered both in its meaning to the individual and to those to whom he is dear, as well as cultural attitudes to death and mourning. The concept of separation will come in at various points as a diminution of self "every parting is a little death" which arouses anxiety, leading to grief, a sense of deprivation or loss, and sometimes to acute depression.

The deviations from the normal are most easily seen in all their gradations from the range of normality if they are related to the whole process of development, and thus accepted by students as examples of what may happen if there are deprivations or injuries at any point in the individual's development. For example, it should be made clear that some juvenile delinquency is directly related to defective family relationships; that gross emotional deprivation may lead to stunted emotional and social growth, expressed in psychopathic personality structure, withdrawal, aggressive behaviour, immaturity, attention seeking and inability to tolerate frustration; and similarly, that alcoholism, drug addiction, delinquency, prostitution, illegitimacy and marital discord have some of their roots in deprivation, leading to inadequate and insecure personality, feelings of inferiority, self-punishment or self-gratification. Also that disintegrated community life engenders rootlessness, lack of a sense of belonging, of personal worth and of a clear sense of identity.

Students should be helped to see these social problems as stemming from a failure to meet the basic human needs for love, security, recognition, achievement, and status in the community, as well as from poor community standards. They should be made aware that our precise knowledge in these fields is still very limited but that the focus is more and more upon the nuclear importance of good and stable early relationships and, allied to this, group membership springing from community living which gives an experience of satisfying social life, as opposed to emotional isolation which leads to a sense of "anomie" and loss of identity in an indifferent world. Much of the students' activity as social workers will lie with emotionally and socially damaged people. They will suffer less sense of personal failure if they are able to accept that some damage is apparently beyond repair and that in other instances only limited improvement is possible.

“Modern theories of personality development require extended and critical discussion. One method of achieving this is to present as a central thread the classical theory of psychoanalysis; this has the advantage of being at least broadly familiar to social work teachers, of being relatively complete and internally consistent and of emphasizing throughout its psychobiological origins. However, there are latent and manifest dangers in presenting this theory as a ‘party line’ or as a revelation immune from challenge or criticism, and at each stage in its elaboration it is desirable to clarify which concepts have the backing of experimental or other confirmation, and which remain speculative”.¹⁰

So far as personality structure is concerned, students require a good general idea of what is within the range of normal functioning at different ages and in different social milieu (see also p. 154). They must understand motivation, including the potency of a-rational and unconscious motivation, the strength of feelings and the futility of intellectual argument to change feelings and attitudes. At the same time, a large part of the focus of their work will be on strengthening the ego and the rational elements in the personality, as well as helping to release energy for constructive purposes. They need to be able to assess the degree of integration, of ego strength which the individual possesses and to work with this.

It is of great importance that they should be aware of and able to detect the purposes served by the defence mechanisms of projection, displacement, rationalisation, reaction formation, regression and denial, as well as the adaptive processes of compensation, identification and sublimation. They must understand the part played by these mechanisms in individuals and in group situations, so that they may realize the protective and adaptive purposes served by them, as well as their damaging effects if they become pervasive and rigid. As social workers they must be able to work with these defence mechanisms, while being well aware of the danger of heightening or lowering them to an extent which produces a degree of disequilibrium with which the individual cannot deal. This means that students must come to realize how these defences sustain the individual’s integration under stress so that he can persist in trying to overcome his difficulties or achieve his goals, even though under extreme stress the defence mechanisms may protect the personality at the expense of absorbing so much energy that the individual has no margin left to solve his problems. Similarly, it is essential that they should be familiar with mixed feelings or ambivalence, straightforwardly expressed by the small child’s rapid change from “I love you” to “I hate you” but usually manifested in disguised ways by the adult.

They must also become conscious, through study and through practical work, of the important part played by anxiety, fear and aggression in

¹⁰ G. Stewart Prince, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

human life. Normally they will see these in excess in their clients but they must be helped in the class-room to understand the value of fear and anxiety for survival and learning, as well as of aggression as the drive to overcome difficulties and to go out and achieve. They will often see people overwhelmed by anxiety in a wide diversity of crisis situations. They must be helped to realize that there are only a limited number of emotional reactions to such situations, notably fear leading to frustrating aggression or flight, or fear leading to a regressive withdrawal into self-love-hate and self-concern. At the same time, people can be helped to express, deal with, and gain control over their fears or hostilities and their desire to withdraw and become dependent. Thus a good understanding of the dependence-independence range in human beings at different stages of the life cycle, and under different circumstances of conflict or stress, is of basic importance to students of social work.

Many students are afraid of "making people dependent". They need help to realize that it is early life experience and social patterning which fundamentally determine this, so that to meet the valid dependency needs of reasonably normal people fully and freely at the time of crisis will often give them the hope and confidence which enable them to move forward. On the other hand, some apparently independent people are deeply dependent and to disturb their adaptation without full knowledge of what is being attempted and without ability to help them to regain their equilibrium may be deeply damaging to them. There are also others who have always been manifestly dependent and whose small capacity for independence must be encouraged rather than further weakened by doing everything for them, or alternatively, making too big demands upon them.

All through the teaching about human growth and development students must be helped to develop awareness of the part played by unconscious motivation and symbolism in human attitudes and behavior.

The neuroses, psychoses and mental defect will take their place in this total picture of human growth. Students need to know the characteristics of the major neuroses (anxiety, compulsive states and hysteria); the psychoses (schizophrenia, manic depressive insanity, paranoia and senility) and psychopathy (aggressive and creative). They should know something about the growth and measurement of intelligence and the range of mental defect. And also about mental illnesses and aberrant forms of behaviour caused by diseases of the central nervous system, as well as about sexual aberrations, and the mental disturbances sometimes caused by toxæmia, malnutrition, pregnancy and the puerperium. This knowledge is needed in order to know when a case should be referred to a psychiatrist, if there is one available, what responses are possible from mentally ill people, and therefore how to work helpfully with them and their families; what is known about causation; what are the main forms of treatment both through psychoanalysis and psycho-therapy and the various forms of drug therapy, and other physical treatment, for example, by the use of tranquilizers or surgical intervention. This material

should be related to provision for treatment and custodial care, and the laws relating to insanity. Social attitudes to mentally ill people in the culture, and to acknowledging and seeking treatment for mental illness will also require to be considered in relation to the whole mental health climate of a community and the part to be played by social workers in influencing social attitudes constructively.

CONCLUSION

In this outline much emphasis has been laid on the importance of giving students a good grasp of normal functioning, both physical and psychological, and of the close interrelatedness of these. In addition to the deviations from normal development which result in illness and socially unacceptable behaviour, students may also be helped to appreciate "deviation upwards" as well as "deviation downwards." They themselves will be enriched by study of the outstandingly mature and gifted, the genius, the great artist or scientist and the saint.

In some schools of social work, particularly those with a religious affiliation, there will be direct teaching about the spiritual nature of man either as different from, though enriched or impoverished by other parts of his nature and experience, or as the expression of his total being. In other teaching this may not be stressed as such, though students may concern themselves with the effect of ideals and social purposes in lifting men out of themselves and inspiring altruistic action. No matter what point of view may be held about man's spiritual nature, students may yet have their imaginations stretched and be humbled and uplifted by study of the great leaders of mankind in art, science, politics and religion. Every nation has its heroes, its ideals and its vision of a golden age, no matter what its religious affiliations or its political ideology; these act as an inspiration towards the attainment of a better life, and the goals of social work are related to them. In any event, students need to be sensitively aware of the important part played in the lives both of individuals and society at large by religion, art and politics.

It may well be objected that the material about man which has been marshalled in this chapter is both too all embracing and too superficial and also that there are major omissions. There is force in this argument, though it must be remembered that some of the material represents different aspects of the same concept, for example, the theme of love and security versus hate and fear occurs again and again. At the same time, the learning takes place in different parts of the total course, not only in various aspects of the teaching and study at the school but also continuously in the field work, and as the students become more aware in their observation of people in general and of themselves in particular. Selection may have to be made from this range of subject matter, even in substantial full time professional courses. Conversely it will often be desirable to study one aspect more deeply, be it child development, delinquency, or family relationships. If the focus is always upon what students need to

know to deepen their understanding of people in need, and in order to help them effectively in particular social work situations, then both the selection of material and the depth at which it is taught will begin to fall into place.

CHAPTER VIII

THE CONTENT OF TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK: THE STUDY OF SOCIETY

INTRODUCTORY

In the preceding chapter on the study of man there were frequent references to the basic importance of social relationships for individual growth and development, and to the effects of the total environment in influencing this. Similarly in this chapter it will often be necessary to refer to material about individual development and basic needs.

“Between the natural environment and the individual there is always interposed a human environment which is vastly more significant. This human environment consists of an organized group of other individuals, that is, a society, and of a particular way of life which is characteristic of this group, that is, a culture. It is the individual’s interaction with these which is responsible for the formation of most of his behaviour patterns, even his deep-seated emotional responses.”¹

This does not necessarily suggest that all individual behaviour is culturally conditioned.

“On the other hand, contemporary psychologists are becoming every day more conscious of the social and cultural factors in the making of man and of the necessity of considering him at once from the genetic standpoint and from the static standpoint, having regard to his social relations and background.”²

This indicates that in order to comprehend individual personality formation it is essential to take into account the processes of interaction between this and the social, cultural and economic elements in a community. And also the physical environment, natural resources and historical background which in their various ways affect the pattern and aspirations of community life.

For these reasons students need to be intelligently aware of social processes in order that they may be able to think in terms of the wholeness of man as composed both of his psycho-physical nature and also of

¹ Ralph Linton, *The Cultural Background of Personality* (London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1947), p. 8.

² *The University Teaching of Social Sciences—Sociology, Social Psychology and Anthropology* (Paris, UNESCO, 1954), p. 21.

should be related to provision for treatment and custodial care, and the laws relating to insanity. Social attitudes to mentally ill people in the culture, and to acknowledging and seeking treatment for mental illness will also require to be considered in relation to the whole mental health climate of a community and the part to be played by social workers in influencing social attitudes constructively.

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the effect of his social relationships on his attitudes and behaviour. This will of course include not only socio-cultural influences on behavior but also the historical background and governmental and legal institutions of a country, and the provision, whether public or voluntary, to meet individual need. Social work students must be

“concerned with the identification, description and analysis of certain human needs and their satisfaction, with the study of the processes of policy formation by and through a variety of social institutions; with the execution of these policies; with the ways and means by which choice and policy are translated into goods and services to meet these particular needs; and with the assessment of the extent to which the aims of policy are in practice achieved.”³

THE RELATION BETWEEN THE STUDY OF SOCIETY AND SOCIAL WORK

The importance to social workers of knowledge about the laws of interaction between the individual and society is clearly apparent, whether they work with individuals, groups or communities. What is less apparent is how this enormous range of material can be reduced to manageable compass without being taught so superficially as to be valueless, or else so that it overwhelms the students and overloads the curriculum.

The guiding principle in selection and focus should be what social workers need to know in order to function intelligently in their work with individuals, groups or communities. This seems to call for at least elementary knowledge of the social, cultural, economic, governmental and legal framework of the community in order to be able to appreciate the place of the individual within this framework and the impact of social, cultural and economic processes upon him. This should make it possible to assess realistically what responses can be expected from individuals, groups or communities in given situations, in economic, social, or cultural terms and in terms of institutionalized social provision. This is paralleled by the comparable framework already discussed for the developmental study of man in order to understand human motivation and what responses can be expected of different people at different ages in different circumstances. These circumstances are in any event likely to have a large social component, and this is the point at which the two frames of reference must be related to each other.

“The greatest accuracy of observation must be taught, and combined with objectivity in the selection and evaluation of data. With these tools the accumulation of a widely spread body of knowledge, in which the essential units of society are situations as a whole and great attention is paid to the interdependence of phenomena, can become the means of developing something which can only be described as social wisdom.”⁴

³ R. M. Titmuss, “The Role of Research in Social Welfare”, p. 2. Paper prepared for the European Seminar on the Relationship between Research, Planning and Social Welfare Policy, The Hague, 1957. (United Nations, UN/TAA/SEM/14/L.4).

⁴ T. H. Marshall, “The Role of the Social Sciences in the Training of Social Workers”, p. 5. Working Paper prepared for United Nations Regional Seminars on Training for Social Work (UNESCO/SS/UN Sem./Social Welfare Training/57/1).

The focus is thus upon knowledge which is necessary in order to make a social diagnosis and plan remedial action, taking into account the essential psychological, social, cultural and economic elements in the situation and the community resources available to meet it. To act inappropriately or in ignorance of cultural values, social structure and economic necessity is as likely to result in ineffective or damaging activity as to act in ignorance of the psychology of personal or family life.⁵

Within this general framework, a further guide to selection from this mass of material may be found not only in what the social worker needs to know in order to function, but also through a consideration of the social worker's normal point of entry to and purpose in a situation. This entry generally occurs at a point where the interaction between the individual and his circumstances has caused stress or tension which social work techniques could lessen, or where similar techniques could motivate groups to act or interact in a manner which improved their relationships and circumstances. The common aim is to lessen internal or external conflict or rigid responses, to increase confidence and hope, with consequent greater ability to manage a wider range of social situations without withdrawal or aggression. In fact, the common core in the activities of social workers in any circumstances seems to be an expansion of the area of freedom of choice, whether in individuals, groups or communities. This freedom is possible only to a minimal degree where the individual has a rigid defence system or lives within a society where behaviour is culturally determined on narrowly prescribed lines, or where extreme poverty eliminates economic choice. Broadly speaking, then, social workers are used both to loosen these rigidities, and also to help individuals who have some freedom in one area to exercise choice by becoming more free in other areas. For example, in a society where it is socially sanctioned for adolescents to leave home, individual problems of choice, as of possessiveness, rebellion, and the like, will more commonly arise than in cultures where behaviour is socially prescribed rather than being left to individual choice.

It is no doubt significant that social work began in material giving, that is in expanding the area of economic choice, that it went on to case-work, which has as a major aim the expansion of personal choice, and that it is now advancing in group work and community organization and development, which is directly concerned with group choice and with community, group and personal choice, related both to material goods and to means of improving group and community life without social disruption.

Social workers need to know about the governmental and legal framework of their society not only because this is an element in social structure but also because their function is to meet social needs and they do this from within and through the use of public and voluntary social welfare provision. At certain points, therefore, students must study relevant social legislation, forms of social provision and types of social agency in some detail, both in the class-room and in practice. This will include the actual administration of social agencies. The material here will be

⁵ For a full discussion of this and other aspects, see: Margaret Mead, *ed.*, *Cultural Patterns and Technical Change*. Paris, UNESCO, 1955.

related to that on group relations and group process. Their study of voluntary agencies may well be focused upon wider issues of social responsibility and good neighbourliness, as well as on the value of voluntary action for the common good as an element in healthy community life. Social philosophy must be studied as such but it should also be related to changing cultural values and aspirations in their society, to the nature of social obligation and to current attitudes to fundamental human rights as embodied in the practice of social agencies. Issues connected with authority and responsibility may come in here, as elsewhere, indeed this is a major theme which may well run right through the curriculum.

It is much more difficult in the study of society than in the study of man to decide whether to start with the general and then come later to specific applications related to practice, or *vice versa*. For example, whether to start in economics courses with the national income and arrive later at family and agency budgeting; whether to study the system of government in broad terms and related to the study of social structure before coming to the operation of given social agencies in particular cultural groups; and whether to familiarize the students with economic, sociological and anthropological ways of studying the total social process as a preliminary to the direct study of a given small community or group. Since professional students are being taught to think in conceptual terms and to apply principles, with actual information used in order to provide evidence for the concepts or principles, it may be most satisfactory to give them the broad concepts, the framework in which to think and to "make sense of experience" before requiring them to undertake deeper analysis in relation to practice. With courses for auxiliary workers and in-service training courses the reverse holds true, that is to say teaching should proceed from the particular (that is the known or about to be known) to the general (see p.137).

In the study of culture and the effect of cultural and sub-cultural patterns and expectations on individual attitudes and behaviour, students often find difficulty in seeing themselves as part of a culture, with attitudes and ways of living different from those of other cultures.

"... Even if a full use of the comparative method is impossible, a study of contrasts is vital. Without some knowledge of the range of possible differences in human society the student can have no sense of proportion."⁶

Anthropological studies of their own and similar cultures are helpful in this respect, coupled with studies of small isolated communities in their own society, or of peoples whose world may be easier to study because of its comparative simplicity, though it is remote from their own. Some of this knowledge they will be putting to direct use through understanding the effect of culture on individual behaviour.

This is also knowledge which plays its part in helping them to realize their own prejudices, stereotypes and culturally conditioned assumptions, thus rendering them more sensitive to the dangers of expecting others to conform to the same moral code or social obligations as their own—or regarding them as necessarily lacking in morality or manners or

⁶ T. H. Marshall, "The Role of the Social Sciences in the Training of Social Workers", op. cit., p. 5.

good sense if they fail to do so. Students need to be very well aware of the importance of understanding the patterns and values of a culture before trying to introduce change, however small the change may be. This is because to try to bring about a change in people's way of living, particularly in older, more stable cultures, is likely to affect their culturally sanctioned habits and customs. Unless the new is congruous with the old there will be anxiety, some greater or lesser degree of loss of identity and status, or reactions of "fundamentalism" and traditionalism, with the resultant risk of rejection of the new, or the dangerous breakdown of old ways before new ways of structuring social relationships have been evolved. A simple illustration from within a culture would be a vocational rehabilitation programme in which partially disabled men were trained in skills traditionally regarded in their subculture as women's work. It is also important for students to realize that a community may have evolved ways of living which fit better with its total needs than "improvements" as the student sees them.

Students will also be using directly that part of the study of society which deals with community resources, and especially with relevant legislation and social provision. As has been said, at this and other points, it may well be desirable in planning a curriculum to sketch in the total in fairly broad terms, bringing out significant principles illustrated by factual material. Thus students may study relevant social provision—for example, that relating to children and family welfare—in detail, and in relation to their studies of the importance of the dynamics of family life in human growth and development, of community attitudes to the family and accepted patterns of family life, and of social work method. In this detailed study the same principles can be drawn out as in the over-all sketch of total social provision so that students are given a frame of reference and a working method for use subsequently in their careers (for a further elaboration of this point see pp. 297, 304 and 311-312).

They should be helped in building up knowledge about the public and voluntary social welfare services, in their social work methods courses and in their field work to study the various steps which are comprised in community recognition of a need. This may include the initial identification of a problem by an individual or group of social reformers; the resultant study by voluntary or public enquiry or scientific research; the various attitudes about the need and ways to meet it; the economic and other issues involved in deciding as between priorities and making the decision; the legislative or voluntary agency changes required; the fundraising, administrative and other planning and the various personnel necessary to operate the service; and finally, how it operates in practice and what research or other devices exist to evaluate the results, and to indicate improvement and extension.

At certain points comparative analysis will make these varied aspects much more significant, whether the comparison be with different recognized social needs within a given country or with what is being learned and applied the world over; for example, the United Nations Reports on *The World Social Situation*⁷ on *International Definition and Measurement of Standards and Levels of Living*⁸ and the *International Survey*

⁷ United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1957.IV.3.

⁸ United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1954.IV.5.

of *Programmes of Social Development*⁹ provide particularly rich material, as well as a framework in which to consider social needs themselves, and current trends both in their extent and the steps which have been or might be taken to meet them.

A study of social provision in relation to criteria of social development will raise questions of priorities which may be related to the students' study of economics, community "felt needs," and social philosophy.

Students must also be aware of the part played by religion in their culture in regulating family and social life, particularly in the relations between the sexes and parents and children, in food habits, in obligations of good neighbourliness and in charitable giving. They must also be helped to see the present day as part of an historical process, with the living past, the historical memory and traditions of a people still influencing present day attitudes, and thus the ways in which it is possible to operate in the present. Their own contribution to social action will also become more clear as they realize with what struggles against ignorance, inertia, indifference or active opposition much social advance is won.

The study of society should not be allowed to become a dissection of dry bones but rather a means to fire the students' imagination about the hard-won gains of humanity in making richer and more varied use of natural resources beyond marginal needs for survival in struggling to discover and to use knowledge about the causation of sickness in order to prolong life and to promote physical and mental health; in creating art, music and literature; in exploring the universe and trying to understand its nature through religion, philosophy and science; and in the endeavour to evolve political systems which embody ideals, and which make life more secure for the individual, and for each nation in a community of nations. It is obvious that only small fractions of this whole are suitable for detailed treatment, but the intention is to suggest that the final aim of the study of society is to give students more knowledge and a wider horizon for their thought about the adventure of humanity on the march and their tiny place in its onward progress.

A REVIEW OF VARIOUS ASPECTS OF THE STUDY OF SOCIETY

The Munich meeting of experts on social work training (see p. 9) made the following suggestions about the study of society and the various divisions of the subject:

"In their study of society, students should not only be given information about how their own society is constituted, but should also understand the rationale underlying its various institutions; should see both the theory or idea, and the actual practice, and should learn to look at their own society critically in terms of its effects on the people who constitute it. For this purpose some material should be treated comparatively, for example, methods of social welfare administration. Students should also be helped to see current social issues as part of an historical process."¹⁰

⁹ United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1955.IV.8.

¹⁰ "Report of the United Nations Meeting of Experts on Social Work Training, Munich, 28 July-1 August 1956", p. 12 (Working paper No. 3).

In the following attempt to amplify the material which it would be desirable to include, it is necessary to stress once more that this is an endeavour to survey the social aspect of the total curriculum content rather than to outline separate courses. Since the ground covered is so wide, it is necessary to repeat again that in the actual teaching in any given school of social work or pre-professional course some matters may be less relevant and some will be sketched in comparatively lightly, although at certain points there may well be more detailed study and analysis. Because some of the material will be more directly relevant to the functions of future social workers it might be studied at greater depth but using the same methods of analysis and elucidation of principles as with all the rest of the subject matter. It is desirable that, if possible, the different aspects of the study of society should run parallel with each other and of course be related to the complementary study of man. It may be well to give a short comprehensive course at the beginning and then periodically to draw the different strands together, gathering the total together again at the end so that students are able to keep the whole in focus in relation to the parts, instead of failing to see the wood for the trees. The aim is to integrate knowledge about social process from social psychology, political theory, economics, sociology and cultural anthropology, and of course to relate this understanding of social process in relevant ways to the practice of social work. A major task which lies ahead is to interweave knowledge about the biological, psychological and social aspects of human behaviour, to test out theoretical knowledge in social work practice in different cultural settings and to make this available for student education.

GOVERNMENT

This subject will include a brief review of the national constitution, where final power resides, how power is divided between the legislative authority, the various departments of the Central Government, the States or provinces or the local authorities, and the courts of law. This will of course also include the framework of government and its operation. It may also be relevant to touch briefly upon the system of elections; the political party or parties and their relation to the organs of government. The ground to be covered will depend partly on what is taught in the educational system of the country concerned.

Law and the courts

This subject matter will include the nature of law; its relation to custom and morality, its value in regulating the relations between individuals and groups for the common good; and its binding force on all citizens. Law may be studied in one aspect as a form of social control and as an example of decision-making, together with the type of sanctions attached to these decisions. This will be related to the structure of the courts (criminal and civil); their role in society; their independence (theoretical and actual) from political and administrative interference and from bribery; and their functions in enforcing the law and adjudicating in disputes between individuals.

A distinction may be made at this point between civil and criminal law, with a delineation of the main types of offence which come before the courts. This would include how cases are heard, and the information

about the offender available to the court in determining sentence. A consideration of the range of disposal available to the courts will involve punitive and treatment aspects of the penal system and current social attitudes towards lawbreakers, both adult and juvenile, and to particular types of offence, as well as more detailed study of probation, parole, and penal institutions in which social workers are employed. This material requires to be related to study of the causes of delinquency, prevalent forms of delinquency, recidivism, the actual operation of the penal system, results of current research in criminology, and use of prediction studies. It will usually be important to pay special attention to the law relating to the family, to courts dealing with the family, and to the juvenile courts and the provision available for delinquent and wayward children.

All the foregoing material should be related to a study of the methods by which decisions on social policy, planning and legislation are reached, and the part played by political parties, national planning boards, committees of enquiry and social surveys; as well as by voluntary agencies and other groups interested in social reform. It must also be related to the study of social attitudes, and factors influencing social change. It is further assumed that much of the material in this entire section will also be treated historically.

From this should follow an analysis of the methods by which decisions about social welfare policy are implemented. This will include the process by which projected social welfare legislation becomes law; its legal framework; how it is financed; the administrative authorities responsible for implementing it and the procedures within which they work; the civil service, including administrative, professional and technical staffs and their interrelationship (with special reference to the place of social workers in the social welfare services). A more detailed study of actual administrative processes may follow at this point and be picked up later in the methods courses (see p. 187).

It will usually be desirable to teach at greater depth about the social welfare provision in the country concerned, both by public agencies and voluntary effort. This will include an analysis of the legal sanctions, structure and operational framework of the various services (related to understanding of human needs, cultural values, social attitudes and economic conditions), and also of gaps, overlapping and recognized need for further provision. Particular attention will no doubt be paid to education, health, nutrition, housing, social security, family, child and youth welfare, employment services, and social defence. This will involve an analysis of the available forms of social care, including financial provision (through social security and other measures), domiciliary services schools; clinics; day hospitals; crèches; maternity and child welfare centres; hostels; and institutional treatment and custodial care in hospitals, children's homes, old people's homes, public assistance institutions, and penal establishments of various kinds.

This part of the curriculum is closely related to the study of basic human needs, considered from the angle of the degree to which and the ways in which these are met for various groups and in the society as a whole. There will also be discussion of unmet needs and what in fact

happens to those for whom appropriate provision does not exist. This is also related to the study of deviant behaviour, social attitudes to this, and the kind of social provision for its control or treatment where it impoverishes community life, or for incorporating it where it enriches community life.

The value of family and local community provision to meet its own social needs may be picked up here, though the chief emphasis on this is likely to come in the study of community process (see p. 176 ff). The part played by voluntary action, voluntary societies and volunteer service is relevant here as in other places in the curriculum. This part of the subject matter will also lead to discussion of the value of voluntary effort as an element in social cohesion, and of the relative merits of public services and voluntary societies for particular purposes, and their relation to each other in identifying social needs, in pioneering services and in stimulating improvements in their operation.

This may include the place of religious institutions, of trade unions and other associations in the community, and the importance of working with them. Reference to the use of social statistics, and a cross-reference to social research as a means of identifying need and formulating, testing and validating hypotheses about causation and treatment may be relevant at this point.

Political theory or social philosophy

This will include the major theories of the nature and purpose of the state and of the relation between the individual, society, and the State; the aims of the State and various views about the nature of social good or progress; problems of authority, conformity, responsibility; political and civil rights and liberties; equality and social justice. It is also important to discuss the nature of social obligation and the duties of the individual, the community and the state in relation to each other. Furthermore, it will be desirable to study problems of reconciling the right of the individual to self-determination with the rights of the community, and the community's obligation to respect all individuals and to regard their rights as equal. This will also include discussion of religious, political and racial toleration and the rights of minorities, together with the relation between religious authorities and the State. Theories of punishment (retribution, deterrence and reform) and their relation to prevalent social attitudes and the current penal system may be studied here from another angle. A study of the nature of social obligation, and of family, neighbour, community, national and international responsibilities will cast light on current social values and on philosophical assumptions about the use of power, authority and coercion. At many points in this study the students may be called upon to consider the social philosophy underlying the aims of social work, as well as to become more explicit about the ethical assumptions which they continually make in practical work, or that are implicit in agency structure and policies (see also methods courses, pp. 194-195).

"It is a characteristic feature of a profession that its members must serve, equally and simultaneously, the interests of . . . individuals . . . and of society. . . . For many social workers, dealing directly with human needs which arouse their sympathies, this dual responsibility

is difficult to fulfil. The duty to the individual is clearly seen and felt; the duty to society must be discovered by study, with the help of the social sciences and social philosophy."¹¹

It is also important for students to realize that it is not the function of the social sciences to determine policy—which is ultimately related to goals and social philosophy—but rather to clarify the issues to be taken into account in determining the feasibility and probable consequences of a given policy.

ECONOMICS

It is assumed that students would be introduced to fundamental issues of the economic life of society, that they would learn to think realistically about economic aspects of social policy, and that the subject matter would be focused upon public and voluntary social services, family budgeting and levels of living, and the economic life of particular groups and communities. Some of this knowledge is "second-hand" in the same sense as knowledge about the physical nature of man, that is to say, it is necessary to have it, but for indirect use. If, however, social students are to understand and work within the limitations of economic consequences it is essential for them to realize that "choice is one of the basic problems of economic life. It arises from the fact that available resources are limited in relation to man's desires."¹² This is related to social work in that one of its aims is to help people to become more free and responsible in the exercise of choice. In a UNESCO Working Paper on the Teaching of Economics in Schools of Social Work prepared for the regional seminars on training, Professor Eveline Burns suggests that the teaching of economics should start:

"from the assumption that the aim of economics teaching in schools of social work is to impart an understanding of the central concerns of the economist, of the essence of the economic approach to a problem and some familiarity with the basic concepts of economics as they bear upon the field of social welfare." This "involves a selection of aspects of any areas that are relevant to the economic problems presented by current and proposed social welfare policies and programs."¹³

which means deciding what economic knowledge the social worker needs in order to function adequately as a professional person.

"The purpose of economic teaching in schools of social work is not to turn out practitioners who are economists but to produce practitioners who are aware of the bearing of economic considerations on the policies and programs in which they are interested or involved, and who have a sufficient grasp of the central concerns of economics and of the way in which economists approach a problem to be able to communicate meaningfully with economists at times when the judgement or help of the economist in policy formation is indicated."¹⁴

¹¹ T. H. Marshall, *op. cit.* (Annex, p. 2).

¹² Pierre Mendès-France and Gabriel Ardant, *Economics and Action* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1955), p. 150.

¹³ Eveline Burns, "The Teaching of Economics in Schools of Social Work", p. 7. Working Paper prepared for United Nations Regional Seminars on Training for Social Work (UNESCO/SS/UN Sem./Social Work Training/57/II).

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

She suggests that in order to achieve these objectives the teaching should be planned round

“Two central concerns of contemporary economics :

- (1) The problem of scarcity
- (2) The problem of total output

These two central concerns of economics provide the structure on which as much, or as little, theoretical analysis and factual detail as is desired can be built. But if the nature of these two economic problems is not understood the rest is meaningless. . . .”¹⁵

The following is a brief résumé of some of the ground which might be covered, depending upon the time available and the future responsibilities of social work students :

(1) The nature and field of economics. Problems of scarcity and other fundamental concerns of economics, including the concepts of marginality and the optimum. The economic aspects of society and the economic element in social problems ; the importance of noting trends, for example in aggregate production, or in the national income per head of the population.

(2) The economic life of society. How economic wealth is produced, natural resources, manpower, the use of technology and technical equipment. The changing structure of agriculture, industry and commerce and the workers' place in each. Industrialization, including mass production and the division of labour versus peasant cultivation and hand crafts. Economic problems of production and marketing. The use of money as the medium of exchange ; other forms of payment. How wages, earnings and prices are determined. Real wages and money wages. The structure of the working population ; employment, underemployment and unemployment. Conditions of work, with special reference to women and children. The role of government, trade unions and employers' associations in determining wages and conditions of work.

(3) The national income. Total production and expenditure. The distribution of the national income as between different social groups in the community ; the proportion of total public expenditure devoted to social welfare. Problems of determining priorities in relation to scarce resources, and in timing and balance designed to produce the maximum economic and social benefit. Public and private investment and saving. Family budgeting : patterns of family spending (especially on food, housing, clothing and recreation) in different social groups. The concept of a poverty line, a consideration of those who fall below it and what appear to be the causes of their poverty. Criteria for determining levels of living, the means being taken to raise the level of living, their effectiveness and the problems posed by such factors as limited natural resources, lack of capital, illiteracy, lack of technicians, the cultural habits of the people. A study of levels of living, the problems of raising them, and the trends in the particular country may well form a “core” subject in which material from all the other subjects is focused and the students may participate by observation exercises.

¹⁵ *Ibid.* p. 8.

(4) Problems of urbanization; causes of migration; transport; other means of communication; housing, sanitation and general living and working conditions; the rate of growth of cities. Problems of change from the village community and the enlarged family and tribal system to urban conditions of large-scale employment and the small family, often broken by separation. This is another "core" subject: it might well be studied with the causes and effects of social change as the central theme but necessarily using material from the whole curriculum.

(5) Demographic trends: the population and population trends in relation to total national income and production trends. Fertility; the birth, infant mortality and death rates. Factors affecting the average expectation of life. The age, sex, occupational, and urban and rural distribution of the population. Economic and social problems of rapid population growth, of underemployment and dependency (children, the sick and the aged). Issues of family planning, including the religious attitudes involved. This material should be related to that on patterns of family life, the social provision to safeguard the family and improve its living conditions, the law relating to the family, and the importance of a good family setting for the emotional, mental and physical development of the child.

There is clearly a close relationship between the material on economics and that on government, social structure, social pathology, and social research. One of the purposes of the study will be to give students:

"an awareness of the fundamental economic problem (in whatever form it may take) namely, human needs are limitless and human resources are scarce so that a choice must be made between alternative uses of material and manpower. This study of the necessity of choice should give the student an understanding of economic interrelations e.g. between wages and prices. It should also enable the students to see that no choices are purely economic but that they also involve consideration of political and social as well as economic values."¹⁶

The difficult task for curriculum planning and teaching is to give students an intelligent understanding of the economic life of their society and to relate this to the psycho-social study of the community, and both to individual behaviour and the dynamics of family life. This will include an appreciation that closed, tight-knit cultures where community cohesion is strong may be economically backward, whilst economically prosperous communities may lack social cohesion. Each in fact may be at one or other extreme of "open" or "closed" societies. It will also include the acute problem which faces social workers in those countries where economic resources and social provision are limited in relation to human needs.

SOCIOLOGY, SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY¹⁷

The material to be selected from these social sciences is of basic importance in the training of social workers because it is the major means

¹⁶ "Report of the United Nations Meeting of Experts on Social Work Training, Munich, 1956," *op. cit.*, p. 15.

¹⁷ For a discussion of some of the problems of definition and demarcation between these socio-cultural sciences see *The University Teaching of Social Sciences—Sociology, Social Psychology and Anthropology*, *op. cit.*

by which students are helped to become sensitive to social influences on individual and group behaviour, with particular emphasis on the importance of understanding the culture component in family patterns, accepted norms of social behaviour, and individual roles in the family and the community, for example cultural expectations of the man as husband, father and breadwinner. This understanding is not only necessary for social diagnosis and social work remedial measures, but also in order that students may become conscious of the gap which may separate their own cultural values and assumptions from those of their clients. In conditions of rapid social change, it is also essential for social workers to be aware of and able to use knowledge about the importance to individual well-being of structured ways of relating to others and of socially sanctioned norms of behaviour. The aim is to give students an understanding of the systems of social interaction which constitute community life, of the social structure and processes at work in the community. They need sufficient working knowledge about the social component in individual behaviour, the way the basic drives are channelled and expressed and basic needs fulfilled in the particular culture or sub-culture, with some analysis of the extent to which these culturally determined values and ways of living may be stimulating or thwarting the healthy growth and functioning of the individual human person. They must also be helped to apply this knowledge in their work with individuals, groups and communities.¹⁸ This application also necessitates knowledge about group relationships, beginning with the primary group of the family, and the processes at work in the interwoven group relationships which form so important a part of the individual's life experience. This is essentially a study of the processes of socialization.

“Society confronts the individual (child and adult) with a certain pattern of behaviour. How does the individual answer these expectations, how does he introject values and norms, how does he develop his attitude toward authority, and how does he acquire a socially-determined role? Whenever people leave old-established patterns of life, and enter into new ways, guidance is necessary to overcome resistance to change and to prevent maladjustment.”¹⁹

For purposes of description and analysis this material must be separated from that on human growth and development but in fact the two must be integrally related to each other in the actual teaching of students. This is essential if they are to understand that:

“No man ever looks at the world with pristine eyes. . . . The life history of the individual is first and foremost and accommodation to the patterns and standards traditionally laid down in his community. From the moment of his birth the customs into which he is born shape his experience and behaviour. By the time he can talk he is the little creature of his culture, and by the time he is grown and able to take

¹⁸ See especially Margaret Mead, *ed.*, *Cultural Patterns and Technical Change*, *op. cit.*

¹⁹ H. A. Hutte, “Some Problems in Teaching Social Psychology to Students of Social Work”, p. 5. Working Paper prepared for United Nations Regional Seminars on Training for Social Work (UNESCO/SS/UN Sem./Social Work Training/58/II).

part in its activities, its habits are his habits, its beliefs his beliefs, its impossibilities his impossibilities."²⁰

Students may be helped to accept this often disturbing change from familiar assumptions as they begin to realize that ethnological studies do not show any fundamental differences in the basic physical, mental and emotional endowment of mankind, with the necessary corollary that the range of human behaviour and achievement from the most primitive peoples to the most highly civilized is due to culture, to social life and the influence of physical and other aspects of the environment rather than to innate biological differences. This plasticity of human nature may be made more vivid by illustrations from widely different societies and very varied attitudes towards, for example, the relations between the sexes, religion, property and war; as well as by an attempt to understand the relation of these cultural differences to basic human needs and drives. This may prove a suitable point at which to introduce discussion on students' difficulties in becoming aware of their own culturally influenced behaviour, and the extent to which these are interwoven with subconscious or unanalysed prejudices, rationalizations and projections.

The following is a summary of some of the ground to be covered. The arrangement is to some extent arbitrary, and in any event the selection and arrangement of this material will depend almost more than in any other subjects on what it is important to emphasize in schools of social work in the country concerned. It is likely that the family and its social functioning, the roles of family members and the effect on the family of social change and stress will be the central integrating concept. This is so because of the basic importance of the family in social work practice.

"The question of the differential distribution of social stress and how this may relate to intra-family interaction is extremely important for social work. It is an area in which social work could contribute as much as could sociology."²¹

Here, then, is a key point at which the background and methods courses are interconnected with each other.

Social structure

This is essentially an analysis of the nature of society, its components and the structure of a given society. Attempts to identify the nature of "society" or community will show how little is known about how communities come into being, how, that is to say small groups merge themselves into more complex forms of social organizations. It is however, necessary to have some frame of reference in order to study trends or movements in any given community.

"The best known frame of reference of this kind is the so called *Gemeinschaft Gesellschaft* continuum . . . Social systems of organizations approaching the *Gemeinschaft* pole of the continuum are defined as spontaneous groupings which acquire a traditional, emo-

²⁰ Ruth Benedict, *Patterns of Culture* (New York, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934), p. 2.

²¹ Isaac L. Hoffman, "Research, Social Work, and Scholarship", *The Social Service Review* (Chicago), March 1956, p. 31.

tional or 'sacred' character in the course of time. In such groupings the ends are often not dissociable from the means and the inner relations have an intrinsic quality of their own; as in the case of a clan, a club, or a family. At the *Gesellschaft* pole, the organization is rational rather than spontaneous and secular rather than sacred. The relations between the individuals composing the group are not primarily ends in themselves, but are the means to other ends; as in the case of the staff of a factory or the shareholders of a corporation. At the one end of the pole is the tightly-knit village community with a strong sense of local solidarity and loyalty to tradition, and at the other end is the type of modern city where the workers live in dormitory areas and have little contact with each other except as rate-payers and neighbours. In such cases the city and the dormitory area tend to be contractual or *Gesellschaft*-like bodies and the *Gemeinschaft* or 'familistic' element tends to be lost. It is possible to establish a scale of characteristics bridging these two poles."²²

This type of analysis should also be related to the formal and informal or avowed and unavowed purposes of groups (see pp. 181-182 and 229), as well as to the dynamic processes in community life discussed below. This study of community processes and change must also be linked with that on individual motivation and behaviour. No matter what views are taken about the extent to which individual behaviour is culturally influenced, the fact remains that some individuals conform rigidly to the standards of their culture, others are more ready for change, others still are the real innovators of social change, whether as accepted leaders or as social rebels. The extent or lack of cultural clash in a given community will also influence individual rigidity, flexibility or confusion about accepted norms and roles.

The analysis of the nature of society and its various components, including social stratification and mobility, will include the effect of the physical environment and of ecology in the evolution of and planned changes in the social structure. This study will also include the nature and function of social institutions, illustrated by such major social institutions as the family; religious and political occupational, professional and leisure groups; and the place of the educational system in society.

The cultural and ethical values embodied in these institutions, the religious and political life of the community, and the relation of the class structure of society to occupation, income, education, and to social roles and status should be studied in themselves and in their relation to social philosophy, social economics and social welfare provisions. Students will need to acquire a good understanding of the power distribution and structure of their society; of the importance of socially defined roles and status in determining individual behaviour; and of the effects of continual change and adjustment in the various aspects of social life, often leading to disorientation, tension and conflict, particularly between majority and minority groups of all kinds, resulting in problems of reconciling majority and minority interests, and the methods used in the particular society for doing this.

²² H. M. Phillips, "The Contribution of Applied Social Research", pp. 11-12. Paper prepared for the United Nations Seminar on Social Research and Community Development in European Problem Areas, Palermo, Sicily, 8-18 June 1958 (UN/TAA/Sem./17/L/1).

This necessitates an understanding of social cohesion as a complex and changing interrelationship between social institutions and social groups, which also embody the social values and accepted ways of thinking, feeling and acting. The purpose these serve in to provide means of reconciling the claims of different members of society by establishing expected behaviour, leading to an ordered yet flexible social life. Part of this material will require to be studied from the standpoint of individual development in order that the student may understand the processes by which children and young people are socialized; as well as the varied social controls, including family discipline, group rejection, social disapproval, and legal sanctions which operate to deal with those who deviate from the accepted norms. Problems associated with group and social pressures to conformity may be studied here and elsewhere.

The cultural component of society

The concept of culture itself may be studied with reference to typical cultural and sub-cultural groups in the particular society; their differing attitudes and value systems in regard to major life experiences, as expressed through culturally defined situations, ways of behaving and role relationships. The propensity of human beings to develop deeply ingrained culturally conditioned habits, attitudes, stereotypes and prejudices of which they are often largely unaware will be appropriately considered in relation to planned or unplanned, desired or resisted social change; together with the problems created by cultural lag and culture clashes in the changing conditions of a complex society. It is particularly important for their practice as social workers that students should grasp the significance of social attitudes, prejudices and habits, especially in relation to such matters as family obligation, food habits, work aspirations and culturally determined moral values.

It is also necessary that they should understand the concept of communication in its various forms, as well as those factors which facilitate or block effective communication, thus promoting or impeding good social relationships, whether in society at large or in small face to face groups, and as between different social and occupational groups, ethnic groups, and religious and political groups. This study of communication will include the effects of a common or differing cultural heritage, of education, of language, of technological change, of propaganda, and of mass media of communication together with the part these play in forming and changing social attitudes and public opinion.

Attitudes towards authority, social obligation and social responsibility may be studied in more detail, for example in the society as a whole, in the relations between parents and children, in work and class hierarchies, and in the relations between clients and social agencies. This may be a useful point at which to help students to look objectively at their own conflicting attitudes towards authority and its use, and to think out what constitute necessary uses of authority.

A study of the ways in which attitudes change is important for social workers, part of whose skill lies in helping individuals, groups or communities to change those attitudes which impede their freedom of choice and control of their affairs. Where possible, this should be linked with discussion of one or two pieces of action research on attitude change.

Groups and group relations

It is now generally recognized that it is of basic importance to social workers to know how to use knowledge of group process. Some of the ground covered here will thus require to be reinforced in the methods courses and in the field work, and will be outlined in more detail in the chapters dealing with these subjects. The subject matter will include the nature of groups, with group participation considered as being inherent in human nature, since group life is antecedent to the emergence of the separate individual in society. This indicates that group membership is essential for individual development and mental health, because it affords opportunities to satisfy the basic human needs for mutual relationships, achievement, security and recognition.

An analysis of the actual processes of group life will include study of the impulses which bring people together, how groups are formed, the purposes which different groups exist to fulfil, the natural history of a group and the interrelationships between members of a group and between different groups. The various types of group would include such typical group formations as face to face groups, reference groups, peer groups, acceptable and disadvantaged groups, minority groups, groups which are held together by their social isolation, groups which are formed for a specific purpose and then disintegrate or agree to break up, groups which endure over generations, and groups based upon conscious selection, or upon propinquity.

Case studies may be used to illustrate what is known about the changing pattern of group relationships, the formation of sub-groups, changing leadership roles, the emergence of agreement or clash, and their relation to the rhythm of group life, the roles of leader and follower, of isolate and scapegoat, of "we" and "they" attitudes; and the re-enactment of family patterns in group relationships, manifested in relation to authority figures and in sibling rivalries. An understanding of group process also shows the important part played by communication between the members in deepening group feeling, and of communication between the group and the outside world as a means to lower prejudice and control the spread of rumour. The forms of communication will include consultation and discussion, their values, and problems of their effective use. Conversely, poor communication and arbitrary decisions, either by the leader or from outside the group, serve to heighten tensions and hostilities. Problems of communication in larger institutions or agencies will include study of lines of communication, both formal and informal. This is important for social work students as part of their understanding of group process in administration. Studies of the work group may be particularly significant here, especially in relation to social work in industry.

The values of group membership to the individual may also be studied developmentally, starting with the primary group of the family and going on through the natural play groups of childhood, school groups, the one sex and hetero-sexual companionship and interest groups of adolescence, through which social skills are learned and initiation into adult society is facilitated, to the varied adult work, leisure, interest and social groups, and the closing circle of old age.

The amount of social nourishment which the normal individual receives from satisfying group life throws light on the effects of impoverishment of group and social life, resulting in the "anomie" and rootlessness, the absence of a sense of belonging and of defined roles, status and expectations in society which sometimes result from the rapid growth of urban areas, social and geographical mobility and social change and disruption. The loneliness and sense of isolation which this creates must also be considered in relation to basic personality structure, as well as to its effects on child-rearing.

Social work students also need to be familiar with the disadvantaged groups in their society, the nature of the disadvantage, whether legal, conventional, social, racial, religious, or on account of poverty, physical or mental handicap (blind, deaf, crippled, epileptic, mentally ill or defective, old and infirm people) or because of socially unacceptable sex behaviour, or delinquency, or other conduct regarded as anti-social. The effects of social isolation on the behaviour of these various disadvantaged groups is likely to be similar at certain points, though it will also depend on the degree of social ostracism, the efforts being made to overcome their disabilities and the nature of the resistances to this. Social work students need to be aware of known ways of overcoming community resistances and of enlisting positive sympathy as an element in the socialization, rehabilitation and integration in the community of members of disadvantaged groups.

SOCIAL COHESION AND SOCIAL DISRUPTION

This aspect of the study of society flows naturally from the identification of socially disadvantaged groups or "problem" communities; though there are immense difficulties as yet unresolved in deciding upon all the variables which would constitute criteria by which to diagnose social "health" or "welfare" and "sickness", social impoverishment or deviance, particularly as this would at certain points involve translating qualitative judgements into quantitative terms. The value of judgements involved will necessarily reflect the values of the culture, and thus some elements which enter into the appraisal may vary from one part of the world to another.

It is also essential to note the direction of trends in all the elements which enter into the assessment. The classification of components suggested in the United Nations *Report on International Definition and Measurement of Standards and Levels of Living* is as follows:²³

- (1) Health, including demographic conditions
- (2) Food and nutrition
- (3) Education, including literacy and skills
- (4) Conditions of work
- (5) Employment situation
- (6) Aggregate consumption and savings
- (7) Transportation
- (8) Housing, including household facilities

²³ United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1954.IV.5. See pp. 54-55 for an amplification of the above.

- (9) Clothing
- (10) Recreation and entertainment
- (11) Social security
- (12) Human freedoms

It is not of course suggested that either "healthy" or "unhealthy" communities exist in pure form. There are, however, criteria for measuring changes in levels of living and indicators of rigid, disorganized socially and economically depressed; or conversely well-integrated yet flexible, communities. These two factors of economic and social potential must be considered together, especially in relation to economically derelict communities or high delinquency areas within the society.

"Paradoxically the test of the health of a society may well be the type of deviant it produces and its power of adjustment to change."²⁴

The material studied here must of course be closely related to that in the methods subjects on norms of satisfactory individual, group and community functioning (see pp. 239-240). Some of the following criteria of "health" and "pathology" identified by the Munich meeting of experts on Social Work Training might serve as a starting point for discussion and amplification:

(i) *The healthy society.* So far as a modern urbanized society is concerned, criteria of health might be related to opportunity and incentive available to citizens to develop their capacities, the extent to which free association thrived, and the extent to which there was wide toleration of differences but also with a sense of underlying unity and strong mutual support. In such a society man would be free from severe material deprivation or emotional and social impoverishment and thus free to grow and change as a psycho-physical and social being. The criteria might be very different in a conservative rural society.

(ii) *Social pathology.* Students should identify some of the major symptoms of pathology and deviance in their society. This concept includes severe deprivations which interfere with human development. For example, isolated and static communities, disintegrated neighbourhoods with no community cohesion, material poverty, malnutrition, bad conditions of living and work, emotional deprivation, poverty and disintegration of family and social relationships, inter-group strife, social ostracism, coercion by the state, and the effects of forced migration. Some of the behaviour symptoms to which this physical, emotional and social impoverishment may give rise are delinquency, gang warfare and other inter-group strife, drug addiction, alcoholism, prostitution, broken marriages, child neglect, and other forms of behaviour which are socially unacceptable in the particular community.

Students should be helped to study the significance and known extent of the selected symptoms. And also their relation to the values of the society, that is to say, any symptom may prove pathological if it repre-

²⁴H. M. Phillips, "Problems of the Inter-Disciplinary Approach", p. 11. Paper prepared for the European Seminar on the Relation between Research, Planning and Social Welfare Policy, The Hague, 1957 (United Nations, UN/TAA/SEM/14/Misc.5).

sents a breakdown of social norms unaccompanied by substitution of other generally accepted norms regulating social behaviour. Whatever symptoms are selected, the students should examine the known and surmised causes (distinguishing clearly between fact and hypothesis), the effects and the methods used in dealing with the problem.

Delinquency is a particularly appropriate "core" subject because it is a delicate barometer of personal maladjustment and social pressure, and it calls for the use of material from the whole range of subject matter, as well as the students' practical work experience. It also well illustrates the range of social research methods and projects used in the attempt to clarify causation and to plan appropriate treatment.

As in any event social workers are largely employed in dealing with symptoms of social pathology, it is important that they should be clear about some of the issues, and that they should relate attempts to arrive at criteria of social health or welfare with discussions about the objectives of social work. This material should be linked to the study of individual deviant behaviour, to groups manifesting hostile and socially destructive behaviour, and to "problem areas".

"... The term 'problem area' could apply to any area, whether urban or rural, whether industrialized or predominantly agricultural, where the prevailing conditions are not in accordance with the standard of living and well-being that would be acceptable and attainable in the country in question."²⁵

SOCIAL RESEARCH

It would be expected that aspects of social research would be introduced throughout the whole course so that students would become familiar with the appropriate use of statistical material, with specific pieces of social research bearing on the subjects they are studying, and with ways in which in the social field scientific hypotheses are formulated, tested, validated or disproved. In the methods courses and in their field work they will have constantly to bear in mind possibilities of multiple causation, differential diagnosis and the principle of economy of hypothesis (see also p. 199). The aim will be that they shall come to regard scientific enquiry and research as necessary to the clarification of social problems, to identification and study of causes and their effects, to discovery of means to alleviation or cure, to what is involved in applying such measures and to evaluating the results.

The amount of teaching in actual social research methodology will differ in different countries. Students who are taking three or four year courses often start with a simple study of a community, a particular social problem, or a family (see p. 331). This is an effective early means to integrate various subjects and to make students conscious of the need to take these different aspects into account.

²⁵ *Community Organization and Family Welfare in European Problem Areas. Report of the Expert Group. Baarn, near Hilversum (Netherlands), 2-8 October 1955 (United Nations, TAA/EG/Rep./2), p. 5.*

"The value of an approach based on the uniqueness of each community is that it brings to the fore the process of inter-action between economic, social and cultural factors in a community."²⁶

In making such studies students would have to be helped to look for available information, statistical and other, about the matter they were studying. They should also learn what in their own findings were accurate observations from which inferences could properly be drawn, what raised further questions for exploration, and what was sound or unsound surmise.²⁷ The points at which they relate their own simple studies to existing material on the subject will emphasize for them the necessity for inter-disciplinary research. It may also make their economic and social studies more vivid by bringing home to them the mass of social statistical information—economic, financial, demographic, administrative, medical and other—needed in order to keep any society going.

In many schools students are required to submit a thesis or dissertation as part of the final evaluation for the qualifying award. By the time they begin to work on this they should have a scientific approach to all their work and some facility in handling simple social research material. They will require to study the social research methods appropriate to their research projects. They should also know something about other forms of social research and methodology. In some of their courses they will be studying the results of "pure" or "basic" research, and they themselves, both at the school and in their future work, may be called upon to contribute to "analytical", "applied" or "operational" research.

They must therefore know how a research project is set up, how questions are posed in a researchable form, goals determined, the area of research defined. This will lead on to issues of research design, which will include initial study or pilot surveys, as well as gathering, classifying and evaluating any material already available about the subject of enquiry. Students should know something about questionnaire drafting, design, use and techniques; selection of sampling method; the use of control groups; the uses of various types of interview in social research; and different methods of collecting the necessary data.

It will also be appropriate for them to be aware of different types of social research. Probably they themselves are most likely to be engaged in general community studies, social surveys related to some specific issue, and various forms of "action" or "operational" research, including the keeping of case histories and case studies in some agreed standardized form. It is also increasingly the practice to use social workers as members of research teams conducting long-term research into some problem with medical, psychological and social aspects. The results of some of these research projects may be used in the school's teaching.

²⁶ H. M. Phillips, "The Contribution of Applied Social Research", p. 7. Working paper prepared for a United Nations Seminar on Social Research and Community Development in European Problem Areas, Palermo, Sicily, 8-18 June 1958 (UN/TAA/SEM/17/L/1).

²⁷ For a comprehensive guide to social survey method see *Fact Finding with Rural People*. Rome, FAO, 1955. See also Saiyid Zafar Khan, "Social Work Research", *The Indian Journal of Social Work* (Bombay), vol. XVIII, No. 1, June 1956, pp. 1-11.

For the purpose of their own research projects, and also in order to use research material intelligently, they must not only know about different types of research and research design and method, and how to eliminate bias in selection, but also how data is collected, analysed and correlated and what types of statistical analysis must be used, and other conditions fulfilled, in order to draw valid deductions from it. This may require that they shall be able to use—or at least to have an intelligent understanding of appropriate statistical methods used to summarize material and to validate or disprove hypotheses.

It will often happen that an initial research study is undertaken in order to isolate the factors requiring further study, or else to determine the best course of action in relation to some social issue. The term "best" is, of course, question-begging, indeed it may be part of the research itself to determine this in terms of a community's wishes and attitudes, in economic terms, or in relation to bringing about changes in behaviour in some particular sphere—for example as part of an immunization campaign. In all these circumstances the research may be a prelude to action. But this means that the outcome of the action decided upon in the light of the initial research findings must itself be evaluated. It will be necessary to have precise knowledge about the situation at the time the evaluation starts (the base line). It will also usually be necessary in such instances to decide beforehand what standardized records are to be kept in order to produce comparable material, to be tested if possible and appropriate against a control group not subject to the same action, provided the other variables can be held constant, or at least allowed for.²⁸ In evaluation studies, as in other research, students must know what would constitute the minimum length of time, necessary periodicity of test, size of population being studied, and so forth, to make it valid to draw deductions from the results.

Inevitably, students must also consider what is readily measurable in quantitative terms, for example, increases in crop yields, and also the much more difficult criteria required to measure changes in the psycho-social field, for example, the various secondary effects on people's behaviour, relationships and motivation of the increased crop yield. This will introduce ways of reducing qualitative issues to quantitative terms.

It need hardly be added that for the outcome of a social research project to be valid the initial hypothesis must be formulated in relation to what would be relevant within the culture, and that the methods used to conduct the research or any experiment connected with it should not run counter to accepted cultural norms in the society concerned. To ignore these factors would be likely to invalidate the findings, or else to use elaborate means to prove the obvious.

The desired outcome so far as the students are concerned is that this part of the total course should reinforce: (a) the development of a scientific attitude of mind; (b) orderly methods of collecting and arranging data and knowing how to draw evidence from the material; (c) understanding of the kind of scientific enquiry needed to identify.

²⁸ For evaluative studies in social work see David G. French, *An Approach to Measuring Research in Social Work*. New York, Columbia University Press, 1952.

explore and find remedies for social problems; (*d*) respect for and ability to use social statistics and other statistical information; (*e*) training in how to observe accurately and to record observations in comparable form; (*f*) an appreciation of the inter-disciplinary approach needed to explore social issues; (*g*) sufficient knowledge of elementary social research methodology to be able to keep records or collect material required by a social agency, or to take part in a social research project; (*h*) and finally to stimulate sufficient research-mindedness and sufficient intellectual curiosity in at least some of the students, so that in their professional careers they may make an active contribution to the clarification and study of some segment of a social problem.

Some schools of social work conduct their own research projects, with or without student participation. It can make a considerable difference to bringing about the attitudes of mind suggested above as objectives if students can take part with the staff in research projects. Some of these projects may have been suggested by social agencies. In any event these research projects and students' own theses may often be important means of clarifying some social problem and ways to meet it. They may also add to the social literature available for use in the country concerned.

ADMINISTRATION

At the present time, schools of social work are beginning to teach administration rather differently from the days when it was either studied only in relation to broad issues of social policy or else as the minutiae of agency practice. It is now beginning to be taught as the means by which social reforms are translated into social welfare services, whether under public or voluntary auspices. This study should be linked with the study of relevant social legislation, of the structure and function of social welfare agencies, and of the ways in which social action results in new or improved services. It should also be linked to the study of group process and interaction as this operates in the hierarchy of a social agency and in inter-agency relations (see also pp. 233-234). In addition, the study of administration should be closely related to the students' field work and to their function in an administrative structure. It is in social agencies that they begin to practice administration and can therefore be helped to appreciate its significance. For example, students, like workers at all levels, have defined responsibilities, they must be held accountable to fulfil these in stated ways at the time set; they must be clear about their function in relation to those of others; they must make and implement the necessary decisions in consultation with others, and thus they may begin to see decision making as a vital element in administration at every level; they must both receive, act upon and make the necessary communications within their own agency and outside, and doing so they may be helped to recognize the part played by adequate or inadequate channels of communication in furthering or hindering smooth administration and satisfactory working relationships. They will also have some experience of staff participation in decision making and policy formulation and implementation.

The teaching of administration may also be closely related to broader study of the different types of social agency in which the student group

is working. This study will have the three aspects of function, structure and process. The range and depth of teaching will depend on the students' maturity and previous experience. The discussion of "live" issues in the administration of agencies as a whole is only likely to be suitable in advanced courses for experienced social workers.

Function, structure and process are of course related, though separable, aspects of agency administration. The study of administration may begin at different points, one such starting point is the initial process by which a social need is identified, plans worked out and decisions taken with a view to meeting it, whether by legislative enactment or voluntary action. This will naturally lead to discussion of the type of agency structure appropriate to meet a given need, whether multi-purpose or single purpose, whether centralized and with one department or with a number of different departments, or whether having a number of local branches and if so what is the division of authority and the lines of communication between these and the headquarters. The formal or informal relationships with other agencies will also raise difficult issues of co-ordination of functions to provide an effective service.

Closely related to questions of type of agency comes the study of agency structure. This may start with how power is conferred and defined, for example by legislation or through a constitution. To this is related the financial resources needed to provide the overheads, equipment, staffing, and the day to day services of the agency, and how money is raised and allocated for these different purposes. In all agencies there will also be a progress review and policy making body, whether an appointed or elected executive board or a group of senior officials. This body in its turn will be responsible to a higher public authority or to those who receive the service and provide funds for it. This policy formulating body may also have final responsibility for budgeting and allocation of funds, for agency structure and administrative policies, for buildings and equipment, for decisions about the qualifications and number of personnel, and staff employment practices. It is also likely to have the final responsibility for deciding on the statistical and other information needed to determine the extent to which the agency is fulfilling its stated purposes, as well as deciding on changes in policy or the development of new services on an experimental or full scale basis. Much of this responsibility is of course delegated, both horizontally and vertically in the administrative hierarchy. This leads to the concept of responsibility and authority as being inherent in function (this may be related in teaching to other aspects of the use of authority) so that authority is in fact divided amongst many different staff members performing different functions and making the decisions necessitated by the function and appropriate at their level in the administrative hierarchy. Closely related to this is the question of how decisions are made and implemented, with a distinction between routine decisions in line with formulated policy, decisions which must be related to a principle of operation, and decisions which involve policy and must therefore be worked out at the policy making level. This analysis will also include the power structure of an agency, both formal and informal.

The total personnel of a large social agency is likely to include administrators at various levels, members of different related professions.

and clerical, technical and manual staff. Students may learn more vividly by study of a particular agency (possibly through case studies) the ways in which staff, resources and agency structure combine to provide, or at points fail in providing, the prescribed service.

The study of administration will also include such staff issues as numbers and qualifications of staff in relation to the work to be done, job descriptions, recruitment, personnel policies, and the extent to which the staff participate or their experience is used in evaluation of the agency's service and in decisions about change of policy. It will also include the total staff structure of an agency with the ways in which the respective responsibilities of administrators and professional or technical workers are demarcated or combined. This will also involve problems of interrelating different professions with each other to produce team work and lessen professional rivalries. To this will be related the importance of clear definition of role and function—and accountability to fulfil these as a means to facilitate satisfactory work performance and good staff relations. Good relationships are also connected with the administrator's understanding of the proper function and contribution of clerical, technical and manual workers, and of the need for working conditions which promote satisfactory performance. Ability to give leadership at whatever level this is appropriate is also an essential element in good relations and satisfying performance. To this is linked the physical working conditions of the agency and its structure—divisions, departments, sections, local branches, regional offices, headquarters and so forth. Good relations or inter-departmental rivalries between these different parts will depend on clarification of function and policy, on good two-way communication and on opportunities for joint discussion and action. Questions of staff engagement, promotion, dismissal, methods of dealing with grievances, relations with professional associations and trade unions, as well as supervision, consultation, staff development and in-service training, will no doubt also be discussed in advanced courses.

The actual structure of agencies has been touched upon at various points. This includes not only the departmental, functional and other divisions but also the various office mechanics and the necessary equipment which contribute to smooth operations. The various aspects of organization and method also include administrative practices and procedures as formulated in staff manuals and directives; channels of communication, consultation, referral and decision making; periodic reports, returns, financial statements and statistics.

Statistical returns will be one method by which the work of the agency is kept under review. Statistical information will also provide part of the material required for the regular review of the agency's services in relation to trends in the need it is designed to meet. Policy will often be formulated over a period of several years on the basis of study of given needs in relation to total community resources and the agency's estimated part in meeting these through regular services and experimental projects. Some agencies have their own research units for this purpose, others undertake periodic research projects in relation to a specific aspect of existing or contemplated activity. Periodic evaluation of the agency itself in relation to its effectiveness in providing serv-

ices is a necessary element in advances in social welfare provision. This will of course include planning to use new scientific knowledge in relevant fields, which is largely a responsibility of the professional staff. The whole question of inter-agency co-operation, as well as various aspects of public relations and the techniques for using these effectively will also require discussion and illustration.

All through the teaching of this subject, there should of course be a heavy emphasis on the social purposes of the agencies concerned, on the place of social workers in them, and on the part played by social work methodology, not only in services provided by the agency but also in the administrative process and staff relations.

Unfortunately practically no literature exists in most countries on the administration of social agencies. Illustrations are consequently apt to be drawn from other cultures. These are not necessarily appropriate and may lack significance to the students. It is suggested that in courses for experienced social workers or social service administrators the class itself might collect data and work out case studies and other material which could form the basis for further studies and teaching material within the country. There is also a wide opportunity here for research projects. Where schools or institutes of public administration exist, co-operative arrangements for teaching social welfare administration may often be profitable.

CHAPTER IX

THE CONTENT OF TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK: SOCIAL WORK THEORY AND METHOD—GENERAL

INTRODUCTORY

In this chapter there will inevitably be some reiteration of previous subject matter as this becomes more narrowly focused on the theoretical basis of social work, its principles and methods; that is to say, as knowledge from the basic subjects is selected to be applied professionally. This is because some repetition of necessity occurs in the teaching of students, since background knowledge about human growth and behaviour and about society must be picked up again and taught from a different angle in order to relate general knowledge to the specific purposes and interests of social work. Also, in this chapter the actual content of the subject matter will be summarized in much greater detail than was done with the background material in order to clarify the relationship between background and methods teaching on the one hand and field work on the other.

It is commonly accepted that social workers are primarily involved in crisis situations, that is with the reactions of individuals, groups or communities in circumstances where stress has mounted to a point where intervention is desirable, and therefore this will be a main focus in relating the background teaching to the methods subjects. This is not, however, a satisfactory description of social work intervention in those

conditions where prolonged emotional or material deprivation have produced inertia; nor, at the other end of the scale, of the positive goals of social work in helping groups and communities in taking the first steps towards their own discoveries of more satisfying ways of living. This broader concept seems called for to cover the range of social work practice as it is evolving at the present day:

“Social work has often been defined in terms of social dysfunction or of social maladjustments. The social worker deals, that is, with people ‘in trouble’, and the troubles lie chiefly in the area of psychosocial relations. In the broadest sense this seems to be the case. The maladjustment, however, is sometimes a lack or absence of an essential social relationship: children needing adoption, youth groups in an area with meager recreational services, migrant workers’ families wintering in an urban neighborhood or in segregated areas isolated from the surrounding community. The term ‘treatment’, because of its medical origin, seems to imply a dysfunction to be cured, whereas education seems to imply a lack or underdevelopment which may be altered to achieve fuller use of the powers or greater satisfactions. In fact, social work services seem to be found along an arc on which at one end obvious dysfunctioning must be met by ‘treatment’ to restore to the ‘normal’, while at the other end services aim at better functioning, the enhancement of personal relations, or the improvement of a neighborhood toward a more ‘democratic’ society. This description falls more nearly within the meaning of education. Inevitably in such a professional function there are norms determining the goal of the professional worker’s effort although these are often more assumed or implicit than explicit.”¹

TYPES OF KNOWLEDGE REQUIRED IN TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK

It may be helpful to think of the total body of knowledge and related skills necessary to professional social work in the following gradation from the general to the specific:

(1) Knowledge which is necessary for an intelligent understanding of individuals, groups or communities in their total social setting but which will normally be used indirectly rather than directly. Much of the knowledge about the structure of government, the economic system, and physical growth, functioning and disease processes would come under this heading.

(2) Knowledge which will be directly and consciously used from time to time, though with varying frequency according to the particular aspect of social need and social provision with which the worker is directly concerned, and according to his place in the hierarchy. Thus all social workers need to know and to use some knowledge about group membership and group process, but group workers and community workers must carry this knowledge further, make it more precise and learn to apply it constantly in practice. All social workers must know something about working conditions, industrial legislation, and industrial

¹ Grace Longwell Coyle, *Social Science in the Professional Education of Social Workers* (New York, Council on Social Work Education, 1958), pp. 17-18.

relations: social workers connected with industry need much more detailed knowledge in this field. Similarly, all social workers need to understand something about the causation and treatment of delinquency in their particular society but those who actually work with delinquents need to carry this knowledge further and to apply it either in their basic courses or later. Much of the knowledge which comes under this general heading may most effectively be taught comparatively; it will then require to be carried further in optional courses, and in field work for students who need this knowledge in their day to day practice. This is knowledge which is not necessarily used consciously by all social workers but which must be available to them if the need arises.

(3) Knowledge which is constantly, directly and consciously put to use. This includes much of the knowledge about human growth and behaviour, particularly about family relationships; about specific sub-cultural attitudes, ways of living and value systems; about social welfare services; and about administration.

(4) Professional knowledge and philosophy—this is that selection from the total span of relevant knowledge from the social and behavioural sciences and the study of government (including administration) which is applied and added to in social work practice. It includes the nature and aims of social work and its place in society, and the methods or practice of social work.

This aspect is essentially a study of the ways in which the knowledge about man in society is applied in practice through the social work methods of casework, group work and community organization. It will also include appropriate knowledge and skill in administration, social planning and social research. An understanding of the goals of social work is essential to all the study of method and must in turn be related to desirable norms of individual, family and social functioning, and thus to value judgements about social issues. From the philosophy of social work arises the professional obligation to add to knowledge and to engage in social action.

(5) Professional skill—it is not possible to teach the application of knowledge without at the same time systematically developing skill in applying it. This is true for all the professions, not least for social work, where theory and practice must be blended together in order to develop skill. Social work method could obviously be learnt as an intellectual exercise but it cannot be assimilated and put to effective use by theoretical learning alone. Supervised field work is essential in order to teach students how to apply theory as a more and more precise instrument in actual situations of human need. However, unless the supervised field work is supported by class-room teaching, and vice versa, it will tend either to fall into the pitfall of apprenticeship learning or the opposite pitfall of leaving students to apply their theoretical learning without help. Either of these systems is bound to be wasteful, resulting in a modicum of real professional skill for the amount of time and effort invested in the students' training.

A succeeding chapter will be devoted to field training and what it involves. This and the two following chapters are primarily concerned with the theoretical teaching of social work principles and methods, re-

lated on the one hand to knowledge of the background subjects and on the other to the actual world in which student social workers are practising. These chapters deal, then, with the midway point in social work education when that which is most relevant in the social and behavioural sciences and administration is picked up and transformed into study of social work theory and method, and when the actual practice in the field is fed back into theory, and theory is used to systematize the practice. There is, however, a grave risk in training for social work of teaching the background subjects unselectively in broad general terms and the methods subjects narrowly as a series of facts and minor techniques. In such circumstances the methodology is not related to a broad body of principles derived from the application of a consistent theory of personality and knowledge about society to social work practice. It is essential to avoid the pitfall of too broad theory and too narrow practice if the students are to be given a soundly based and relevant professional education.

The fundamental reason for relating the background subjects to social work method is because this method has now been developed to a point at which it is characterized by a systematic approach to human problems. This is an approach which involves the use of scientific knowledge, applied through the art of helping individuals, groups and communities, resting upon the philosophical base of the social work profession, and taught in such a way as to bring about the necessary change from lay to professional attitudes.

THE PLACE OF SOCIAL WORK IN SOCIETY: ITS PHILOSOPHY AND BASIC CONTENT

In analysing and attempting to synthesize the over-all curriculum content of professional knowledge, the following divisions may be appropriate though they are of course interrelated:

(a) Social work in society: the historical development of social work, both nationally and internationally, the professional status of social workers in relation to other professions, the place of social work in the current provision for social welfare, and discernible future trends in the development of social work;

(b) The profession of social work: its philosophy and methods, including basic social work concepts.

Here, as elsewhere, the subject matter will be very differently arranged in actual course content and method of presentation according to what may be appropriate in different schools of social work and different circumstances. For example, the historical development of social work and current use of social workers in different settings, together with future trends, may be part of the methods courses or it may be interwoven in the courses on government, the social welfare services and the processes of social administration, which will inevitably be taught historically at certain points.

It is suggested that no matter where the material is presented the following may well be some of the essential content:

Social work in society

This material should be related to the philosophical and psychological bases upon which social work rests. It will include an historical retro-

spect with emphasis on the pioneers of social reform in the country concerned; and also the religious, mutual aid and philanthropic origins of social service and its emergence from family, clan and tribal provision and charitable giving and voluntary service; and finally the beginnings of social work as a profession. This leads on to the nature of social work and its relation to social welfare and social service; the attributes of a profession and what this involves for social work; the settings in which social workers are employed; the functions they are expected to perform and the attitudes of other professions, administrators, policy makers and the public towards them. The relation of social work to other professions, and the nature of team work will require to be emphasized both in the class-room and field work. Students should be led to take an intelligent interest in training for social work, professional, non-professional and in-service training.

It is desirable that this subject, like others, should be taught dynamically, with social work viewed in its relation to social philosophy, and as an evolving profession, related to the growth of knowledge in the social and behavioural sciences, to the expansion of social welfare services and to development of extended areas of and improvements in practice.

The philosophy and ethics of social work

Any education in the sciences related to personality and society quickly finds itself concerned also with social values. Value judgements are also inherent in the nature of a profession.

“It is obvious, therefore, that professional education must include in its function an understanding by students of the professional goals and ethics in so far as they are developed and an acceptance of them as guides to practice. This implies no rigid inculcation but it does imply the profession's obligation to assure that its new members can be trusted to use their professional knowledge and skill not only efficiently but also for the benefit of its clientele and for the social good. Professional education is not a training in techniques, although technical skill is essential. It requires a commitment of the self to the values embodied in the goals of the profession and to the ethics to which the profession has agreed.”²

The following are some of the philosophical and ethical assumptions on which the profession of social work has so far been built:

(a) To recognize the worth of the individual human being, regardless of his circumstances, status, race, religion, politics, or behaviour; and to foster the growth of human dignity and self-respect.

(b) To respect individual, group and community differences, at the same time as seeking to harmonize them with the common welfare.

(c) To encourage self-help as a means to growth in self-confidence and in ability to assume responsibility.

(d) To promote opportunities for satisfying living in the particular circumstances of individuals, groups or communities.

² Grace Longwell Coyle, op. cit., p. 40.

(e) To accept a professional responsibility to work for the implementation of social policies consistent with social work knowledge and philosophy about human desires and needs, with the aim of affording to every individual the opportunity to make the best use of his environment and his own potentialities.

(f) To safeguard the confidential nature of the professional relationship.

(g) To use this relationship to help clients (individuals, groups or communities) to become more free and self-reliant rather than to try to manipulate them to fit a preconceived pattern.

(h) To make responsible use of the professional relationship for the purpose of promoting—as objectively as possible—the greatest good for the individual and the best interests of society.

It will be noted that all the above are “value loaded” statements. Such terms as “satisfying”, “most productive”, “best”, “more free”, “greatest good”, “best interests”, call aloud for analysis and definition, as well as for criteria against which to test them. They are obviously related in the last resort to views about the essentials of the good life and the nature and purpose of man and society, but they also require to be analysed in the light of everyday practice. It must be recognized that different answers will be given to these fundamental questions by different religions, different political philosophies and different cultures. It is neither possible nor desirable to baulk these issues in discussions with students, when in any event the very nature of practice is continually raising for them the most difficult questions of ethics. Any alert group of students will before long begin to see that their deeper knowledge of human behaviour and their developing skill necessitate a professional ethic and a philosophy about the goals of professional practice. At the same time they are likely to begin to question whether they themselves might be used in social agencies to coerce social deviants into conformity with socially acceptable patterns of behaviour. They will also want to explore the relevance of this deeper knowledge about people to their own philosophy of life, to spiritual and political values.

It is when they begin to ask this kind of question that they can be helped to see that these are problems about the nature and purpose of human existence with which men have struggled since the dawn of religion and the beginnings of philosophy. At this point they will often demand and at the same time reject clear-cut answers. It is only after much discussion and reflection that they may begin to be able to tolerate the fact that this is a field in which there are no universally accepted authoritative answers, though there are guides to values inherent in man's well-being, even if there are very different views about their expression and the ways in which they may be promoted. The students' studies of innate needs and culturally influenced behaviour and values will also enable them to see that men continuously “manipulate” and are “manipulated” by their social and physical environment and the web of their relationships—past and present—as well as by the symbols, rituals and mythology of their culture.

Social work method

It is desirable that all students, no matter in what field they intend to practice, should know sufficient about social work methods as such and about its distinctive nature, whether expressed through casework, group work or community organization. They must also become habituated to at least one method as an orderly means to problem-solving, and they themselves must constantly be aware of the theory underlying their practice. A few of those so equipped may in their after careers add to the body of knowledge on which social work rests.

The issues discussed in the chapters on the Nature of Social Work and on Community Development and Social Work are relevant here. In particular, social work educators are increasingly aware of the value of identifying and teaching basic concepts in social work. Some of these concepts are, as has been said (see p. 29), rightly held in common with other helping and healing professions but their concentration, configuration and the methods by which they are put to use are peculiar to social work.

"Social work procedures, in essence, are similar to those of all professional disciplines. The professional approach to a problem, whether in medicine, law, chemistry or social work, is characterized by four steps: factfinding, appraisal, planning and execution of the plan . . . in social work the terms in general use are (1) social study, (2) appraisal or diagnosis, (3) formulation of plans, and (4) treatment or implementation."³

The ground to be covered will thus include both the function of the social worker and the knowledge and skill required in order to fulfil the function—whether in casework, group work or community organization—and with regard to the various settings in which these are practised. The aim will always be to enable the individual, group or community to recognize their own problems and to help them in mobilizing their resources and those of the community realistically to master these. The main reason for teaching basic concepts of social work is in order to give students a clear idea of the unity of the social work profession in its different manifestations, and also because each one of the three social work methods needs to call upon both of the others for effective practice. Work with individuals can frequently not be fruitful without regard to the family constellation and to the pattern of inter-reactions in this the primary social group; while an understanding of the role played by the individual in his work group, leisure group, reference groups, and neighbourhood and religious or political relationships, the effect of these on his behaviour, attitudes, and values and the ways in which modifications in group settings might help him, may be essential elements in treatment. Both caseworkers and group workers need to know something about community structure, power distribution, controls, tensions and needs, and about the ways in which communities may be motivated to deal with their problems or to help their disadvantaged members. While at the same time, group and community workers must have a knowledge of and ability to work with individuals. And each must know how to make

³ Cora Kasius, "Are Social Work Principles Emerging Internationally?" *Social Casework* (New York), January 1953, p. 27.

intelligent use of the services of the others, whether by referral or otherwise.

Consideration of the social work methods raises the issue of whether ability to work with individuals is basic to all forms of social work, since every social work function requires an understanding of human behaviour, which is in the last resort the behaviour of individuals, and an ability to engage people in a productive working relationship. It is probable that students gain an understanding of human behaviour (their own as well as that of others) and begin to acquire ability in this problem-solving method most easily through work with individuals. But in addition, students must also understand how this knowledge of human behaviour and the problem-solving processes apply to work with groups and communities.

All work with individuals must be considered as part of an effort towards the enrichment of group membership and the better ordering of society. Social work, in common with certain other professions, is concerned with the individual person, but social caseworkers in particular have been accused of forgetting that the good of individuals and groups is largely influenced by the changing structure of society. It is necessary for social workers to take account not only of individuals but also of the forms of social life, especially its deficiencies, and some of the ways in which these may be remedied. In so doing they test "social arrangements and institutions by their impact on individual lives, and their capacity to mobilize the unique creative potentialities of different individuals for the common good through participation in freely chosen group and community relationships".⁴

The starting point in teaching social work method as such is an analysis of the essential process of working with people, whether individuals, groups or communities as a means of understanding the meaning of their situation to them and helping them to clarify, partialize and work at solving or easing certain of their problems in social functioning. The range of problems or stress-creating situations which beset people in different social, economic and personal circumstances will be very wide. The processes or stages through which they characteristically pass as they are helped to "take arms against a sea of troubles and by opposing end them" (Shakespeare) have been found to be to a marked degree the same.

Some of the processes common to casework and group work and to new discoveries in community development have been discussed in the chapter on Community Development and Social Work. In the methods courses and in the related field work, the students are not merely learning about these processes in general terms but are engaging in the much more difficult task of identifying and analysing them accurately in relation to the evidence in the class-room study of case records; as well as in the still more demanding real life situation of field work where they must summon all their knowledge to their aid in understanding and helping particular people under stress. In the methods courses they are also learning to apply much more specifically what they know about

⁴"Standards for the Professional Practice of Social Work", *Social Work Journal* (Supplement) July 1952, p. 3

human growth and development. They will require continuous help in really absorbing an understanding that:

(1) Everyone has certain basic needs, motivation and ways of reacting; while at the same time each person is unique both in his endowment and his experience, and must be treated as such.

(2) Early family experiences are crucial for development and these experiences tend to repeat themselves, for good or ill, in later life. Therefore it is frequently necessary to know something about the individual's early experience and its meaning for him, as well as cultural patterns of family relationships in his milieu, in order to understand him.

(3) Emotional deprivation (in which material deprivation may play a part) stunts growth and may result in some degree of frustration, hostility and anxiety which may be expressed in apathy and dependence or in aggression and denial of dependence. In either event, difficulty in forming relationships, weak personality or character defect can be expected.

(4) All behaviour is purposive in the sense that it is an attempt to maintain some kind of equilibrium between the person, his needs and his life situation. This is why it is important to understand the meaning of seemingly irrational behaviour and the purpose which (often unconsciously) it is serving for the individual in dealing or failing to deal with his problems and his attempts to fulfil or to flee from socially sanctioned roles and responsibilities.

(5) Most people, even those who are mentally ill, defective or continually deprived, are capable of some degree of growth and change, especially through a steady relationship which gives them hope and confidence, and is expressed in achievement of better social functioning and greater personal satisfactions.

(6) If they have some motivation to change, this is enhanced if they are respected, understood and believed in. They do not change through being exhorted to behave differently or told what they "ought" to do, unless they have a strong emotional bond with those who make these demands.

(7) People's tensions are lessened and they are enabled to look more realistically at their problems if they are accepted with respect and concern is shown for their suffering; and if they are listened to and helped to express their feelings of inadequacy and frustration, from which fear, hostility and anxiety spring. They are not helped by false reassurance that things will be all right, which they correctly interpret as showing failure to understand either their feelings or their situation.

(8) Their strains are also lessened if they are helped to realize that other people have the same difficulties and the same socially unacceptable feelings about these.

(9) Some behaviour is repetitive; that is to say patterns of behaviour may be clearly traced in an individual's life history. Sometimes he can be helped to change or modify these by a corrective rather than repetitive emotional experience, by an awareness of these patterns, by avoidance of situations which re-create them or by modification of social roles, or better adaptation to social situation.

(10) Symbolism plays a large part in human behaviour and it is always important to learn what particular behaviour, desires or attitudes symbolize for the individual. Much symbolism or ritual behaviour may be culturally conditioned in addition to having individual significance, for example, attitudes to food or to money.

(11) People may have mixed feelings about asking for and receiving help with their problems. They may be both grateful and resentful, discouraged and hopeful, dependent and independent, willing and unwilling to accept being helped especially within the limitations set by an agency's function and the personality and skills of the worker. The worker also may have mixed feelings of which he must be helped to become aware about giving help and having people dependent upon him.

(12) People are an intimate part of their families and the other groups and surroundings to which they belong. A sudden or violent separation from these will result in a "period of mourning" and may cause partial loss of the sense of identity, manifested in withdrawal or "difficult" or disoriented behaviour. The same effects sometimes follow a severe alteration to the individual's "body image", for example through loss of a limb.

(13) "Feelings are facts". What the individual feels about his situation and what cultural values it represents to him may be more important than the situation itself, because it will determine what he does about it and what help he is able to use in meeting it.

(14) People tend to become immobilized by prolonged or sudden overwhelming stress which is beyond their strength and adaptive resources to lessen. To meet their valid needs and give them understanding support is the first step in helping them to mobilize their own resources to meet the demands of the situation.

All the above, and other concepts about human behaviour need to be used continuously in social work. They, therefore, require to be illustrated from many angles in the methods courses and in the students' field work.

The students are being taught orderly processes of thought and study. They will be helped in this by constant use in the methods courses of the principles of multiple causation (particularly clear in all psycho-social problems); and consequently of interacting variables rather than single antecedent causes; of differential diagnosis (that is to say, bearing several relevant possibilities in mind until the less significant have been eliminated by further evidence and testing); and of economy of hypothesis. This latter is particularly important, since students are ever prone to rush to the more complex explanations or hypotheses before considering the simplest one which would fit the observed, known or surmised facts. They also find difficulty in accepting the difference between proven knowledge, working hypotheses, surmise, and real ignorance.

"In the concrete act of the practitioner, these steps—the inspection of the situation, the recognition of factors by means of concepts, the classification into recognized types, the bringing to bear of the available and appropriate generalizations of types of problems and of possible solutions (treatment), constitute the intellectual functions required for direct practice.

"This process of seeing a specific situation as within a type and thereby understanding better its characteristics, the factors in it, and the dynamics to be expected seems to be what we actually educate students to do in diagnosis and treatment insofar as we have developed the necessary theories of practice. If one looks closely at this, it seems to involve first an act of recognition and classification. For example, a client is recognized as a child suffering from parental rejection or as a member of a group subjected to an antisocial environment. This provides clues as to what behavior to expect. However, at this point a practitioner seems to be called upon for a further step. From his generalized theory about the behavior of rejected children, he may derive other clues as to causation and therefore certain hints as to the best means of treatment. He functions by a deductive process and by the use of probability rather than certainty.

"The generalizations on the behavior of rejected children have presumably been drawn by induction from the study of instances like this one. Then the practitioner must turn the inductive process around, first by classifying the child under this type and then by deducing appropriate answers to the problem in view of what the situation probably will involve. He must in this process of deduction determine whether this child is typical, i.e., would fall near the mean of a normal curve of such children, or whether he falls toward one or another extreme but still within the class. He must, that is, guide his practice by his estimate of probability.

"If he is confronted with a case to which he must apply several generalizations, that is, a case falling in several classes involving different variables, he must come to his diagnosis on the basis of clues as to how one variable is interacting with another. For example, the child may be both rejected by its parents, suffering from a rheumatic heart, living in a relief family, and belonging to a minority group rejected by its neighborhood. In fact, most of our practice involves just such complicated deductions. The practitioner must take into account all these variables and their interactions.

"After clarification of the situation by deduction as to what the case involves, he must then turn to the question of what to do. If the theory of practice has been developed sufficiently, he may have a set of 'principles', that is, generalizations about the methods found best to deal with this diagnosed problem. Once again, his act is one of deduction from a generalization as to possible treatment methods and again involves him in gauging how near his case is to the typical on which the principle is formed. Elaboration of theories of practice may provide him with more carefully distinguished types both for diagnosis and for treatment, but they never can give him certainty—only probability—to act upon.

"Moreover, it is likely that in the foreseeable future the practitioner will continue to have only rudimentary theory to rely upon, and in fact he may well realize that many significant aspects of his problems have not yet yielded their secrets to scientific investigation. Just as medical students must be taught to deal with the at present incurable diseases, so too the only answer teachers of social work may give to students is often, 'We do not know what causes this or what

can be done'. Some of us perhaps more hopeful than realistic, no doubt add 'as yet'.⁵

GENERAL FACTORS IN TEACHING SOCIAL WORK METHOD

Social work teaching is essentially a dynamic process, whether in the give and take of discussion between teacher and students in the class-room, or in actual practice, or in discussion with supervisors. It is thus particularly difficult to analyze its content on paper without losing the feel of this interplay and the several dimensions in which the whole teaching and learning must move. In short the "analysis of educational objectives into categories must be recognized as a descriptive device for the purpose of helping us focus on educational content and upon goals, rather than a statement of the learning or teaching process and the dynamics involved".⁶ The following points, which will be familiar to social work teachers, must be borne in mind in all that follows:

(a) A large part, though by no means all, of the teaching will be done through imaginative reflection upon and systematic analysis of case records as a means of helping the students to apply understanding of people in distress and social work methods of helping them with greater insight and precision. This means that to some degree the teaching moves on two levels at once. For the purposes of clarity in this present discussion the content of social work process and methods will be separated from the selection of case records for teaching purposes. This may make the teaching sound much more "flat" than in fact it should be.

(b) Some essentials of social work method, for example, listening to what the client says, starting where he is, moving at his pace, sound very simple, even obvious, indeed they are essentials of any direct work with people. They are, however, far from easy to apply in real life with people who are distressed, and may be emotionally disturbed, self-centred, or resistant, particularly also when the welfare of others may be at stake. Furthermore, methods which it may be comparatively easy to use with reasonably normal people faced with problems which they themselves are able to surmount with help and encouragement become very much more difficult to appreciate and apply with disturbed people and in the more complex remedial aspects of social work. Thus, inevitably the students' knowledge grows very much more rapidly than their ability to apply it. Because they are discovering this all the time in their own endeavours in practice, as well as in the discussion of actual cases in the class-room, they move on two levels at the same time. There is a particular phase in all courses, sometimes known as the "mid-way slump", when assimilated and intellectually accepted knowledge about human behaviour and social work method far outstrip ability to perceive quickly enough to grasp the significance of what is said or unsaid, and to do and say the appropriate things in the living situation of actual interviews or group interaction. This is particularly true where repetitive life patterns, carry-over of old ways of relating to particular people, and irrational or unconscious behaviour may be hidden behind

⁵ Grace Longwell Coyle, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

⁶ Lyndell Scott, "The Function of Field Work in Professional Education", *The Social Service Review*, December 1951, p. 442.

what is said and done by both the client and the student, and may be only fleetingly perceived by the student, who is yet intellectually aware that these factors are likely to be present (see also p. 292). This is a frustrating experience to students, indeed probably only those who have actually passed through it can appreciate this and other problems of bridging the gap between theory and practice in social work.

(c) Behind all that is said about the content of social work courses must be assumed not only the field work of students but also the background subjects of human growth and development, including the social influences on behaviour, and the social welfare services, both voluntary and public, with their legislative and administrative structure and functioning. All the methods courses thus act as a rallying point where more general knowledge from the background courses and more specific knowledge from the field work is called upon, focused and handled with reflection and precision. It is for this reason that the subject matter of the other courses must be relevant and congruous with what is being learned and applied in the methods courses, and that social work teachers must not only know what is being taught in the other courses and practised in the field work but must also themselves have sufficient acquaintance with these other subjects to be able to apply them flexibly and relevantly. The result should be that students are helped to "think with" their knowledge of psychological and social factors in human functioning, to use their knowledge of community resources as these apply in particular cases, and to appreciate the importance of good administration as an element in good social work.

(d) It is primarily through discussion, imaginative consideration and reflection in the methods courses and in the field work that attitudes are changed, methods become habitual, and the philosophy of social work in its approach to people becomes engrained in the students' ways of thinking, feeling and acting. This is something which cannot happen to order and it will in any event develop at varying rates with different individual students. It is more likely to happen if during the course they are encouraged to express their differing points of view and to develop skill in their own way, rather than being told what they "ought" to think or feel or do. Students educated in authoritarian school systems are likely to be slow to develop habits of independent thought and action.

It is also assumed that the social work courses will be so planned that the whole ground is covered at an early stage and then extended and deepened as they proceed, rather than being broken down into parts.

"The breakdown of the casework sequence into parts has been determined, variously by such factors as the nature of the problem, agency settings, age periods of individuals, methods, and skills. For example, courses commonly are designed as follows: casework with delinquents, the handicapped, children, adolescents, the aged; casework in schools, courts, hospitals, and the like; courses in interviewing, in counseling, in recording, and in the worker-client relationship. An educational principle on which this method of presentation has been based has been a concern not to give too much all at once. . . . Hence one teaches part by part, and thus gradually one builds up the whole. It is our opinion that fragmentation does not aid integration

but, instead, that integration is facilitated by continuously teaching the parts in relation to the whole.”⁷

SPECIALIZATION

Initially, training for social work started to prepare students for a broadly conceived field of casework. There was also a form of in-service training through the settlement movement for what would now be called group work and work with communities. At the second stage specialization developed apace. Sometimes these specializations were options within one basic course; sometimes they were run in complete isolation from each other. They were—and are—intended to prepare students for child welfare, youth leadership, medical social work, probation, psychiatric social work, industrial welfare, family casework, neighbourhood and community centre work, public assistance and social security agencies, rural welfare, and social work in economically under-developed or “problem” areas. In most specialized courses the emphasis is on the work done by the particular type of agency, the specific needs of clients who come to it, the characteristics of that type of setting and the legal or other framework within which the service operates. This has meant that those who qualified have regarded themselves as, for example, probation officers or medical social workers or youth leaders rather than as social workers. Mobility has also been affected as it is often difficult to move from one setting to another without re-training or further training; though in fact the discovery that it is easy to learn the peculiarities of particular agencies through working in them is one of the reasons why specialization is being called in question.

The situation is now beginning to change. This is because in some countries social workers are required for broad fields of practice rather than to work in specialized agencies—which may in any event be non-existent. It is also because emphasis is shifting from the setting to the social and psychological processes at work.

“The settings, the type of service in which these processes operate are naturally important and condition to some degree the way in which the process is used, but they do not affect the nature of the process itself, any more than the nature of the human beings who use different services is affected. Thus, the range of responses to stress situations and the ways of handling them through casework are the same in hospitals, courts, clinics and local authority departments, though the situation causing stress and the nature of the service and of the team-work offered to meet it may differ. This has become much more clear with the recent shift of emphasis in modern social work education from the administrative and legislative structure of a service to the people receiving the service and the process by which they are helped. In refresher courses for caseworkers in various services, whether run by the United Nations, the universities or professional organizations, it has been possible for the participants quickly to work together on the study of case material. The divisions amongst them have been due to different levels of knowledge and skill rather

⁷ Charlotte Towle, *The Learner in Education for the Professions* (University of Chicago Press, 1954), p. 283.

than to the different social services or even the different cultural backgrounds from which they come. The area of common knowledge and endeavour has proved to be far more important than the areas of difference, so that these latter could be used to broaden understanding rather than to heighten barriers."⁸

There are still very wide differences and points of view in different schools of social work all over the world about specialized and "generic" teaching and about the relation of this to subsequent practice. Many social work educators begin to think that:

"The solution is not to abolish specialized practice (as if this could be done!) but to reconcile generic education with specialized practice. 'I believe we can', Ruth Smalley said (1953) and 'furthermore I believe that only as we can and do, do we have a profession at all. Otherwise we are a composite of vocational schools preparing for the specifics of practice in a bewildering variety of jobs'.⁹

Because in the past, the basic first year courses were often followed by specialization in the second year, the tendency to confuse generic with elementary and specialized with advanced still persists, whereas in fact much specialized teaching has rested upon descriptive accounts of particular problems which people present, and of legislative and administrative practice. It is in passing on from description to analysis that common factors have begun to emerge and that the processes at work and the principles which begin to be clarified have been seen to be the same under a wide variety of different circumstances. This is as true for current views about work with communities as it is for case-work or group work.

Where differences have emerged as a result of this comparative analysis they too have tended on further analysis to fall into groupings which cut right across the specializations, or rather are to be found in all or most of them. The result is that common methods of study and common methods of practice begin to be clarified as deeper analysis of comparative material shows the common elements in different situations, whether with individuals under stress, group process in a city club or a rural community, or in administrative procedures in different settings. Moreover, it is now generally agreed that study of recorded case material in the class-room should move from simpler to more complex cases (see p. 221 ff and p. 240) which is not possible if courses are taught by settings, since both simple and difficult cases come to all types of social agency.

The emphasis is thus transferred from the subjects which divide to the subjects which unite, from differences to relatedness, from particular situations to the common practice and skills of social work in any setting. The level of expectation is becoming focused on level of skill rather than upon the minutiae of agency practice and legislative regulations.

"Thus increasingly the student . . . in casework is expected upon graduation from a school of social work to take responsibility for

⁸ Eileen Younghusband, "Trends in Social Work Education", *Social Work* (London), October 1956, pp. 243-244.

⁹ Bruno and Towley, *Trends in Social Work Education, 1874-1956* (Columbia University Press, 1957), pp. 411-412.

the care of people who are in serious—sometimes in desperate—trouble. Often these are people who are at a point of crisis in their lives when what the caseworker does or fails to do may be decisive as to whether a child is to be brought up in hostile, neglectful turmoil or in the relative security of a foster or adoptive home; whether a marriage is to continue or to be broken; whether or not a family is to be adequately clothed, sheltered, and fed; whether a mentally sick person is to reach a hospital for care or end his life in suicide; whether a patient is to undergo an operation for cancer or to run away in fear from medical advice. Obviously the caseworker cannot make such decisions for others, but the way in which he relates to and talks with people day in and day out plays a major part in determining whether clients take action towards a better life or a worse.”¹⁰

This means that the knowledge about human behaviour, coupled with skill in helping people in distress or those who need stimulation to improve their circumstances will not be fundamentally different in a wide range of different situations in which social work is practiced. The first major step away from specialization was taken when schools of social work began to experiment with the teaching of generic casework as they became convinced that “the principles and processes of casework are basically and essentially the same wherever casework is practiced.”¹¹

Now there are signs that even generic casework is coming to be regarded to some extent as a specialization, particularly in those countries where all social workers need some knowledge of and proficiency in methods of working with both individuals and groups even though they will concentrate on one or the other. The caseworker is often involved in group situations where understanding of and ability to use group process is important; the group worker needs where necessary to be able to work with the individuals who compose the group; while both need some ability to work with communities, and both contribute to the skill of the community worker. Even so, it must be recognized that students cannot be equally well trained in all three methods. Unless, therefore, they have substantial training in any one of the three methods their knowledge and skill will be likely to be too general and elementary. A Dutch social work educationalist says of this tendency:

“It is significant that many schools in the United States bring group workers and caseworkers together in generic courses on methodology and it is obvious that this development will continue with the growth of the profession. Casework, group work, and community organization are not specializations of social work but, rather, applications of social work skills in relation to individuals, groups, and communities. This growth will lead us to the point at which schools of social work will educate students for the basic profession of social work in the same way as medical schools educate for basic medical practice. In the future, specialization in the social work pro-

¹⁰ Florence Hollis, “The Generic and Specific in Social Casework Reexamined”, *Social Casework* (New York), May 1956, p. 213.

¹¹ Charlotte Towle, *The Learner in Education for the Professions*, op. cit., p. 284.

fession will take place more and more in special courses and special settings *after* the generic professional education has been acquired."¹²

This generic trend is not of course confined to social work methods. It also applies to the necessary knowledge about human behaviour and motivation and the study of administration. It is essential for social workers to have and be able to use substantial knowledge about human growth, motivation and functioning, about the interaction of psychological and physical processes, and about the effect of social relationships on individual aspirations and behaviour. This requires a fusion of certain knowledge from medicine, psychology, psychiatry, sociology and anthropology. The same principle holds true for administration where the emphasis is shifting from the study of the set-up and functioning of a particular service to a comparative study of common or unique elements in various services. Thus, for example, hospitals and courts may be studied from one angle as different forms of authoritarian setting, together with the reasons which make them so, and this study will be related to the nature of authority, people's reaction to it, and its value and dangers in society. Similarly, as the importance of team work and inter-disciplinary co-operation between the professions becomes more evident, it is clear that this can be most effectively taught to students by an analysis of those factors which are common or distinctive in its use in different forms of institutional and administrative structure.

So far as legislation is concerned, it is recognized that it is not profitable to require students to memorize a mass of detail, which can only be remembered accurately as it is put to use in practice. It is more effective to teach social and industrial legislation comparatively as different ways of meeting social need, resolving conflict, conferring and safeguarding rights and protecting the community. Family and child protection legislation, legislation for the protection of workers, the practice of the courts and case law may be studied, at greater or less depth, as representing current or outmoded social attitudes and as illustrations of real dilemmas in deciding between legitimate but conflicting claims.

In much of the controversy between specialized and generic it is assumed on both sides that there is a necessary antithesis between them. Of course this is not so, because the generic must necessarily include much which is specific. The real difference lies in whether attention is to be concentrated on the specific or whether it is to be seen as part of a totality, with deeper study of this totality at certain points.

In curriculum planning, more particularly in broadening a course from a series of specializations to a generic programme, it will be necessary to consider carefully all the specifics which have been given in order to determine how much could appropriately and necessarily be included in general courses, how much should be covered in the field work, how much should come into optional courses, and how much appropriately belongs to subsequent experience in practice rather than to teaching at the student level. This will usually show that much of the specific material can be appropriately embodied in the general courses. The

¹² Philip van Praag, "Basic Concepts of Social Work", *International Social Work* (Bombay), January 1958, p. 8.

merit of doing this is that students are very much more likely to get the specific into focus than if it is taught in isolation. For example, they should have a sound grasp of human growth and behaviour from the cradle to the grave, both normal and including the major deviations and their causation, before or concurrently with study of one aspect, such as delinquency or child development or mental illness or the emotional needs of physically ill people at greater depth. There is even a danger that specialized teaching about specific aspects of human malfunctioning not related to the totality of human growth, motivation and behaviour, may result in inaccurate social diagnosis and narrowly focused action. The same principle holds good in courses on administration: in any event much of the specific material on administration is likely to be more effectively assimilated in field work agencies and in discussions there on procedures and practices, though it is naturally important that the ground to be covered should be worked out between the school and the agencies.

So far as teaching and practice in casework and group work are concerned, case studies are obviously connected with specifics of human behaviour and administration settings, even though some of these specifics also illustrate generic factors. The important point is that these records and the total teaching in the methods courses should cover a range of human need and responses as well as different provision to meet different or related needs.

“Whatever our field of work, whatever the common precipitating factor in our client’s difficulty, he is a person of multiple identity with the roots of his problems in many places. To learn this in the company of those who recognize the same phenomena from quite different starting points gives reality to the contention that this knowledge is about people—not just about ill people, delinquents, the financially dependent or mothers of young children. Such teaching given in specialized groups makes it harder to keep the client in perspective as a complex being and so tends to diminish the breadth of understanding.”¹³

Similarly, when it comes to field work, the students are learning all the time about specifics in particular cases and agencies, though it is desirable here too that they should be helped to analyse, synthesize and elucidate general principles.

Experience so far does not indicate the abolition of all specific teaching but that where this is given it should be related to the total content of a given course or subject. This may be done by teaching in greater depth at certain points, either in a general course or else in optional courses related to it. For example, students who intend to become probation officers will need to know more than other students about criminology, the criminal law, and court structure and procedure; students going into industrial settings will need to know more about the structure of industry, industrial conditions, industrial legislation and practices, and management-worker relationships; while in some countries students going to work in rural areas will need to know more about rural

¹³ Patricia Carpenter, “Editorial”, *The Almoner* (London), July 1957, p. 125.

sociology and conditions. These courses will not necessarily be at a higher standard than the general courses because they cover ground which would otherwise be given comparatively slight reference.

There is also a need for more advanced courses where suitable teaching resources exist. These courses may be taken by a few students at the initial training level, particularly if they are experienced but untrained workers. They are, however, of particular value as more advanced studies for practising social workers who have a broad framework of knowledge and experience on to which to build deeper study of such subjects as delinquency, adoption, marital conflict, geriatrics, rehabilitation, industrial relations, community organization, supervision, teaching, agency administration, social planning and social research method. So far it is only in the United States that facilities exist for carrying forward these advanced studies in a full-time doctoral programme.

For compelling practical reasons, there is at present a great deal of specialized teaching in schools of social work. These reasons are firstly, the demands of agencies that students should be trained with a primary emphasis on the requirements of particular services, medical social work, probation, child welfare, industrial welfare, rural welfare and the like; and secondly, a like demand by professional associations of social workers in particular fields. This often means that in the country as a whole there may be wasteful use of scarce teaching resources in order to teach small specialized groups of students. But another reason why this type of specialization continues is that hard-pressed teachers may lack the time to gather, analyse and synthesize comparative material, to identify principles and to find illustrations from different fields, whether in administration or social work methods courses. There will often also be a strong identification with a specialization, a feeling that it is "different" and an unwillingness to examine with those in other fields the extent to which this is so, or what might be taught in common.

Sometimes generic teaching not only makes a demand for wider knowledge, that is of a range of subject matter and of illustrative materials, but also for better teaching. Where a course has been mainly a description of agency structure and practice, legislation and types of people coming to the service, considerable work and time may be involved in the change from description to analysis and in gathering comparable material from different services.

To be able to teach in this way involves more knowledge of the background subjects, broader professional skill and also an intellectual discipline which leads to identification of universals beneath specific.

It seems clear from experience so far that this kind of teaching is necessary in order to advance social work practice. It requires thorough and repeated collective study by the schools, professional associations and training and employing agencies in order to identify what is general and what specific, what of both should be preponderantly learnt through study at the school or in the agency and what can best be learnt in the first year or two of practice or in more advanced courses later. Such discussions may sometimes arouse strong emotions but they normally prove a most stimulating experience to those who engage in them. They should

not of course be confined to those who teach the methods courses. Neither is it desirable that they should be limited to one country.

"Intensive teamwork among representatives of the several disciplines will be required to develop these courses. If . . . we are growing toward a more and more unified theory about human behaviour . . . , then the conclusion seems obvious that this is a subject in which there can be international co-operation and exchange. It would be helpful to organize seminars on curriculum in which faculty members of schools of social work could co-operate on this problem. It was a gratifying experience at the Oxford seminar, organized by the International Committee of Schools of Social Work in 1955, that social work educators from many different countries struggled with the same problem and, in spite of disagreement on various points, were able to work productively as a unified professional group."¹⁴

CHAPTER X

THE CONTENT OF TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK: SOCIAL WORK THEORY AND METHOD—CASEWORK

THE CONTENT OF CASEWORK TEACHING

Much of the material in this chapter is relevant to the teaching of social work students who do not necessarily intend to specialize in casework. The starting point in teaching a course on methods of working with individuals will depend on what has gone before and how it has been taught. For example, courses in social work method sometimes begin with an exercise in observation. It will, however, depend on the planning of any particular curriculum whether this type of exercise, perhaps coupled with role playing and the use of films (see pp. 333-335) is more effectively used at this point or in earlier classes on human growth and development. The following is a description of one way in which an observation exercise may be planned and used.

"Students are asked to write in not more than a page an observation they have made of an individual or a group of individuals. The observation may take place in a restaurant, at a railroad station, on the street, or on the campus. Students are asked to perform this experiment in pairs; two students observe the same scene and write it up without comparing notes. These parallel papers are then read in class. Such a project is unusually convincing in illustrating the subjective variations of the observer. Sometimes the write-ups are so different that the students cannot believe they are of the same situation. In one an individual is described as angry, callous to the pleas of his child for an ice cream cone. In the other he is reported as anxious, uncertain, indecisive, frustrated, and helpless in the face of a demanding offspring in a temper tantrum. A project of this sort directs a student's attention to the limitations of his own capacity to see what is actually

¹⁴ Philip van Praag, *op. cit.*, pp. 7-8.

happening and to his tendency to distort the objective facts with his own preconceived ideas of what he himself would feel or do in such a situation."¹

This is a first beginning in the accurate observation, testing of hypotheses about observed behaviour, listening, remembering and unbiased recording which forms so essential a part of social work, and which should flow through all methods teaching.

In an exercise like this, the students are observers not participants, whereas in casework itself they have the much more difficult task of observing, of making tentative hypotheses, of deciding next moves, of guiding but not controlling, while they themselves participate as an active partner in the interview with the client. The caseworker's two basic working methods are the use of the interview to help the client to identify and meet his problems, and the mobilization of appropriate community resources on the client's behalf. The latter will be mainly learned in courses on social welfare provision and in field work, as well as in the study of casework records. There will be a different focus in those situations where material and other resources are easily available and those where it may be almost impossible to provide adequately for people's needs. Systematic study and practice of interviewing for the particular purposes of casework will run right through both class-room teaching and field work. Once again, it is hard to distinguish the method from the process without making it seem "flat" unless it is borne in mind that what is being attempted here is a brief analysis of the content of teaching, not the method of its presentation.

INTERVIEWING

Interviewing methods and techniques are of course also relevant to group work and community organizations—and indeed to other professions—because they are essential skills in forming and sustaining helpful relationships with people directed to specific ends. They involve a sharpened awareness of the part played by the interviewer as well as the person interviewed.

The following ground will require to be covered through case studies, periods of straight teaching, and discussion throughout the course.

(a) *Observation.* This will include discussion of the significance of bodily movements, of hands, eyes, facial expression, of tenseness or ease, at the beginning, in the course of the interview and at its close. Whether this "language of the body" is in keeping or at variance with cultural expectations in the social situation of the person being interviewed, and with what is being said at any given time will also be noteworthy. For example, the bodily movements in response to what the worker says may be typified by gestures of feeling understood, or of anger, anxiety or apathy. Actions and attitudes which on the surface are casual or submissive but which may denote anxiety or hostility will be noted for further verification. Dress and appearances will also be observed, with par-

¹ Annette Garrett, *Interviewing: Its Principles and Methods* (New York, Family Service Association of America, 1942), pp. 31-32.

ticular reference to whether or not they are culturally sanctioned, for example, to arrive for an interview with disordered hair or dress would be much more significant in some social milieux than others. Over a series of interviews deviations in observable behaviour will help to indicate whether the client is feeling on top of or overwhelmed by his problems. Means of helping people under stress to feel more at ease will also be discussed. This will include privacy for interviews, and other good physical conditions, as well as what the worker does by a relaxed attitude and expressed interest in the person to put him at ease.

(b) *Listening.* Good listening should be taught as basic to good interviewing and as an art which can only be learned through discussion and practice. This is based upon the assumption that it is not possible to have an adequate understanding of what the client wants, what he feels about his problem, what are the reasons for his difficulty in meeting it, how it developed, what kind of person he is and what are his family and personal resources, and how he responds to help with his problem, without listening attentively to what he says. This includes listening also to the way in which he says it, the rush of words at one point, the slow and hesitant speech, the long pauses, the broken sentences, at another point; whether or not he is able to express himself coherently; the modulations in his voice; and the overtones in the conversation. It also involves listening for what is not said as well as to what is said. It is only if the worker refrains from putting words into the client's mouth and directing or controlling the course of the interview that the worker will be able to hear what the client wants to say and to attend to what he is not saying. It is through such listening that the significance of the unexpected will become apparent, for example, that the conventional attitudes were not expressed, that something said at a given point was surprisingly out of context. It is also only through listening rather than controlling the interview that the client's sudden shift of the conversation or his repeated return to a given point in different forms will have an opportunity to show its relevance to his underlying preoccupations.

In the early stages students, like other unskilled interviewers, tend to talk too much, to ask too many questions, to rush in with false reassurance, to settle on the problem as they see it without giving the client a chance to express his feelings about it, to decide what should be done about it, and to impose their solutions on the clients. Such action arises from the students' own anxiety and their desire to be obviously helpful. These are both assuaged by doing something for the client. It often comes as a shock to students to realize that this is experienced by the client as authoritarian, controlling behaviour which imposes solutions upon him and takes from him the right to have a say in working out his difficulties in ways which are appropriate to him and his situation.

What they learn in the class-room and in practice about good listening includes the use of silence, giving people time to think out and come to the point of saying what they want to say, but not letting silence continue to the point that they feel forced to reveal more of themselves than they wish in order to get a response from the worker. This includes knowledge of means of helping people to say what is on their mind, the assent, the query, the interjection, the linking up with something which was said previously, which shows people that their real preoccupations,

their situation and their problems are understood, and thus enables them to explore these further. It is often by such listening and by appropriate comment which show real understanding and sympathy that people are able to see connexions, between their behaviour and that of others or between the past and the present, which they had not been able to face before.

Students will also require to learn a good deal about the therapeutic effects of good listening, particularly how being helped to release bottled-up or denied feelings may lessen the pressure of anxiety, fear or hostility to a degree which makes it possible for people to face situations which had immobilized them previously. It commonly comes as a revelation to students to discover that "just listening" can be so helpful and that it may lead to a client being able to begin to discuss solutions to his problem. They must go on to the further more difficult stages of testing the extent to which the client is becoming, or is capable of becoming, able to see the point of view of another person with whom he is in emotional conflict, to link this up with previous experiences, or to take responsibility in regard to the external realities and pressures of his situation.

Both listening and talking are bound up with appraisal of appropriate timing, which plays so important a part in casework. The familiar phrases about "starting where the client is" and "moving at the client's pace" express this element in the flow of human relationships. In one sense casework is, like group and community work, the deliberate use of techniques designed to speed up the pace of the client's movement, to help him not to stick in entrenched attitudes which will impoverish him and others; and by a beneficent intervention in his affairs to reverse a chain reaction of personal and social malfunctioning or repetition of damaging relationships, which can result in situations too serious to be cured. The importance of good timing, tested by observation, listening and appropriate comment, lies in the fact that if the client is pushed too fast he will recede behind his defences, whereas if he can be helped to move forward more quickly in dealing with his problem various damaging effects on others may be lessened and his own capacity for self-direction be heightened through added confidence and growth in self-awareness.

(c) *Talking.* In many casework interviews the client will need both to give and receive factual information. This must be asked for in a manner which indicates its relevance, and given clearly, repeated if necessary, and explained in answer to the client's questions. Giving or asking for this kind of factual information in relation to the particular service which the agency is rendering, or might render to the client, often itself begins to lessen his diffuse anxiety because it is clearly appropriate to understanding his situation and because it is something to hold on to; it helps to partialize his problem, and often to prescribe action in relation to it. Students in their desire to understand and treat complex psychosocial problems are all too apt to forget the value of facts and simple, practical services, including giving or asking for relevant information. Students also need to learn to give or ask for information simply, slowly and clearly in such a way that clients can go on to ask more or say more, bearing in mind that the initial request for some simple service may be the preliminary to trying to ask for help with a bigger problem.

They will require to have much discussion, particularly through the study of casework records, of the very difficult art of asking the right questions. "Right" being the question which is related to the feelings the client is trying or is afraid to express, which asks information necessary for better understanding, or which gives direction and relevance to the content of the interview. For example, a rambling client may be brought back to what is relevant by suitable questions.

Students will also learn how important it is to become aware of themselves and the effect they have on those whom they interview, as well not to become absorbed in their own train of thought so that they confuse or antagonize the client by what they say; or by going very much deeper into the client's affairs, past experience and feelings than is warranted by the legitimate purpose of the interview. It is axiomatic that they must "speak the same language" as the client by having a sufficient knowledge of his cultural background and assumptions, particularly about family and work roles and responsibilities; by not using unfamiliar terms, by not talking down to him or above his head. They must also learn to be able to discuss difficult and intimate matters heavily charged with feeling in such a way that they neither slide over and deny painful feelings nor talk about them in hurtful ways which show lack of real understanding and concern. They must also learn to phrase questions so that these are clear but "open-minded", that is to say do not imply an expected answer.

(d) *Direction*. This includes the most difficult art of giving a form, focus and purpose to the interview without at the same time controlling and manipulating the client in ways which demand that he should be over-dependent and submissive, or which result in his failing to accept the advice he is given or to carry out solutions imposed upon him. At the same time it necessitates knowing when advice and tangible help is what the client needs and will accept. Direction is also equally important in order to prevent the interview from becoming an undirected conversation in which everything is talked about but nothing is carried further or deeper because the student and the client have simply gone round in circles together. Through study and discussion of casework records, students are enabled to see how a skilled interviewer guides and directs an interview, knowing when to help people to talk about their feelings, when to guide them in another direction, when to explain the resources of the agency, how to help them decide what is their most pressing problem and how they might be able to meet it with help; when and how to give information; and how to lay different possible courses of action before a client.

(e) *Interviews for different purposes*. The focus and conduct of interviews must be considered in relation to their purpose. An intake interview, for example, will have a different purpose from a social enquiry to prepare a report for a judge or a doctor. Short-contact casework will also have different objectives from long-term remedial action. The 'level' of the interview will thus depend on its purpose, and the skill of the interviewer.

CASEWORK METHOD

The foregoing knowledge about and increasing skill in interviewing is for use within the structure of casework method, which is based upon study, diagnosis and treatment.

This is the framework of order within which the process of casework moves. The process itself is the conscious development, direction and use of a relationship by the worker in order that the client may be helped with some problem of social need. The way in which the worker appraises and analyses the process is thus rather different from the way in which it is experienced by the client. Students need continual help to keep these two aspects in focus in their discussions. The process itself is an orderly one, resting upon what is known about the processes by which, through a satisfying relationship, tensions are lessened and people are motivated to meet their problems. At the same time, study, diagnosis and treatment, though each preponderantly takes place at earlier or later stages in casework with a given client, should be going on all the time. Treatment, in the sense of a helpful intervention, begins in the first interview, while diagnosis and treatment may be revised again and again as fresh information becomes available or as the client responds in ways which are inconsistent with an earlier appraisal. The goals of the treatment may also vary in accordance with changes in the client, his family relationships or his external situation, since all these are necessarily involved in the casework process. The main focus is always upon the person who has the problem and upon his situation rather than upon the problem as such, whether the centre of gravity is in his circumstances, himself or both. It is also concerned with the inter-relationship between internal drives, needs and pressures and external circumstances. This is partly because externally similar situations may have very different effects on different people as a result of their differing personalities and previous life experience, more particularly their early pattern-setting family relationships, their current life situation and their aspirations for the future. These aspects will come out again and again in study and discussion of casework records. In these discussions students will not only be given the knowledge with which to think and the framework with which to do it, but will also be pressed all the time to look for the evidence which might verify, query or negate their hypotheses and statements of fact.

Relationship and its use will of necessity be taught all through the methods courses. This is because "in summary, we may say that the dynamic interaction between two persons or between a group and the leader is the matrix within which all skills and processes of social work take place. Without a good relationship, which implies mutual trust and acceptance, no constructive change is possible. It provides both the medium within which change takes place and the means whereby it is effected."² This is something intangible and in any event students find it hard to imagine that they could "influence" other people so they find it difficult at first to recognize its existence or to experience its powerful effects in motivating people. It is also difficult for them to realize that

² Michael Wheeler, "Supervision and Casework Method", *Social Welfare and the Preservation of Human Values*, W. Dixon, ed. (Vancouver, J. M. Dent and Sons, 1957), p. 130.

they themselves are "clothed with the mantle of their profession" and therefore that they may have much more status and authority in the client's eyes than in their own. They will also have difficulty in realizing, either in class discussions or field work, that the relationship with the worker may have various symbolic meanings for the client, who may be paying off old scores, seeking lost comforts, hitting out at old rivals, or trying to re-enact past rejections in this relationship.

Students in the early stages also tend to equate a warm concern for an individual with personal friendship and a professional relationship with cold detachment. It is through the study of casework records, discussions in supervision, and their own experience that they come to see the difference between friendship and casework, and to appreciate that it is their desire to help, their response to, though not involvement with, the client which enables him to express emotion, and thus to create a relationship, which may be deepened, lessened or terminated as may seem to be in the best interests of the client, but which in any event will be the sustaining force which enables him to look more steadily at his problems.

"It is when his feelings are expressed, or when the caseworker reaches out to release them and they are responded to receptively, attentively, and sympathetically, that an emotional span is flung between client and caseworker which is the beginning of relationship."³

This relationship does not develop between worker and client in a vacuum. The client has come to a social agency which exists to meet particular needs and is limited in its functions; while within the agency itself casework may be a primary service, or secondary to other services, as in a hospital. The caseworker is employed by the agency as one of its representatives in order to give a professional service which furthers its aims. The relationship with the client will therefore have the double focus of the client's need and the purpose of the agency. The worker must thus be well-versed in the administrative procedures of her own and other agencies and must regard this as part of her skill in helping clients to meet the problems with which they come to the agency. Clients are reassured and enabled to discuss their difficulties further by experiencing not only the worker's helpfulness and understanding but also her competence. As with all other forms of professional help, they want to feel assured that she knows what she is about.

In initial interviews, then, students will see the skilled worker eliciting enough information from the client and encouraging him to talk sufficiently freely to establish whether the difficulty with which he wants help is one which the agency exists to meet. The worker will bear in mind that the problem which clients present initially is not always the one which really concerns them nor the one with which they most need help. Sometimes the small request is a means of testing out the agency's willingness and ability to help; sometimes the weight of the real problem is too oppressive to be shared without help; sometimes the client is not conscious of or cannot come to grips with his essential need. The worker will show him warmth and courtesy and listen attentively to what

³Helen Harris Perlman, *Social Casework* (The University of Chicago Press, 1957), p. 67.

he has to say, helping him in various appropriate ways to express himself when he has difficulty in doing so or to come to the point when he rambles diffusely or to stop talking when this is what he most needs. This experience of being accepted as an individual person of worth, whose problems are important and who naturally feels troubled by them, though at the same time he can be aided to do something about them, helps to establish rapport, to lower anxiety and hostility, and to increase feelings of worth and competence.

In the study and discussion of first and other early interviews students can begin to appreciate how people feel about asking for help with their problems, particularly in those cultures where not to be able to meet one's difficulties is regarded as a sign of failure in social adequacy and in performing socially required roles appropriately. Students will need help in realizing that the function of casework is as yet little understood in any community, so that to go to a social agency may still seem to the client like asking for charity or confessing failure in the management of his affairs, particularly if his difficulties are ones which are socially condemned. He will therefore come with mixed feelings as to what will be expected of him in an unfamiliar social situation; he may feel guilty and expect to be blamed; he may feel dependent and resent this, or he may want to unload all his troubles on to the agency, convinced that the cause of all his difficulties lies outside himself; or alternatively he may have realistically sized up his problem and be able to meet it himself with the material aid or other service which the agency provides. The reverse may be true in other countries where: "Most of the clients seen by social workers have been accustomed to ask and to get help from one source or another." In such circumstances: "Getting help from a social worker is not a traumatic experience and he who looks for concealed resistance is looking for something which does not exist."⁴ In any circumstances, students need to be aware that some feelings may be present, and to be helped to discuss how clients may feel, ways in which their initial reception may lower or heighten negative feelings, and how the worker may help them to express and recognize these at an initial or early interview. They must be helped to understand the client's fear that if he accepts help some of the conduct of his affairs may be taken from him. Thus, it is often necessary for him to experience a change of feeling about taking help before he can begin to play a constructive part in meeting his problems. His experience of the helping hand will determine what he will do, or let others do for him. Therefore his mixed feelings must be lessened before he can move forward. At the same time, it would be naive to imagine that such feelings are thereby ended; indeed students must be helped all along to allow for the mixed feelings that people have about receiving help with their problems, even when this does not cause old dependencies and conflicts, particularly in regard to those in authority, to flare up anew. They must also begin to recognize that a relationship is emotionally potent so that, with some clients, it may bring to life deep feelings whose origins lay in earlier relationships. These

⁴ Helen R. Wright, "Similarities and Differences in Social Work Education as seen in India and North America". Paper presented at the Ninth International Congress of Schools of Social Work, Tokyo, November 27-29, 1958 (to be published in *International Social Work*, Bombay).

feelings will not burst their bonds if the caseworker does not allow herself to become over-involved (this is one of the most important reasons for self-awareness). Warm feelings towards the client are different from becoming emotionally involved with him or with the success of a particular plan. Thus she must keep clearly in focus her professional relationship, the direction of the interview, the purpose which has brought the client to the agency, and what can be done to help him. Students will take time to achieve this, and over-involvement is in any event much more desirable than indifference. The student who is closely identified with clients and who wishes to give freely to them is likely to have far more of the makings of a good social worker than one who remains uninvolved and who is constricted in giving.

In the first interview or interviews students will be made aware of the way in which the worker elicits the necessary facts to establish whether and if so with what problem the client wants help, and whether the agency can give it. All questions at this point should be relevant to these two purposes, though it may be legitimate, if it is indicated, to explore whether the client is willing to recognize and be helped about some more important issue. Students will realize through study of comparative case material how much this will depend on the specific circumstances.

The client himself is the best source of evidence about his situation as he sees it, though other family members or other sources of information may be consulted, with his agreement. The extent to which this is done will depend partly on cultural assumptions about family obligations and responsibility. He may also be helped by questions which indicate that necessary facts must be known. His present difficulties and how he has met others in the past should be discussed in a manner which enables him to assess his own resources for meeting them. In doing this the worker at one and the same time helps the client to partialize his problem and begins to engage him in solving or reducing it. This also begins to show the strength of the personality, for example whether the person is normally self-sufficient and has become dependent under stress or whether he always runs to some parental figure for help in trouble to an extent which would not be normal in the culture, or whether he is suffering from deep-seated personality defects. Incidentally this also helps students to concentrate on trying to assess accurately the relative strength of the personality rather than delving into pathology, unless this proves to be necessary. In this and further interviews the extent of the person's ability to make use of help and move forward in coming to some terms with his problems will be increasingly apparent. His response to help will also cast light on his family and other relationships, their meaning for him and the effect of his social situation and work record on him and his problems.

In this study of recorded material, as in their own practice, students must repeatedly use the systematic and orderly process of:

- (1) Gathering all the necessary facts, both the objective facts and the other facts of the client's and his family's feelings about his illness or unemployment or delinquency or inability to provide for his children, or whatever the presenting problem may be. These facts will include the source of referral and why he came to the agency; what he expects from

it and whether the agency is able to help; what are the sources of stress or need; whether these are recurrent and if so how they have been dealt with previously and with what results; what are the attitudes of other members of the family to the client and his problem and what is the impact of it upon them; what seems to be the family constellation and the role assumptions and expectations of its members; what resources the client and his family seem to have for meeting their problems, with regard, too, to their social relationships, and conditions of life—employment, economic status, education, and the like.

(2) Studying the relevant facts in the light of general and specific knowledge to see how they fit together, whether any essential information is missing or whether enough is known about the client—his situation, his problem, his response to it, his resources (inner and outer), his motivation to take help and his capacity to use it—to enable the worker to arrive at a preliminary social diagnosis.

(3) Making a tentative appraisal or social diagnosis and testing this from time to time in the light of further knowledge. This involves reaching some conclusions about the person and his circumstances, the nature and history of his problems as he sees them and as they appear to the worker. "It attempts to answer the question 'What is the matter?'"⁵ Students will need to make full use of their knowledge in the background subjects as well as what they are learning in casework to assess all the relevant factors about this particular person in his social situation and the normality or otherwise of his responses to it. "All diagnostic skills rest on knowing what to look for, what to disregard, and how to review the findings in the light of subsequent data."⁶ Without some such deliberate and carefully undertaken appraisal, the caseworker's contacts with the client are likely to be a series of confused hit or miss interviews in which it is hoped that good will and concrete services will produce the desired (but unanalysed) result. Against this:

"the purpose of the diagnostic process and product in social casework is to give boundary, relevance, and direction to the caseworker's helpful intents and skills. As process, it seeks to identify and appraise the nature of the problem in relation to the kind of person the client is, his inner and outer functioning and resources, in relation to the agency's helping means. As product, it gives focus and direction to the ongoing transactions between caseworker and client, and caseworker and such other persons as are involved either as parts of the problem or as participants in its solution. It attempts to identify cause-effect connections so that some intervention may be injected to halt or change the course of a problem. It does not write a treatment prescription, but it points to some general expectations and thus gives guidance to the caseworker's operations. It demands some structure of thought, which is the condition of planned action. In the caseworker it substitutes conscious, responsible appraisal and anticipation for diffused impressions and chance responsiveness."⁷

⁵ Gordon Hamilton, *Theory and Practice of Social Casework* (Columbia University Press, Rev. Ed., 1951), p. 214.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 222.

⁷ Helen Perlman, *Social Casework*, op. cit., pp. 179-180.

This diagnosis will not only include the nature of the stress, the client's responses, strengths and resources but also those of his family, friends, fellow workers and neighbours in so far as these are relevant. This will lead to an assessment of what in his situation needs rectifying and to what degree those in close relationship to him are likely to be helpful, ineffective or damaging. Obviously such diagnoses imply norms of social adjustment, in order to determine the degree to which in any given person these are adequate, impaired, interrupted (for example by unemployment) or broken down. Implicitly or explicitly such measurements will be used in relation both to diagnosis and treatment: it is important that they should be related to some criteria of satisfactory social functioning in the client's own milieu in relation to family, work and community responsibilities.

(4) Treatment, or remedial action taken on the basis of the diagnosis. This includes providing the help, personal services or material aid relevant to helping the client to meet the problems which it has been agreed between him and the caseworker they shall engage in working upon, whether it be a need for financial help, or for assistance with some difficulty in social adjustment or family relationships or in meeting disability or illness or homelessness. This may necessitate team work with members of other professions, as well as calling upon community resources for needed goods or services. The need may be an external one and the client may be able to manage his affairs if it can be met. Alternatively it may be an interaction between himself and his circumstances, in which event modifications in both may be indicated to bring about a more favorable adjustment. "The essential attribute of treatment is that whether one uses predominantly practical and environmental or predominantly psychological means, the aim is better psychosocial functioning or adaptation."⁸

Much casework treatment is concerned with practical services which the client is helped by casework to use constructively: he may also need this help in lowering stresses and enhancing personality strengths so that he is able to use another service, for example, medical care. In situations of mass poverty and limited resources to procure even a minimum of material help may require considerable effort. Similarly, changes may be brought about in other people's attitudes and expectations and in the environment, in order to reduce strain and increase satisfactions and ability to function more effectively. This is not to be thought of in general terms but in relation to the assessed needs of particular persons. These changes may suffice in themselves but they may also be combined with direct treatment, that is "a series of interviews carried on with the purpose of inducing or reinforcing attitudes favorable to maintenance of emotional equilibrium, to making constructive decisions, and to growth and change".⁹ These interviews will not be undirected and diffuse but focused and re-defined in the light of developments and possible changes in diagnosis and in the client's abilities and desires.

"Within the boundaries of what the client wants, his capacities, and the resources of skill and material means of the agency (and com-

⁸ Gordon Hamilton, *op. cit.*, p. 242.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 249.

munity), the specific goal is to help him achieve his previous level of functioning and/or to promote the most effective functioning of which he is capable at this time. This goal, then, must be as individualized as is the person and his problem and what he wants and is able to do about it."¹⁰

Students must be helped to see that these remedial aims are pursued by the same casework methods, though the level of skill required will depend on what is being attempted. They will realize through their own practice and through casework records that many severe problems in relationships or intrapsychic conflict may be accurately assessed but must be left alone, while treatment may be focused upon bringing about some alleviation in relationships rather than attempting any radical (and unrealistic) cure, particularly where such intervention might be damaging to the total equilibrium of the person in his situation. Their aim will be the best change possible in the person and his situation at any given time, through fresh adaptation ". . . which enables the person to maintain his sense of wholeness and balance while making some compromise between what he wants and what is realistically possible."¹¹ This may result in restoration of or improvement in social functioning. It is usually realistic to assume that the beneficent experience of being accepted, respected and helped with his difficulties will have released energy and given the client more hope and confidence, more insight and more ability to use the same methods in future crises in his life.

More prolonged work may be necessary with given clients if they are to be stimulated and helped to go beyond restored social functioning to positive improvements in their capacity to use their own and external resources. This will include helping the client to become more aware of himself in his situation, of his propensities and responses to stressful situations, so that he may avoid these if possible, and if not, then seek to lessen them by calling upon his own strengths and those which come to him from reassuring family and community relationships. This is essentially an educational activity designed to increase the client's awareness of the factors in himself and his environment which promote social health on the one hand or social inflection and contamination on the other. The aim is thus the achievement of a fresh and better equilibrium between the person and his social situation, in which at best his threshold of resistance has been raised, he and his environment have both become less rigid, that is, more responsive to growth and change, so that he and those near to him are able to fulfil their roles in relation to each other with greater satisfaction.

This aim is similar to that in group work and community development (see p. 36). Indeed the essential elements will be the same in all three instances: ". . . the worker's tools may be those which affect intrapsychic problems, or they may aim also at changing interpersonal relations at the primary level, intergroup relations in a neighborhood level, or interneighborhood relations at a community level. At times, when the community is the client, the problem may lie in the intrapsychic be-

¹⁰ Helen Perlman, *op. cit.* p. 201.

¹¹ Community Service Society, "Statement on Social Casework Practice" (New York, 1957), p. 11.

haviour of certain of its members. Some of the societal causes are of a long-range sort requiring preventive measures rather than remedial treatment. Whether his client is a person, a group, or a community, the social worker in direct practice is dealing with phenomena which are both personal and societal. The aim in each instance is to help those involved to develop their relations with others, on an interpersonal level, and with the surrounding society in a way that leads to the greatest fulfilment of the unique powers of each and their functioning as contributing members of their society."¹²

In case records the students will see casework with clients who fall into the following three broad groups:

(a) Those who are victims of circumstances, caught in some situation which is causing stress and possible regression and dependency. For example ill people, old and dependent people, displaced people. Many of these will be able to manage their lives if it is possible to help them through this phase or if the burden is lightened from time to time.

(b) Those whose difficulties are partly induced by their own attitudes and behaviour. Sometimes modification of the environment and casework treatment leading to greater insight can help such people, if they really want to get better, and if other relationships and situations do not impose an unmanageable strain upon them.

(c) Those whose own personalities are the dominant cause of their difficulties. Some may be helped in the ways indicated above, others may respond to psychiatric treatment. Others may need casework support and some environmental control for long periods if they are to continue to live in the community at some minimum socially acceptable standard and without doing too much damage to themselves, their families and their neighbours.

The aim of the whole casework course is that at the end the students shall be better able to apply knowledge through the use of casework methods, an understanding of its process and a respect for its principles. It is an equally important aim that they should have mastered its working method because "knowing how to take hold of a case, how to proceed in understanding the import of a person's problem to him, how to put two and two together, and what belongs together—in short knowing a systematic method—enables him to proceed more automatically, so that his conscious mind is freed to make differential use of the method, as he endlessly encounters new fact situations".¹³

CASEWORK RECORDS

As has been said, much of the foregoing will be most effectively taught through the study of casework records, interspersed with periods of didactic teaching and discussion of different aspects of casework method. This type of teaching is extremely difficult because it must progress in an orderly way within a structured framework, otherwise it will degenerate

¹² Grace Longwell Coyle, *Social Science in the Professional Education of Social Workers*, op. cit., p. 18.

¹³ Charlotte Towle, *The Learner in Education for the Professions*, op. cit., p. 250.

into a discussion of scattered impressions brought to no conclusion and related to no principles. But it is for this very reason that recorded case material is more effective than anecdotal illustrations, though students' own current cases may sometimes be used (see pp. 225-227 below).

In the earlier stages of using recorded case material students will tend to read the record like a story. They may need help by being told what concepts and principles are to be studied and what to concentrate on in their earliest case records. This recorded material should be carefully chosen for the effective teaching and reinforcement of the essentials of casework method, process and principles. This will include not only the main teaching points to be drawn out from a particular case, which the students will have been given to study before the class session, but also the arrangement of case records throughout a course in relation to the orderly planning of continuity, sequence and integration (see below pp. 222-225).

It remains to consider in the present chapter the selection of case records for what they will teach of the subject matter outlined above, including professional ethics. They are particularly useful for giving precision to such concepts as acceptance, self-determination, respect for the client, objectivity and the like, through bringing students up against what these mean in actual practice, and helping them to realize some of their own prejudices and unanswered queries. The slow tempo and controlled environment of the class-room, compared with that of real life interviews, also enables students to reflect at given points, to go backwards and forwards, to link one point with another and to test out the evidence for inter-connexion so that they become more adept at analysing, synthesizing and generalizing from actual cases in order to understand people and the meaning of their behaviour, rather than being "for" or "against" them. The purpose, however, is not only understanding but also action. It is therefore essential that substantial parts in the records used should be process recorded, and should show sufficient of the relationship between the client and the worker for the worker's action and the client's response to be apparent, so that students may appreciate what was helpful and where clues were missed. It is important that the records should on the whole show good work and good practices because it is unsound to teach predominantly from negatives.

In order that students may get a better understanding of different people's reactions to the same situation, it is helpful to group together such cases, for example, of reactions to illness or old age or unemployment and to teach them comparatively. In planning selection and progression the current assumption is that the "criterion of simplicity or complexity is the individual's relation to his problem"¹⁴ rather than the type of agency to which he comes or the type of problem he presents. Charlotte Towle suggests that a range of the following should be covered in selecting cases.¹⁵

- (1) Varieties of life experience.
- (2) Social and personal maladjustment.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 293.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 288.

(3) Varieties in the nature of the problem.

(4) Normal to pathological personality.

(5) Age, culture and economic circumstances.

(6) Variety of social agencies either giving the casework service or related to it. This should include the agency's structure and function; specific services, difficulties or limitations of particular types of agency; as well as common denominators and essential differences.

(7) Relationships between the worker and colleagues, collaboration with other professions, with workers in other social agencies and with voluntary workers.

(8) Range of services, including financial help, medical care, foster home placement and residential treatment.

(9) Range of casework treatment.

In addition to the desirable range of cases, points to be borne in mind in selection for increasing complexity which are discussed in detail in *The Learner in Education for the Professions*¹⁶ are summarized in what follows.

First series of cases. In the first few months of a casework course the cases selected should be those in which the clients' troubles spring mainly from their social circumstances so that "there is a simple and obvious connection between their social problems, their disturbed feelings about their problems and their external circumstances".¹⁷ The service the client needs should also be obvious and procurable. What the worker does in the case should be helpful but not so perfect as to be remote from students' early realistic aspirations. It should also be possible to understand sufficient about the client from his current situation and his reaction to it. There should be a clear cause and effect relationship between the worker's activities, the agency service and the client's response; and there should be plenty of evidence to support the students' inferences. To a considerable extent the client's responses should be understandable in the light of the students' own life experience, rather than demanding knowledge of psychopathology and cultural difference. The new and demanding task at this point will be in learning how to appraise and weigh systematically the purposes served by everyday behaviour in maintaining or reinstating the equilibrium essential for normal functioning. Students in the early stages are much more easily able to identify with reasonably normal people in difficulties, towards whom they feel compassion rather than an impulse to change them radically or to repudiate them. They will also feel relief if even one or two people are manifestly helped by their use of casework methods, and experience satisfaction in trying to trace why this happened.

Second series of cases. This range of cases should be more complex in that the people concerned have been partly responsible for their current problems, or else these have re-activated underlying personality conflicts. In comparison with the first group they will be more deeply upset by and emotionally involved in their problems, which will also involve disturbed family relationships, possibly with serious future consequences,

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, chap. 10.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 288.

particularly for the children. They will be defending themselves in characteristic ways by denial, escape, minimizing problems or putting the blame on others. There will be more complex social circumstances, sometimes prolonged or acute social stress will have resulted in personality problems. The clients will, however, be seeking help with social problems through specific services rather than help with their personality problems as such. There will be differences in the people themselves, in their response to their problems and their capacity to change, but they will have sufficient strength of personality to use help (casework and services) effectively as social stresses are lessened. They will vary in this and some will have little capacity for change. In discussing this kind of situation students begin to realize that this may not be the worker's failure, that often little change is possible, and that goals can be only very limited. They will also begin to learn the value of the defences as they see them in action in both fairly normal and more disturbed people. This will become clear if in the teaching

“the individual's need to come realistically to grips with a problem, through assumption of responsibility, through activity that solves the problem, or through endurance of denial and frustration, is repeatedly identified as a behaviour response which has the same aim as the flight, reactive, or compensatory responses. It has the aim of maintaining the individual's equilibrium for survival on satisfying terms with himself and the world.”¹⁸

The diagnosis will be more difficult in this series of cases, calling for greater interviewing skill in both diagnosis and treatment and more complex use of agencies and services. It will be necessary to look below the surface to know something about the person's life experience in order to understand the significance of his present problem and his capacity to be helped, and also to study the interplay of family life. There will thus need to be an extended and deepened study of emotional development, personality structure, and social circumstances and social roles. This will lead not only to diagnosis but also to prognosis in which a forecast is made of what is likely to happen if the person is able to take help or else fails to do so.

These clients will often make heavy demands on the worker because of their emotional need. Thus the worker will not only require greater interviewing skills but also greater self-awareness in order neither to reject the client's emotional demands nor to become involved in them. Much more evidence will be called for than in the first range of cases in order to surmise validly. There will inevitably be gaps in the evidence but it should be possible to infer A, B, or C, as well as to say where more evidence is needed. If the evidence is not clear to students at this stage of learning or if there are too many gaps, they will tend to fall into easy *clichés*, or else the teacher will have to do too much teaching about personality structure, and reactions to particular life experience, in order to fill in the gaps. The students are likely to be at the stage when they look for complex explanations and are quick to infer unconscious motivation; they will need to be continually pulled back to the simplest explanation that seems to fit the evidence.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 300.

Third series of cases. In these cases people are primarily applying for help with social maladjustment or disturbed relationships. They will all have personality problems which hinder social adjustment. These will range from mild personality defects to gross pathology (the social worker of course never treats the pathology itself). More detailed and knowledgeable consideration of the close relationship of social and personal factors will be required. The defences will be more rigid and there will be a higher degree of dependency, hostility, guilt and anxiety. The client-worker relationships will be more difficult to manage for therapeutic purposes, both for the reasons already given and also because the focus is on personal problems, not provision of services. It will be especially difficult for the worker to manage the transference relationship, which will inevitably develop, without unduly deepening it. This means continually keeping the focus on the agency's function and on particular aspects of the client's total problem rather than trying to deal with everything, even though the complexities of multiple causation add to the difficulties of focusing on specific treatment goals.

In the early stages of the application it will also be more difficult to deal with anxiety and resistance, and the consequent ambivalence to the worker, because the client, having actually come for help with personal problems, is feeling fear, a sense of personal failure, and the threat of some alteration in himself if he is to meet his difficulties. Students will, however, learn here also the importance of finding and working with strengths in the personality. In addition, these cases may involve more skilled work with family members or other people in close relation to the client. At this stage in learning, it is safer than it would have been earlier to allow students to use deduction in case analysis because they are much more aware of what can legitimately be inferred from clients' responses in relation to what is known about their life history and also of what can reasonably be expected. Even so, they often need to be kept from making facile assumptions which obstruct real understanding of the behaviour of a unique person, a particular kind of person, in relation to his life experience and cultural assumptions.

FURTHER CONSIDERATIONS IN CASE SELECTION

Not all social work teachers would agree with the foregoing groupings. Some would hold that the continuum from simple to complex does not run parallel to these groupings, but rather that it is essentially a relation between complexity of diagnosis and complexity of social work remedial action. For example, severe mental disorder may be comparatively easy to diagnose compared with neurosis or character disorder, and the social work treatment involved is often simpler—because less can be attempted—than the social work treatment in the milder personality disturbances.

Whichever basis of selection is used, the later cases will show very much more skilled and consciously used diagnostic and treatment skills. In the earlier cases the treatment would mainly be environmental help and supportive casework. In some of the more complex social work treat-

ment cases clarification and interpretation will be used.¹⁹ It should be added that such cases, and indeed casework teaching at this level, are suitable only for mature students taking professional courses of substantial length, given by well-skilled and experienced teachers. Where these criteria are not fulfilled students could do real damage to disturbed people through mishandling and through being insufficiently aware of what not to do, as well as what to attempt.

PRESENTATION BY STUDENTS OF THEIR OWN CASES

Opinions differ about the desirability of students presenting their own current cases to a class. The merits of this method are the value to the student of the careful preparation, clarity in thought and expression and ability to deal with points in discussion, and to the class of the fact that this is a "live" case about which more information will be available as a result of discussion, not a written record which cannot be brought to life in the same way. The disadvantages of the method are that students' current records necessarily cover a much smaller range so that the case cannot be selected to fit in so neatly with the progression of the course, nor is it likely to cover as wide a range of teaching points. The class is also dependent upon the student's ability to present the case adequately and vividly, to "get it across" to them. This is one of the most difficult aspects of the art of casework teaching. It may, however, be achieved by students just because of their own lively interest in a case and their desire to help others to see what may have come as a revelation to them in their work with the client.

It is not usually found desirable to use students' own cases until a late stage in the course. The reasons for this are that the members of the group may not be sufficiently at ease with each other, and also because in the early stages of case study the students are apt to show their knowledge by attacking the worker for weak points rather than appreciating the good ones in the handling of the case. In any event, the class's appraisal of the case may be less spontaneous, even partly determined by the extent of their liking for the student presenting the case. Class tensions and anxieties are also likely to be heightened.

When a student is to present a case it is essential that the class teacher should select the student from the point of view of his good practice, his own willingness to present a case and his probable ability to do so with clarity and order and without undue nervousness.

There must also be careful discussion with the student and his supervisor about the case to be chosen, the main teaching points to be brought out from it, and the way in which it should be presented. It is desirable that a précis of the case should be distributed to the class for study beforehand in the normal way. The class teacher should not only discuss the presentation with the student initially, and after he has organized

¹⁹ For a full discussion of these various levels of casework see Florence Hollis, "The Techniques of Casework", *Principles and Techniques in Social Casework: Selected Articles, 1940-1950*. Cora Kasius, ed. (New York, Family Service Association, 1950), pp. 412-420.

his material, but should also see him after the class, to talk over with him what he felt about the session, what he had learnt from it, where he felt his presentation and the discussion had been successful, and where points had been omitted or the discussion had become undirected.

CHAPTER XI

THE CONTENT OF TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK: SOCIAL WORK THEORY AND METHOD—GROUP RELATIONS, GROUP WORK, COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

GROUP RELATIONS AND GROUP PROCESS

It is increasingly accepted that knowledge of group processes is necessary for all social workers. This is so because individual clients and communities are involved in a variety of group situations, while social workers themselves are also members of groups in a social agency and have various inter-agency contacts and responsibilities. Thus they need knowledge of group process to fulfil their responsibilities as staff or executives in social agencies, as teachers of in-service training or other groups, or in relation to committees or various community activities. Social workers are also frequently employed in industry and in various residential posts where considerable knowledge about group functioning and some skill in the use of group process may be a necessary part of their work. It is therefore proposed to consider this subject matter as relevant for all social workers and to outline it before going on to discuss its actual application in group work.

A good deal of this knowledge of group structure and process will no doubt be taught in the background courses. It must also be picked up and reinforced in the methods courses by the same combination of didactic teaching, use of case records and discussion as in the other methods courses. Much of the description and analysis of the structure, function and purpose of groups will be closely related to and illustrations drawn from the background subject matter of sociology, social psychology and cultural anthropology. The values of group membership for the individual will require to be emphasized in relation to the study of individual human needs, and as they are expressed through family and friendship groups, and through group membership in religious, political, social, recreational and educational, common interest, neighbourhood, work and play groups.

The current rapid growth of conscious use of group process may be illustrated from such diverse fields as industrial relations, administration, education, group therapy, play therapy, recreational groups, youth groups, discussion groups, neighbourhood groups and adult clubs of various kinds, as well as the use of group work in children's homes, penal institutions and general and mental hospitals. The study of inter-group relations is also relevant. Where there are courses on community organization and development, this study will need to be carried further

in that part of the total curriculum. It should also be related to the special need for help with social contacts of any given group in the society, for example, migrants.

The needs served by group membership at different stages of the life cycle have already been touched upon (see pp. 181-182). This should be related both to the various age-groups and to the agencies which meet such needs. It is likely that play groups for children and clubs of various designations for adolescents will have a major part in such provision. It will also be important to identify spontaneous and self-sustaining groups in the culture. Students will need a good understanding of the importance of recreation and creative leisure-time pursuits for all age-groups, and also of attitudes to children's play and adult leisure in the culture. They must also know the types of activity and materials which enrich the emotional and social development of boys and girls at different ages, the varied meanings and values of stories, acting, music, dancing, arts and crafts and imaginative games to them, and the value of action games in developing co-ordination, in giving greater mastery of the body and fostering healthy growth. For the group worker there will be especial emphasis on the social value of the group as a means to help children, particularly those who have been deprived or isolated, to find satisfaction in relationships with other children and with adults who will encourage activity and enjoyment but yet set limits to unruly behaviour.

A major purpose of group work with adolescents is to facilitate their entry into the adult world by the discovery of wider interests and activities, by becoming more sure of themselves in social situations and able to behave appropriately without "fight or flight" reactions, by helping them to learn how to organize for themselves, by providing opportunities for discussion of work, or other pressing concerns, as a means of assimilating new experiences. In those societies where the sexes mix freely with each other, youth groups are a natural means for boys and girls to do things together, to work effectively together in various relationships, to become socially at ease and to move from the single sex friendships of an earlier stage to friendships with the opposite sex, courtship and marriage. Because youth groups help to fulfil the various purposes outlined above, it has been well said that they provide the initiation ceremonies into adult life in many present day cultures. The delinquent gangs of urban areas also probably point to the inherent need for small group membership at this stage of development.

The group as such is distinguished from a number of people in proximity to each other by the development of continuing interpersonal relations amongst those who come to constitute the group. It is the need for group relationships which draws individuals into membership of any kind of group and which keeps them there. Group membership fulfils a basic need in individuals for social relationships; indeed in the course of human evolution the individual has emerged from the group rather than the other way round.

"What stands in need of explanation is not the existence of groups but the existence of individuals. The phenomenon of an individual standing in relative isolation from the group is something which

only began to develop in historical times. We must remember that our species is many millions of years old, so that even the most ancient observations reliably known to us relate only to comparatively very recent times, and even the most primitive communities still in existence are relatively modern products of man's social evolution. We can then gauge how very young, how very superficial is the development of individuality which begins to emerge in the period of history. If the emergence of the apparently isolated individual, capable of confronting and reacting to other isolated individuals, belongs to the recent history of our species, we need be less surprised that these individuals react on one another freely in groups of all kinds. It appears that individuals react in the group as if it were their matrix, from which they emerge only slowly, tentatively, and under special conditions."¹

The needs satisfied by group membership are complex, though the desire to belong, to feel accepted, to like and be liked, to achieve with others, may be regarded as the basis for all group membership. The way such needs are expressed and met will differ considerably according to the age and sex of the members, current social patterns, the status strivings met by the group and the roles played by different members. For example, for the child the group is a means for movement out from a close maternal tie to relationships with a group of children; for the adolescent it is a means of experimenting in company with others with adult ways of living, of keeping revolt, submission, dependence and independence within bounds during the maturation process. Group membership will also reflect the hierarchies, the range of social acceptability, the religious or ethnic groupings, which determine who is likely to mix easily with what other people in what kind of activity. It is essential for social workers to be sensitively aware of these invisible barriers which divide or magnets which attract. They will achieve little if they are unaware of them. They will also be failing in their aims if they unwittingly act in such a way as to deepen group relationships through intensification of rivalry or intolerance towards other groups, or isolation from the local community.

Students need to know that the same group can mean different things to different people. They may use their membership, consciously or unconsciously, to form friendships, or to develop a leisure-time skill, or to gain status or emancipation, or to promote some social purpose, or to protect themselves against isolation in an indifferent world. As the student studies any given group he will try to understand the needs which the group is meeting for each member at any given time, and the ways in which these needs change.

Spontaneous group formation takes place through some strong, common bond, an interest, an outside threat, a "sense of kind", which draws individuals together. Consciously planned group formation rests upon bringing together a small number of people who are in some ways homogeneous and who share some common interest. These two approaches form the matrix from which a group could emerge. The

¹ S. H. Foulkes and E. J. Anthony, *Group Psychotherapy* (London, Penguin Books, 1957), pp. 215-216.

collective and individual responses of members (expressed through their behaviour in and towards the group) will indicate the emergence and development of the group. The initial situation may be quite diffuse before people know each other or have agreed on a common purpose for the group's existence and the structure which it will need in order to function.

In all group formation there will necessarily be three aspects of its life: firstly, the group's purpose (however expressed, and including the unavowed and unconscious purposes of its members); secondly, how membership is determined (whether by a formalized process or by more or less spontaneous acceptance or rejection by the group); and thirdly the organization and structure (either existing or newly created) by which it proposes to carry out its purposes.

A new group only begins to come into being as a recognizable entity when these three aspects are present in interaction with each other. It is implicit in such formation that at least some of the individuals who initially compose the group should feel a measure of acceptance and security with some of the others, while other individuals may join in to pursue an interest or purpose; or they may come in search of comforting recognition within a group. The life span of the group, whether it coheres and renews itself through the centuries as an accepted social institution or disintegrates in a few weeks, will depend upon its purpose (which may be to achieve some short-term objective) and whether or not it continues to have a *raison d'être* which holds its members together. Its real reason for continuing may lie less in its stated purpose than in the quality of the interpersonal relations in the group; indeed it is primarily these which will either hold the group together or else disrupt it. When it has no further purpose it may require help to terminate without hostility or guilt. Most groups evolve or state a way of admitting and expelling members or of creating conditions which result in their leaving the group. These will tend to produce a group whose members are fairly similar or like-minded or who complement each other's needs; the same process will of course operate in producing sub-groups within a larger group.

The organization and structure of the group and its relation to other groups may be simple or complex, formal or informal. This organization will inevitably include the agreed aims of the group, how, when and where it meets, how duties are to be apportioned, who is responsible for making and carrying out various group decisions. In small informal groups the whole membership may share these responsibilities; in others there may be an elected committee, with salaried officials, a constitution, a formal code of procedures and a meeting place. The nature, objectives and resources of different types of groups will determine to a large degree the organization which they develop. Within the formalized structure of a large group there may be many informal interest groups and friendship groups; these will tend to be based on status in the work group hierarchy. These cliques, which occur in most situations, can bind people together in a deep bond of mutual relationship. These spontaneous groups may develop complex and sometimes disruptive relationships to the formalized power structure of the larger group. All groups have a power structure, related to the purposes of the

group and the controls necessary to achieve these. These patterns of authority are expressed through group rules and mores and through the authority roles conferred on individuals in the hierarchy of the power structure; this exercise of power is an attribute of the functions performed by different persons in the group. Unconscious motivation or unexpressed objectives in members of spontaneous groups within the formal group may lead to a double power structure in which natural leaders thrown up by the group compete for group loyalties with the hierarchical leaders.

The interpersonal relations in groups will be in constant flux but will also exhibit certain universal patterns within these changing relationships. Thus each member of a group brings with him all his previous experiences of group situations, including the primary pattern-setting group of the family. He tends to re-enact in the new situation ways of behaving and relating to others learned in previous group experiences, especially the family. The informal power structure will thus to some degree be expressive of previous attitudes towards authority, whether accepting, rejecting or rebelling against it, or exercising it arbitrarily or democratically. Over-dependence, rivalries, feelings of being treated unfairly, demanding attention or reward, and so forth will repeat earlier family patterns. They will be either overt or hidden according to the degree of their cultural acceptability. The patterns of relationship created by personal affinities or antipathies may be plotted by sociometric tests which show at any given moment in a group's life the patterns of leadership, the range of social contact, and such forms as the star, the chain, the pairs and the isolate. These patterns of relationship will express the roles which individuals have assumed or in which the group has cast them. The most familiar of these are leader or scapegoat roles but there may be other, partially culturally determined, roles, for example the clown, the objector, the grouser, the mother, the efficient know-all, or the helpless one who gets others to do his work.

"The emotions that create links between individuals include the whole gamut of which human personality is capable. There are mutual friendship pairs, and in heterosexual groups courtship pairs in various stages of development. There are pairs of enemies in some of which the ambivalence of attraction conflicts with partial enmity. There are triads often consisting of the rivalry of two for the affection of one. Dependency and domination pairs are found in which at points elements of the masochism of the dependent meets the repressed, often unconscious hostility of the dominator."²

These roles are determined partly by the personal needs of individuals in interaction with each other and partly by cultural attitudes. In most groups some roles, particularly those relating to authority and responsibility, will be formally agreed by the group or externally imposed upon it. The indigenous leader role necessarily creates sub-groups focused on the leader: these sub-groups may enhance the cohesion of the total group or, where sub-groups centre on rival leaders, disrupt it. All groups tend to isolate or reject certain individual members, that is, fail to incorporate them as part of the group. The group isolate may

² Grace Longwell Coyle, *Group Work with American Youth* (New York, Harper and Bros., 1948), p. 91.

be an individual with difficulty in making social relationships, whose own needs may make him aggressive, or withdrawn, passive, shy, unresponsive, or alternatively cocksure and lacking in 'social sense'; or he may not 'belong' in that particular group because of personal or cultural status differences, and hence be rejected by it.

From these role-castings and role assumptions and the positive or negative emotions which they express, it follows that the group is grading or ranking its members on a scale of esteem or acceptability, stigma or rejection. The group invariably in so ranking its members gives or withholds status; it elevates, demotes, underrates, overrates, tests out leadership qualities, invests the individual with qualities or attributes which help him to grow or which diminish him. This ranking may or may not be highly competitive and it may move on several different levels (for example the structured and the spontaneous rating) in large, formal groups. It will invariably reflect the status ratings (caste, class, religious affiliation, occupation, social power structure) of the immediate neighbourhood as well as of the larger culture. There may be considerable conflict here, as when the stated purpose of the group necessitates bringing together religious or ethnic or occupational or neighbourhood groups which do not mix in ordinary life and have different status ratings in the surrounding culture.

The psychological life of the group and its sub-groups, whether supporting or conflicting, is thus composed of (a) the personality development and the previous group experience of its members; (b) the changing pattern of interpersonal relations within the group; (c) the attribution and acceptance of certain roles which express these relationships; (d) the status rating which accompanies this, either conferring privilege, power and responsibility or else isolating and rejecting certain group members. From the point of view of the individual, there will always be both specific and general, conscious and unconscious reasons for joining a particular group. The desire for group relationships and a sense of belonging may lead to acceptance of the group but not necessarily to acceptance by the group. The individual becomes part of the group (unless rejected by it) by identifying with it and its purposes, by assuming a role and accepting the status conferred by the group in relation to this. The individual differences of the members will profoundly affect the group structure and the pattern of relationships. In any group may be found those who are dominant, aggressive or passive; who accept authority or contest it; who use it in the interests of the group or to satisfy their own needs; who accept responsibilities and carry out or fail to carry these out; who are stable and reliable or who easily become rivalrous; who complain or have grievances; who are attention seeking or who are caught in dependence/independence conflicts. Frustrations or satisfactions which the members may be experiencing elsewhere will also affect their response in the group. The degree to which the group is able to absorb these negative demands and responses will depend on the degree of personality stability in the membership and also the indefinable but nonetheless powerful social climate of the group. It is obvious that a long-standing group with considerable tensile strength will be able to absorb more deviant behaviour, a more heterogeneous membership, than a group with less strengths of its own.

Within these basic elements of group process, students may be introduced to a study of the differences in the development, structure and functioning of different actual groups. This may profitably be made part of the field work as well as of case studies, discussions and written work. For example, they may analyse two or three different social agencies in order to understand the structure these have developed for the fulfilment of their goals and the ways in which power is distributed and delimited in pursuit of the aims of the agency. This part of the material will require to be closely related to that on government and administration, because it will include an analysis of the sources from which power is derived; for example, through legislation, or a constitution, or formal rules, or a committee, or a governing body laying down rules for the whole organization, or by means of a self-governing group. From this there follows the ways in which power is exercised; by the group members, by an appointment staff with a hierarchical system and sometimes dividing power with elected representatives, through agreed administrative processes, through the exercise of professional, technical and clerical skills.

This aspect will include an analysis of the extent to which decision making is in fact inherent in the function performed by any given staff or members of the whole group. This may lead to discussion of problems of communication, of ways of clarifying matters requiring decision, how decisions are made, how they are implemented and the ways in which, in an administrative hierarchy, those involved are implicated in this process. It will also be necessary to analyse problems of clash between differing interests or points of view, how these are reconciled, and the tensions which they cause.

This discussion may be related to assumptions within the culture about authority or democratic participation and the ways in which changing assumptions are reflected in the power structure and the administrative processes, in particular social agencies. This analysis will also include ways provided to make changes in the group or agency's objectives, the effects of these on the power structure and the ways in which they are implemented.

All through this discussion students may be helped to become aware of the two levels on which group life moves in any structured group—the level of the formalized group and inter-group structure in its relation to the other level of spontaneous group and sub-group formation. They may use case studies here for the consideration of the problems which arise when, for example, the designated leader is unable to fulfil either the formalized role or the emotional role of leadership and when, therefore, an indigenous leader emerges and is spontaneously invested by the group with a leadership role. Studies of inter-group relations will be useful for the discussion of inter-departmental or inter-agency rivalries and their management. These studies will also be related to discussions about means of securing team work and co-operation in social agencies.

These aspects may be linked to the study of the emotional climate of a group. This will include those factors which create or destroy group morale and group loyalty, and the devices by which these are intensified. Some of the devices naively used to stimulate group morale and

achievement may be based upon rivalry and competitiveness. Prizes, badges or titles are potentially dangerous if they divert group effort from achievement, raising output, manifesting skill and the like to hostile rivalry with another group or another department in the agency. Thus they may or may not foster co-operation rather than competitiveness within the group. Similarly, ineffective or hostile leadership within a group will lead to group dissensions, the formation of inimical sub-groups and group regression to a more immature level of behaviour. Conversely, group morale is high when the members identify with each other, with the leadership, and with the aims of the group.

Closely related to the climate of the group and the effect of this on group relationships and performance is the culture which every group in time evolves for itself. As has been said already, this will largely reflect the values of the surrounding culture, the aspirations of the members and the prestige of those who try (consciously or unconsciously) to modify the group culture. There will grow up in time certain common expectations, mutual understandings, "the way we do things here" which may be unexpressed but which will be shared by the members and may in time become an intense group tradition, sometimes manifested in rituals and symbols.

"A group culture is defined as the pattern of values which evolves out of the group life and which acts to determine norms of behavior for its members and for the group as a whole. Such values may include: (1) beliefs, ideas or ideologies, (2) appreciative or aesthetic values related to what is considered appropriate or beautiful (usually called matters of taste), and (3) moral or ethical values."³

Through case studies and through actual experience of groups, students may be helped to recognize all the foregoing processes in group life in their intimate and living relations to each other and to the changing drama of the group's activities. Their study of society will clarify for them the degree of esteem or rejection with which any group may meet in the surrounding culture and the effect which this will have in intensifying the group's life and in determining whether it acts as an "open" or "closed" group. The term group is of course used here very broadly to cover every kind of group which goes to make up the community. The nature of these and their expected functions will of course differ in different societies, in some cultures the extended family, tribe or village community may be the main focuses of group life, in others the focus will lie in functional groups.

GROUP WORK

All social workers and social administrators need to understand group processes and to use this knowledge. Group and community workers must be able to use it with more precision for the study, diagnosis and "treatment" of specific groups.

³ Grace Longwell Coyle and Margaret E. Hartford, *Social Progress in the Community and Group* (New York, Council on Social Work Education, 1958), p. 86. The material in this publication has been drawn upon heavily in the foregoing analysis of group process.

Much of what has already been said about social work with individuals is relevant to group work because here too the student must understand motivation and the range of individual behaviour, must have interviewing skills, and must use the same methods of study, diagnosis and treatment, though with a different focus and in a different way. The aim of group work is similar to that of casework in that the emphasis is upon the individual, though the method is through working with groups of individuals to help them to a richer development and more diversified experience as a result of greater confidence in group membership. Group work is a conscious attempt to help people to become more effective in group situations and to find common interests and mutual satisfaction in doing so. It thus has the same essential aims as casework to further the individual's fulfilment of his potentialities and his margin of freedom in social relationships, as well as to serve the common purposes of the members. In addition to enriching the life of individuals, groups may serve an important purpose by providing opportunity for the development and exercise of leadership qualities. This development of leadership and responsibility in large segments of the population is an essential element in social progress and has a contribution to make to economic productivity. Thus group work may be used to benefit the whole community by developing future leaders.

In a group work course the study of groups may begin with the processes of group formation or else with study of an already functioning group. If the latter method is used the aim will be to discover the avowed and unconscious needs which it fulfils for its members; together with its aims, the changing relationships of its members to each other, its attitudes towards accepting the group worker and what help it needs in identifying and moving towards the better fulfilment of the purposes for which it exists and which keep it in being. This early analysis of the group may be preceded by or interwoven with a general description of the reasons why groups come into and remain in existence. Within the threefold classification of friendship groups, interest groups and groups which exist to fulfil some purpose external to themselves, there will be opportunity for illustration from typical group formations in the particular society. Much of this description and analysis of the structure, function and purposes of groups will of course be closely related to and drawn from the background subject matter from sociology, social psychology and cultural anthropology.

If a new group is being formed, the aim will be to speed up and intensify the process of group formation. This is achieved by helping individuals to get to know each other, by introductions and individual statements of background and interests, by helping each to see what he has to contribute and to gain, and also by putting before the group possible activities and purposes; and finally, by helping it to decide what it wants to do, what will be involved in this and what allocation of responsibilities and decisions about action are required. It is important at this early stage that individuals should be in an atmosphere where they feel acceptance and are thus willing to accept each other, that they are stimulated by the thought of being together and by considering the things they might do, whether primarily or avowedly as a friendship group, an interest group or an external action group. It is

important that the group worker should be able to create this favourable atmosphere through quickly establishing a good relation with the individuals present in which they accept (like) him and feel willing to accept each other. This increases individual self-confidence and willingness to become a member of the group as it emerges. It is also important that the emerging group should experience quick success in some direction in order to give it confidence before the next inevitable stage of testing out, or slump, with its consequent anxieties, discouragement and possibly hostile feelings toward the worker. This in and out movement occurs in group life as in social work with individuals. The ebb and flow of spurts and slumps is also discussed in another context, in relation to student learning (see p. 292).

As in work with individuals, students will learn to 'start where the group is', whether with a newly formed group or an established one, rather than trying to press upon it their own ideas about desirable activities, structure or objectives. This demands skill in appraising the nature of the particular group and the bonds which hold it together from the various aspects discussed earlier. It also involves knowing the members and something about their backgrounds (individual, cultural and economic) in order to assess their effects on each other and the roles projected on to them by the group and willingly or unwillingly assumed at any given time.⁴ This study is of course not undertaken solely to understand better what is happening in the group but in order to further the "treatment" purpose of group work in enabling the individuals who compose it to have:

"deeper and more satisfying enjoyment, a chance to learn effectively if that is what they are seeking, or in administrative groups a more effective planning and execution of their affairs. In all these aims of the group the development of satisfying interpersonal relations will have a major part."⁵

This also applies in essence to social work in industrial settings and to social work in various forms of institution. In all these varied settings the group worker's aim will be to help members to have a richer human experience; to meet their needs for belonging, for status, for satisfying personal and group relationships, for wider interests and for an increase in skill and ability, according to their aptitudes. These aspects must all be kept in balance with each other. Group activities which demand too little or too much will not provide social nourishment. It is thus important for the group worker to concentrate his attention on what the members need for better individual and social fulfilment rather than on competitions won or articles produced. This does not mean poor work or low levels of achievement. Indeed it may have the contrary effect, as successful community development projects and studies of industrial output have shown. As the individual member grows so does the group: the converse is also true.

Because the aim of the group worker is this enhancement of well-being, he does not accept a static level of group life but is concerned to

⁴ For a guide to studying the group see Harleigh Trecker, *Social Group Work* (New York, The Women's Press, 1948), pp. 66-68.

⁵ Grace Longwell Coyle, *Group Work with American Youth*, op. cit., p. 119.

help the members to move forward from where they are at any given time towards more varied achievement and deeper social understanding, a better ability to resolve difficulties and to take part with confidence and a sense of responsibility in social situations. This involves real understanding of the members, their background and the developmental level of the group; what its members need and how quickly they are likely to be able to move. The worker must also have a warm concern for the group members and be accepted by them in order to work with it. In addition he needs a wide knowledge of useful resources for programme purposes and of the kind of activities (games, drama, music, art, discussions, expeditions, working for some group or social improvement) likely to appeal to the particular group.

“As the leader works with his group to locate and define its objectives he must be equally aware of the surrounding social setting of which it is a part. The types of groups and activities customary in the particular social class, ethnic group, age or sex grouping to which the members belong will play their part in determining how the group organizes. The social-distance patterns, products of their social setting, will act to determine membership policies as well as group objectives.”⁶

The avowed purposes which bring a group together and the aims which it decides to pursue, whether as a friendship or interest or external action group, will thus be affected by all these different factors. The group work student must be capable of analysing these factors not only in general terms but specifically in the study of a particular group in order to determine what are the conscious, or unexpressed, or unconscious needs which the group is serving for the members, and in the light of this, what ways of working and kind of activity would provide them with the most satisfying social experiences. This is analogous to study and diagnosis in casework and case records will be appropriately used for this purpose.

“The group leader, if he is using a group-work approach to his groups, will bring to bear upon this process of formation and the grouping of people both this specific knowledge about types of groups, methods of organization, and the individual needs of particular persons and also a generalized knowledge of what he may expect from people in certain age ranges and affected by certain social factors of significance in their environment.”⁷

Group work students must also develop skill in the use of group discussion as a means by which a group may decide what it wants to do and how it will set about it, for periodic review of the extent to which it is achieving its purposes, and as a method of solving problems of a practical kind or in regard to the relations between members or with other groups. The group worker must be able to help all the members to play their part in discussions and in the varied life of the group. This will include encouraging members with greater capacities to make fuller use of these for the benefit of the group, whether in skill or in leadership. The group worker will need to ensure that these in-

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 88-89.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 75.

dividuals do not stand apart from the group, getting sole attention and causing group jealousies, but that their achievement is fed back into the group as part of its life and status-giving achievement. Moreover, he must bear in mind the importance of the whole group life being so conducted that its achievements and its group culture do not turn it into a mutual admiration society which isolates it or makes it intolerant of other groups. Inter-group events are helpful here, especially if they involve joint enterprise and much opportunity for social exchange between members of different groups.

In their study of group life, students must not only see the group as a whole and the purposes it is achieving but also the place of individuals within the group from the three angles of emotional ties, roles and status already discussed on pp. 231-232. In this changing pattern of relationships they must be able to distinguish pairs bound together by friendship, enmity or dependence/dominance; the triangular relationships; and the larger groups formed through relationship to an indigenous leader.

Part of the skill of the group worker lies in helping to create an atmosphere in which friendly relationships can develop and in which the groups round a leader do not make for rivalry and hostility. This does not mean that hostility will not appear, indeed it may sometimes be necessary to bring mounting hostility to the surface so that its immediate cause can be located and dealt with. In general, however, one of the purposes of group work is to help people to discover ways of reducing hostility in group relationships; an attitude of mind is cultivated which accepts tensions whilst recognizing that ways must be found to strengthen group life rather than disrupting it or creating scapegoats. Recognition of healthy conflict, real differences of opinion, and finding harmless outlets for aggression may give the group members an experience of how to contend with real difficulties without becoming hostile on the one hand or ineffectively amiable on the other.

One of the worker's chief difficulties in this respect will be the member who is truculent, aggressive and self-assertive. Such people can be very disruptive and may gather a sub-group around them. Conversely they may be rejected by the group, which will face them with the greater need to gain attention from the group and the worker. It may be necessary for the worker to permit the group to discuss the difficulties which such members are causing, and also to try to help the individual to understand to some degree the effect his behaviour is having; this will be more likely to succeed if the troublemaker can quickly gain recognition by more acceptable behaviour. The group outsider, the shy withdrawn member, tends to be the isolate in the group even more often than the aggressive member. The needs of both may be basically the same and their very different behaviour may spring from the same roots of insecurity or feeling of being unwanted, with a consequent urgent need for group acceptance. In both cases group rejection intensifies the problem.

"As we understand the desire for affection, the guilt over hostility, the deadening sense of insecurity that underlies the isolate's position, we will no longer forget him and let him drop out of all the normal enjoyments of life through neglect. . . . Rather we shall recognize

that isolation is a sign of retardation in the normally expanding social relations that personality requires for its happiness and health. For such retardation, mild or severe, he needs sympathetic understanding by the leader and a warm accepting climate in the group.”⁸

In many circumstances group workers require leadership skill in one or more of the activities in which the group will engage. These will be likely to include recreational, educational and community action skills. This requirement is analogous to the various practical skills which may be needed by the community development worker and by workers in institutional settings.

The social work skill of group workers includes making friendly relations with the group as a whole and, potentially or actually, with all the individuals in it, without having favourites or rejecting difficult or withdrawn members. This acceptance of the group as it is, rather than imposing the worker's own ideas and way of doing things upon it, is the same as the caseworker's acceptance of the client. It is also the basis for the subtle understanding of the forces at work in the group and for the social sensitivity necessary to enter into the life of the group, to become allied with it and yet able to stand aside from it and reflect on it objectively. This means that the worker must be able to decide what is his appropriate role in a particular group at a given time, as well as the roles in which the members cast him. His understanding of the group and of group process and his good relationship with the group must be used selectively to help members to express their ideas, to work out their objectives, to decide on immediate and long-term plans; in so doing they will also be helped to assume leadership and to take responsibility for activities. This may from time to time include making it easy for the group to express positive or negative feelings, though it is important that expression of negative feelings should be the first step in deciding what to do about a situation in which there has been a feeling of failure or hostility.

The demand on the group worker for self-awareness is quite as great as that on other social workers. This refers particularly to the temptation to use a leadership role for personal satisfaction, to become the bond which unites the group—with the result that it falls apart when the worker leaves. He also needs to be clear about the pressure of cultural values from the community within which the group exists and equally clear about his own values and assumptions and the extent to which these are culturally conditioned. Otherwise he may be blind to the different values to which the members of a group respond, because he takes for granted that these will (or even should) be the same as his own. This does not mean that he must lose all sense of values and condone destructive or negative behaviour or accept a state of anarchy. Like other social workers he must come to understand that unsocial attitudes and behaviour change only slowly, but they do so through a relationship which widens social horizons and makes possible an experience of greater freedom in personal and social affairs. This involves in relation to any given group a conscious analysis of social values and an ability to stand for the appropriate values for the group without becoming rigid and dominating.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 125.

It will of course be necessary to develop norms or criteria for evaluating the extent to which a group is functioning satisfactorily, in relation to what are reasonable expectations from the members.

"The group work process is operating at its best when the agency, the worker and the group (1) provide an environmental setting in which the full interplay of personalities upon one another is not only permitted but definitely encouraged; (2) help individuals to participate in the discussion of goals, the formulation of plans and the carrying out of program activities; (3) emphasize cooperative, joint activities where working together serves to integrate individual, group and agency in a mutually satisfying effort; (4) work for a system of group organization and social control which makes it possible for the individual to function as an individual but at the same time allows him to choose to act collectively with others in socially valid ways."⁹

The concept of "differential treatment" applies here as in other forms of social work in that the worker assumes different roles and uses different methods according to the different purposes for which groups exist. Any given group may have limited goals or long-range goals or a combination of both.

CASE RECORDS

All the principles of selection and use of case records which were outlined in regard to casework apply equally to group work teaching; that is to say, they should show the process of interaction between the worker and the group, the use of group work method and its effects. Unfortunately, outside North America good group work records are only just beginning to be produced by schools of social work and other agencies. The schools thus face a greater difficulty in teaching this social work method. It is likely that for some time the available records will be in the category of reasonably straightforward work with "normal" groups. There is, however, an urgent need for well recorded material which shows the processes of group or inter-group conflict and their resolution by group work methods. Because group work with disturbed people is proceeding apace in some countries, it is also very important that records should be available which show the group process and study, diagnosis and treatment in relation to it. As in casework, there are considerable dangers in starting with these difficult "treatment" groups before students have any basic training in work with "normal" groups. Some group case records should of course be drawn from industry if some student will subsequently work in industry. Records from administrative and other settings should also be used to illustrate group relations and process within an organizational framework.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

Community organization is even more of a newcomer than group work, so far as methodology is concerned. It is by no means universally

⁹ Harleigh B. Trecker, *op. cit.*, p. 120.

taught in schools of social work, but more and more interest is being shown in it. This interest has been stimulated by the success of community development, the beginnings of conceptualization, and a dawning awareness that the method is universally applicable. It is also becoming clearer that certain processes and methods in community organization in North America are largely similar to those in community development elsewhere.

An attempt was made in the chapter on Community Development and Social Work to identify some of the processes in community development and to equate these with social work practice. This aspect of methods of working with communities will therefore not be reiterated here, except as it is essential to do so for the sake of clarity. It is assumed that this material would form a substantial part of the framework of a course on work with communities.

Some knowledge about how to work with communities is necessary for all social workers, because they will, no matter what their function, be frequently working in inter-group situations or with committees. They will also inevitably require to use knowledge about social structure and social process. It is this knowledge about social process, interaction, tension and change which is translated into operational terms in community organization. It is also of course essential for the community worker to have knowledge about the behaviour and motivation of individuals, since he will be working with individuals and they in any event affect and are affected by the process of community life. All the same :

“It is conceivable that such understanding of the structure and dynamics of the community should be to the community organization worker what personality theory is to the caseworker.”¹⁰

Perhaps more than other social workers, the community organization worker is essentially concerned with large community issues, with social policy and social planning.

“The community organization worker deals with a whole community and its major subcultures, operates from a basis of sociocultural theory, deals with such accounts of need as people can express in meetings, seeks to relate diverse groups to one another.”¹¹

This means that, though knowledge of community process and the elements of how to use it are important for all students at the initial learning stage, yet in many countries it is only a few who will use this skill to any great degree, and that, too, at a later stage in their career. This seems to point to the need for more advanced courses in this subject for experienced social workers in which they would study the structure and administration of social agencies, the co-ordination of organizations through which they are brought together and the processes of policy-making, planning and implementation. Such courses might well be combined with further study of social process, social research, particularly in sociology, and community studies, and administration.

¹⁰ Grace Longwell Coyle, *Social Science in the Professional Education of Social Workers* (New York, Council on Social Work Education, 1958), p. 29.

¹¹ Murray Ross, *Community Organization: Theory and Principles* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1955), p. 61.

The following would be some of the main content of a methods course on community organization. It goes without saying that it would draw on relevant material from the background subjects and that generic social work knowledge about methods of work with individuals and groups is required as part of the study of community organization process and method. The same working methods of study (exploration and fact-finding), diagnosis (analysis) and treatment (action) are involved. The processes of planning are also an important element in community organization method. It is also necessary to use case studies within the framework of teaching, selected on the same basis as those for casework and group work courses. It is also assumed that students will be having concurrent or block field work placements in community organization.

PURPOSE, ASSUMPTIONS AND GOALS OF COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

The purpose of community organization is similar to that of other forms of social work, except that the focus is upon communities or group interaction rather than upon individuals or groups. Its aim is to help communities and groups in interaction, whether geographical or functional to become more aware of and better able to use their own resources to satisfy needs, wants or lacks of which they have become aware, and in so doing to become more confident, more socially responsible, better integrated as a community, less hostile to other groups and increasingly able to work co-operatively with others.

This inter-group activity is usually designed to bring about a better adjustment between given social needs and social resources. The assumption of community organization is that although people are resistant to change, yet they are prepared for change if motivated by dis-ease with a prevailing situation or by awareness of some better aspect of living which they might achieve. It is also assumed that solutions, services or benefits imposed upon people rather than desired and worked for by them meet with resistance or inertia and may be either rejected or passively accepted. It is a basic tenet of community organization that the efforts made by a community itself to achieve something it desires have considerable value in themselves in intensifying community knowledge, abilities, co-operation and cohesion. These values are often greater than the actual project because they strengthen community based upon relationships rather than on propinquity and organizational structure.

The philosophy of community organization is thus the same as for all social work; that is to say, acceptance of the community, of its right to decide what it wants rather than having the worker's views imposed upon it, belief in the capacity of people to find richer and more satisfying ways of living if they are helped to use the resources within themselves and their environment which are or could be available to them. Students are likely to experience as much difficulty in applying these philosophical concepts in practice as they do in casework or group work. Frequently it seems to them that they "know best" about the need for a new club in a particular neighbourhood, or the advantages of a new policy for an out-dated voluntary organization. They may also

feel frustrated by the damage being done to individuals while the community slowly struggles with its blindness and inertia. They will need very much help to appreciate the basic importance of furthering the community process itself. Here, as in casework and group work, they may be helped by study of and field work in comparatively simple situations with small, normally active and co-operative communities in which success follows quickly in relation to a clear and manageable problem.

COMMUNITY PROCESS AND COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

There is not of course "a community", but a range of interrelated groups either in direct contact with each other or united by deep ties of religion, politics, class, race and nationality. Some of these inter-related groups will have a complex legal and administrative structure. The focus of the students' study or action may be a geographic community, for example a village or a depressed or newly developing urban area or various social welfare groups (formal and informal) in a neighbourhood, or a functional group having some social welfare purpose. It is essential that in focusing on the community which is the subject of study and action, students should be helped to be as aware of all the other interrelated groups as they are of the family and social situation when working with a casework client.

The worker must become familiar with the community, whether a neighbourhood or a group of agencies, and be accepted by it before he attempts to engage in actual community organization. This will include knowledge of its history, its social structure, its groups and sub-groups, its power structure, its avowed and unavowed purposes and goals, its attitudes to change, its cultural patterns and values, its economic life: and the effect of all these on its purposes and functioning, its emotional satisfactions, motivation and desires.

This process of getting to know the community may take place on the initiative of the worker's agency or on the initiative of the community, whether local leaders or existing agencies, which desires help with a problem. In either event, the next stage will frequently be to raise questions, to bring different individuals and groups together as an initial step towards helping the community to discuss problems, and then to identify the problem on which it desires to take action. This may be comparatively simple — and as has been said, in this methods course like the others the case records used should move from the simple to the more complex — or it may be complex for varied reasons. Complexity arises because community leaders are diffusely aware of many problems and feel powerless to do much about them, or because the need the community wishes to meet turns out to have much bigger ramifications in relation to other problems than were at first suspected, or because there are varied conflicting power groups involved in any given way of meeting a need, or because the community is too lacking in cohesion or too apathetic or hostile to be able to get to work on or even be aware of problems or conscious that any effective action could be taken about them.

The degree of complexity is also of course related to the size of the community organization project and to the extent and range of or-

ganized groups already operating in the particular situation. Thus in a country where social welfare provision is highly developed and operated through a variety of public and voluntary agencies very considerable skill, experience and prestige may be required to bring together leading people in these various agencies and to know how to tackle problems of co-ordination of agencies, of planning a new project, of securing the passage of fresh legislation.

The task of the worker at this stage is to help the local community or particular agencies or groups to identify what they themselves feel to be a problem; that is to say, something which is causing discomfort, a lack or a social ill, and about which something could be done, partly by their own efforts. The "community", at this stage, those who should be brought together to discuss community needs, is likely to consist of certain local leaders, representatives of several sub-groups or agencies, or the committee of an organization. It is important that these leaders should really speak for and know the needs of the community they represent. Problems of communication arise at every point in community organization and never more than at the initial stage of bringing together the most appropriate people to identify problems for study and action. It is quite essential that the worker should try to bring together representatives of different groups and different points of view in relation to the problem, and should be able to engage them in exploring whether it is a problem about which action could be taken, and in deciding what should be done about it. The worker's own difficulties in not imposing solutions on others will certainly find their counterpart at this and other points in the conviction of local leaders or committee representatives that they know what people need and should provide it for them. The function of the worker is to help these community leaders to look at the tentatively identified problem, to come to their own decisions as to whether they want to take action, and to help them to see what next steps are required in studying the problem. "Although the community organization assignment is an inter-group assignment, it seems clear that the worker must possess skill in direct personal interaction with other individuals."¹²

Difficulties may be avoided at later stages if, as in casework and group work, study precedes diagnosis and planning. So far as possible, this study should be undertaken by the community itself, with the aid of the worker. It will involve collecting more detailed information about the nature and extent of the alleged problem or lack, about the ways it is already being handled, about existing and potential resources, about people's attitudes towards it (which are likely to be both mixed and conflicting), about other related problems and their possible repercussions on the one in question, and about any groups which might be adversely affected by a solution of this problem. The next, and separable, stage in the process is to get people's reactions to a proposed solution or solutions and their ideas of available resources, as well as to elicit any alternative views which they may have. It is extremely important that the worker should be fully aware at each step of the

¹² William C. Loving, Frank Sweets, Charles Ernst, *Community Organization for Citizen Participation in Urban Renewal* (Boston, The Housing Association of Metropolitan Boston, Inc., 1957), p. 190.

possible repercussions on people's cultural patterns and values, on the economic situation, and on inter-group relationships of any proposals or solutions which are being discussed. He must also be aware of the ways in which the reactions of individuals and groups will be influenced by their own preoccupations, by the effect of the proposal in altering a power structure and adversely affecting vested interests.

The actual conduct of these studies of a particular situation may range from quite simple community self-studies to elaborate community studies conducted by a research team. In either event students need to learn enough about relevant Social research method, especially social surveys, to know how to help the local community at the study phase. This aspect of a course on work with communities may be fruitfully related to the community studies undertaken by students at an early or final stage of field work in some schools of social work.

A rather different situation arises when the worker has been for some time in a community and is well aware that some individuals or groups in the community are alive to certain problems and anxious to be active in mobilizing resources for their solution. Here, as in all community organization, the question of timing is crucial. It is part of the worker's skill to be able to judge with reasonable accuracy when there would be sufficient support for some proposal sponsored by a few people. This also necessitates knowledge of the power structure of the community as well as the various cross-currents, identifications, antagonisms and power striving in sub-groups. The community organization worker is commonly described as a catalyst of social change. But it is important that he should avoid being either an explosive or a damp squib.

This means not only knowing the power structure but also the effect on it of any given action; for example, if a certain group or leading individual is involved, then it is essential also to involve certain other groups or individuals, as well as to consider the probable effects on further groups. This applies particularly to groups and individuals likely to be affected by the proposal, and therefore likely to respond with fears, jealousies and hostilities, unless it is possible to involve them in the activity. Sometimes a joint enterprise to gather accurate information about the alleged problem may lower hostility, but the real skill of the worker is called for when groups with diverse views and vested interests begin to discuss proposals for solution. It is of course quite essential that the worker himself should not be identified with one project against another or with one group or individual or point of view.

The community organization worker will always be operating within a complex flux of personal and social relations, wherein there will be fluid re-alignments as change at one point upsets a balance, as well as sometimes intensifying rigid stereotyped reactions and resistance to change, or even to rational enquiry. The process of community organization will thus always go forward within and be affected by this complex interaction of individuals and groups, with their many conscious and unconscious conflicting attitudes, aims and power striving. Students must also be helped by study of this process to see that to neglect to involve all the groups or individuals concerned in a project may result

in its being shipwrecked in the long run, or its purposes distorted. Moving at the community's pace is thus an essential element in the process. It is also essential to identify both the real and the institutional leaders and to work through and with both without causing disruption.

Problems of timing and tempo of movement are related to problems of communication. This latter initially concerns decisions about who should be told what, and when. Difficult issues of confidentiality and of prestige will be involved, yet a project may fail if communication is poor, and if the appropriate individuals and groups are not consulted at the right time. Bad communication includes telling people too little and also telling them so much and in such a form that they become confused or overwhelmed, and so lose interest. In a complex society, communication may also include the use of the Press, radio, films and other mass media. The purpose of communication is to involve people, to help them to feel identified with the project, and to maintain their interest. Incidentally to this it serves a purpose in giving accurate information and in educating the wider community about the issues involved. Communication and consultation are related in that, though some communication is information giving, for the most part it should be a two way process in which people's views and knowledge are sought, even though they are not part of the immediate community attempting to solve a pressing problem. In field work students will learn a good deal more about good and poor methods of communication in different agencies and how these actually operate.

Part of the community organization worker's function is to open and broaden channels of communication among groups and sub-groups in the community. For this and other reasons he must identify himself with all groups in the community rather than with certain groups to the exclusion of others. He must have a high degree of social mobility and his aim should be to accept and be accepted by all in order that he may understand the "world view" of each group. He should also be able to discover where differences are due to real blocking or to lack of a common meeting ground for exchange of views, and be able to bring different groups together. The use of actual case records for teaching guards against students assuming that to bring different groups together for discussion of common problems of itself produces sweetness and light. This is not necessarily so; indeed tensions and hostilities may mount as conflicting powerful winds blow across a discussion, or different value systems become entangled in the same set of facts. At every stage of exploring, planning for and carrying through a project, the community organization worker will require great skill to lessen tensions, to help different groups and individuals in the community to look at the facts of the situation and to draw valid inferences from the facts, to make realistic plans, rather than plans based on lack of confidence or false hopes, and to carry through projects without falling into dissenting sub-groups or losing interest.

After the study or exploration stage, though often interwoven with it, comes the diagnosis of the need. If community consciousness of a problem has led to a study in which factual material and points of view have been gathered about the problem and the possible resources for meeting it, then the next separable, though not necessarily separate, stage is diagnosis and planning. The results of the study may show

that the problem was wrongly identified, that the real community need is to deal with some other aspect of what seemed to be the problem, or it may show that the problem is bigger or smaller, more intractable or more capable of solution than was originally thought.

The study, then, provides the material on which the community through its leaders, a committee, various small study groups, or whatever means has been chosen, may make a diagnosis of the problem which will either confirm, change or modify their original views. The actual processes involved here may be slow and require careful handling by the community organization worker, since all the factors already identified are likely to be operative. Moreover, the first interest or willingness to work together may have waned, the second thoughts which follow the first enthusiasm will indicate the next phase of the in and out or progression and slump movement familiar in social work and in education. It is at this point that partializing the problem, suggesting a pioneer project or tackling some segment of it may prevent discouragement and breakdown. It is also at the stage of diagnosis and planning as a prelude to action that the worker needs to be able to help the community to assess its own actual and latent resources, and to give sound and accurate information about resources, financial and other, which might be available to help plan a project and carry it into effect.

If money-raising is involved, then the worker must be able to help the community to budget for the project and to explore and decide upon the various ways of interesting a relevant wider community in the project and of raising money for it by special occasions, applications to other sources and other money-raising efforts. Some of these will be culturally conditioned and students will need to know about effective ways to use them, since budgeting, finance and fund raising (in cash, services or kind) are part of the activities of a community organization worker.

In many community organization tasks in various cultures the worker may also be called upon to work with committees; this means that he must be familiar with committee procedure, preparation, minutes, follow up, and the relations of a particular committee to its parent body and related agencies. The community organization worker may also be required to use a wider range of administrative skills than other social workers as part of his job of facilitating good group and inter-group relationships for the purpose of identifying and meeting community welfare needs. He must therefore often work and be able to plan from within an administrative structure. It is important that he should be clear about his own proper role and function and that of his agency or he may increase rather than lessen tensions, confuse the relationship of groups to each other and find himself bogged down in intrigue rather than facilitating desirable community change and cohesion.

The diagnosis of the problem by the community should be followed by consideration of alternative plans of action, and decisions as to which one, or what combination and modifications, shall be accepted. It is by processes of joint discussion, whether informal or through structured institutions, that the community decides what it thinks should be done and is willing and able to do. Part of the worker's skill here lies in

helping the community to mobilize all the resources, both within itself and outside, which will be necessary to make these decisions and to put the plan into action. This makes it important that there should be some relation between the plan and the available resources. If it is too small and does not stretch the community and other interested groups who have been drawn in to participate, then it will be unlikely to mitigate or solve the problem itself, and many of those involved will feel it is not worth while and lose interest. If on the other hand it requires long term effort before any results are seen, or if it involves greater resources than are available, or if it diverts resources from other necessary concerns or if it involves controversial changes in existing agencies' functions, then the community may lose interest, become discouraged or fall into dissenting groups.

In the process of consideration of alternative plans, the worker can help to make these possibilities apparent. In these discussions different groups may support different alternatives, but if relations are basically good, if there is strong motivation to carry through the project, and if give and take are acceptable ways of working within the culture, then it may be possible after sufficient discussion of alternatives to arrive at an agreed plan which takes into account most of the known factors involved. The very processes of discussion and exploration may reveal fresh facets of the problem and result in a better plan of action than would otherwise have been possible. The role of the worker in lowering tensions and preventing deadlock is fulfilled by keeping the common problem in full view, by suggesting that further facts be obtained on matters of disagreement and by discussions with individual members to find means of moving forward.

At this point, the double focus of the community organization worker's activities becomes clear and must be well understood by students. His purpose is to help people to learn how to work together at solving community problems, to become better able to handle social situations rather than blind, inept or discouraged in face of them. But his purpose is also to help people to get things done, because they only become active in community affairs as they discover that needs can be met by working together. The worker must therefore have ability to bring groups and individuals together to solve a problem and also knowledge of the groups who might come together and of the various ways of solving the actual problem on which they have decided to engage. It is also an important part of his function to help different groups to co-ordinate existing resources in order that they may be used more effectively. Thus at the stage of deciding to implement a plan, the community organization worker may require quite a wide range of knowledge about how to get things done, or where to get the information and how to involve other necessary people in working with the community to implement its plan, whether it be buying a building or making a road or changing an agency constitution. Skill in administration and policy formation and implementation is thus essential to work with communities.

The community organization worker, like the caseworker and the group worker, must be aware of hostility and conflict and how to lower these.

“ . . . He asks himself such questions as: does this present a reaction to a threatening situation or process? Does it reflect deep-seated feeling of one group toward another? Does it relate to particular group values or orientation? Is this hostility merely the expression of the individual or is it representative of the group of which he is a member? What effect has it on the community organization process? Can it be handled by people in the community or is it likely to destroy the process in which we are engaged?”¹³

It is desirable at this and at other points in a methods course to use case records illustrating conflict, so that students may be helped to analyse this in relation to questions like the foregoing. In general, hostility is lowered by helping groups to engage in problem solving and by recognizing the status needs of individuals. The focus is not upon group therapy but rather upon joint activity in the common interest. There will certainly be different views, even real conflict, about the common interest, but it is part of the purpose of community organization to help communities to become more able to discuss these rationally in the light of knowledge and to work together to find solutions to pressing problems. Case studies of points in community organization process at which hostilities, rivalries, blockings, rigid defences, stereotypes and prejudices threaten the breakdown of the process, would help realistic discussion. Students must be able to distinguish between these barriers to co-operation and conflict which spring from genuine differences in point of view about what constitutes action for the common good.

It has been assumed up till now in this discussion that there is always a community conscious or readily able to become conscious of problems, and prepared to work at solving them, even though there may be class and other divisions in geographic communities and conflicts and rivalries between different functional agencies. This has proved to be true of most communities all over the world and in situations as different as the western city and the eastern village. There are, however, as was said in the chapter on Community Development and Social Work, some communities so sunk in apathy, so unaware of any alternative ways of living or of their own inner resources for growth and change that they are incapable of movement without prolonged help. These psychologically deprived and paralyzed groups are so far very varied causes, cultural, economic and personal, but they all require infinite patience on the part of the worker. Skill is needed, too, but the primary need is belief in the potentialities of those who have no awareness of their own potentialities. It may take a long time before such communities show any movement at all. Students are unlikely to be working with them at the learning stage, but in their studies of the forms of community life they need to be aware of the fact that it has been found possible to work with such communities and slowly to bring them to life and action.

There are also communities which are so frustrated and so full of violence, hostilities and tensions that they require a high degree of skill in the worker to lower these sufficiently for the community to

¹³ Murray Ross, *op. cit.*, p. 63.

work together on common interests. This work requires a marriage of dynamic psychology with community process applied through community organization methods which has as yet barely begun to take place. It is analogous to casework with clients whose problems lie primarily in themselves. In the present stage of knowledge and skill it is beyond the range of students, though they may be made aware that work is beginning to be done with such communities.

CHAPTER XII

THE CONTENT OF TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK: SOCIAL WORK THEORY AND METHOD—FIELD WORK

INTRODUCTORY

It is particularly difficult to distinguish the subject matter outlined in the preceding chapters on background and methods subjects from that which should be studied and applied in the field work. Ideally the whole teaching is one process with two aspects. In the school the primary emphasis is on knowledge and ways of thinking, and in the field work agency on development of skill and ways of doing through applying knowledge and understanding by the the orderly working methods learnt in the class-room discussions. It is important in saying this not to create a false dichotomy, when in fact some knowledge is more readily absorbed in the field work, and ways of thinking certainly become more vivid there; while at the same time in the school skill and operational methods will be discussed for application in practice. The changes of attitude necessary to enable students to give a professional service without favouritism or self-regard will also go forward both in school and agency.

It is because knowledge about people and the social welfare provision available or necessary to meet their need can be transmuted into skill only through actual practice that systematic field teaching is as essential in social work as in education or medicine. Most of the subject matter already discussed in the preceding chapters must be taught and used by students in concurrent or block field work placements as an indispensable part of the process of developing knowledge, understanding and the use of social work skill.

“When the focus of field teaching is on professional methodology, the teaching content can also be unified to a certain degree. Fact-finding (social study), diagnosis (social planning), and treatment (implementation) underlie casework, group work and community organization. Teaching a student how to explore a problem, how to understand it, and how to work on solutions provides the groundwork for teaching him these basic processes. Mastery of these processes equips the student to move into independent work.”¹

¹ Lucille Austin, “Basic Principles of Supervision”, *Techniques of Student and Staff Supervision* (New York, Family Service Association of America, 1953), p. 3.

It is primarily in the discussion of living people in their changing relationships as the students actually experience these that they can be helped to deepen their perception and refine their knowledge for direct use. It is through work in a community that they really become aware of the significance of community structure and the changing pattern of community life. They need the controlled tempo of the classroom and the library but if they are to become professional workers they must be helped to apply this knowledge and to put some of it to use with the aid of social work skills in the crises of real life, and in relation to the often unpredictable behaviour of actual people. Report writing, process recording and supervisory sessions to discuss people and their problems are means of slowing down this speed of real interviews with clients, or real group interactions, so that students may, with reflection and teaching, be better able to understand what was happening between them and those they seek to help, both on and below the surface. They should not do this as an intellectual exercise only but in order to deepen and use a professional relationship designed to help people in meeting their problems.

In supervision or field teaching, students are also being helped to use administrative practices and the social welfare services and other community resources appropriately. Thus this, as well as the school, is the place to teach about the actual operation of social agencies and the reactions of the local community to different kinds of need. It also provides many occasions, though they are not always sufficiently used, to teach about local social and economic conditions, about cultural and sub-cultural patterns and socially conditioned roles and attitudes and their effect on individual behaviour. Students should also be encouraged to study the social structure of the particular type of social institution in which they are working—hospital, court, and the like—and its place in society. In short, it is questionable whether anything is being taught in the school which is not capable of being picked up and reinforced in the field work as related to the direct experience there. Ideally the whole curriculum should be appropriately taught in the field work as well as in the classroom. It is important that students should be helped to develop the attitude of mind which leads them to make connexions between study and real life and to discuss them amongst themselves. It is indeed vital that this should be done if students are to become professional practitioners in the social field rather than good-natured amateurs, or technicians applying narrow skills by rule of thumb methods.

In this chapter various stages of practice will be discussed, and the organization necessary for the maximum integration of learning. It will be assumed all through that the field teaching will include much of the content outlined in previous chapters. It will also be necessary to discuss the relationship between the school and the training agencies, because the standard of field work is dependent upon the supervision and other facilities which they are able and willing to provide. Most of what is said will apply equally to work with individuals, groups or communities.

PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION

In pre-professional courses as well as integrated three- or four-year social work courses there is a place for a planned progression from ob-

servation and general work in social and other agencies to actual practice for the purpose of developing skill. Young students at the beginning stage in many schools of social work or in undergraduate university study of the social sciences have only a limited knowledge of people, often confined to their own immediate family, school, social group and place of work. They may sometimes have led sheltered lives before they enter a school of social work. At this stage they may know next to nothing about the social sciences and may be quite ignorant of the social services in operation.

“Field work objectives, viewed especially from the angle of building a foundation for professional field work might be defined as (1) helping the student to learn to adapt to new situations and to form good working relationships within those situations, and (2) giving the student useful and meaningful tasks to perform in the new situation with a view to testing his capacity to work reliably and responsibly as a member of a team. . . . Students can be helped to see situations from within, to understand the inevitability of gradualness in effecting social change, and to perceive the interaction of environmental and individual factors and the necessity for change to come from within rather than to be imposed from without.”²

Thus at the basic learning stage, raw students may need a period of such participant observation in order to relate their theoretical learning to experience of a much wider range of people, ways of living and social conditions than they have known hitherto. This experience is also necessary to train students to observe more deeply and systematically than they have done as lay people. For example, it may be desirable for individual students to work in a factory, to undertake regular observation of a group of children at play, to become hospital orderlies or to work in a children's institution. It is a useful practice in some schools to require students, either singly or in small groups, to spend some time in making and writing up a detailed study of an individual family or else of the social and economic life of a small community.

This observation may be coupled with or succeeded by a period of experience in a social agency where:

“In practical work the student experiences first hand, and so can question the social and psychological concepts he is being taught. He is learning both intellectually and emotionally to understand the philosophy and practice of the welfare services. The observations he must make require a sensitive perception of what is going on, and some appreciation of why it is happening in this way. . . . He cannot remain detached and speculative but must identify with the positive aims of social planning, and show genuine interest in knowing more about the people with whom he is working. . . . Observations at this point should be focused on the overall service as an institution, established by society to meet a particular social need, and on the influence of the changing economic and social conditions upon its programme. Second, the student should be helped to see the local administration of the service with all its ramifications as part of an overall plan,

² A. Katharine Lloyd, “Field Work as Part of Undergraduate Preparation for Professional Education”, *The Social Service Review*, March 1956, pp. 56-57.

often designed at the national level. Third, the student should see the way the service itself helps individuals, whether in children's homes, youth groups, or in services for the aged. . . . In these the student is primarily responsible for maintaining a friendly relationship but not for assuming responsibility for service."³

Although they should not be responsible for a social work service, students at this stage may engage in necessary tasks in the agency as well as learning to make friendly relationships and to observe fruitfully. Sometimes it may be possible to arrange for them to have some training to interview in connexion with a social survey or other piece of social research being undertaken by the school or by some other agency. This introduces them to social research and its methods as well as giving experience in interviewing a number of different people.

Day visits of observation are also useful, provided they bear some relation to current lecture courses and there is discussion beforehand about the nature and purpose of the agency and the focus of the visit, followed by further discussion and pooling of observations and impressions after the visit. The following quotation summarizes the values to be obtained from practical work at the early background knowledge stage of social work education:

" . . . The student of social science can, through his first-hand observation of and participation in practical work, make vivid and supplement what he is learning in his theoretical courses. He can see the overall economic, social and cultural influences on society's pattern of social services and on the individual's social adjustment. He can also see the need for particular services for the individual with specific social problems. Through this experience he has gained a knowledge of social work as well and can see it as a profession. Its two-fold function—of giving service to individuals with social problems and of taking responsibility for leadership in developing new needed resources—will have been demonstrated in many settings."⁴

One central aim of all education is to help students to realize that the discovery of truth partly depends on asking relevant questions, and that this is a matter of great difficulty, requiring imaginative consideration to perceive what may be the right questions to ask in order to understand the functioning, motivation, aims and purposes of an individual or a social institution. Participant observation is thus a means of stretching the students' imagination, adding to their knowledge and deepening their powers of analysis.

"Observation of what? Observation of how people are or may be related to their jobs. What is the job that the organization is trying to do? Is it understood by those who do it? Are they doing that job or something quite different? How effective is the organization in relation to its supposed or any other purpose? How effective is its relationship to the general social structure of which it is or may be a part? . . . It is much healthier for a student to return . . . asking the right, and often very disturbing, questions

³Eleanor Moore, "Practical Work as an Integral Part of Pre-professional Education", *Social Work* (London), July 1956, p. 197.

⁴*Ibid.*, p. 199.

about the nature of society, than it is for her to return with a sense of having mastered the techniques of interviewing, which she is only likely to begin to understand deeply after some years on the job".⁵

Presumably at this first stage students will have begun to study social structure and social welfare provision, possibly also some social history, economics, individual growth and development, sociology and anthropology. These studies must be related, if they are to be rounded and alive, in some such fruitful ways as those discussed above to direct observation and participation in various social settings. Students will need a good deal of help in this; for example, by being given a frame of reference for their observations and written assignments, both as individuals and in small groups. To be fruitful, these observation periods also require careful discussion between the school and the social agencies concerned in order to clarify the purposes to be achieved and the tasks which it is appropriate for students to perform. Ideally there should be regular meetings between schools and agencies to discuss the ground to be covered and what could appropriately be included in varying lengths of observation from a day visit to a block period of a month or more, or concurrent one- or two-day a week experience over a period of time. It is important that both schools and agencies should be clear about the distinction between this type of participant observation and actual field work designed to help students to develop skill in the practice of one or more social work methods.

"The solution would seem to be to teach systematic observation of people both in the class room and in field study but with nothing to do with social work practice as such. The actual methods by which this might be achieved would require careful study and experimentation over a period of time by the universities and a range of social agencies able to offer facilities for such observation, designed to increase the students' perception and to stretch their imaginative understanding of a wider variety of people than they had previously encountered".⁶

FIELD PRACTICE

This field work is unlike participant observation because it should be responsible practice under supervision (as a teaching process) for the purpose of developing skill in casework, group work or community organization. Though the aim is different from observation, young students who have had an effective period of participation in the work of social agencies will quickly assume professional responsibilities in regard to the purpose of the agency and its place in the social structure, its relation to other agencies, inter-staff and inter-agency communication, administrative procedures, and many other matters with which supervisors otherwise have to take up an undue

⁵ Roger Wilson, "Aims and Methods of a Department of Social Studies", *Social Work* (London), October 1949, p. 361.

⁶ Charlotte Towle, *Some Reflections on Social Work Education* (London, The Family Welfare Association, 1956), p. 55.

amount of time in the early weeks. Moreover the comparatively young and inexperienced student will have begun to come to terms with personal feelings about poverty, sickness, disability, deprivation, and "undeserving" people. In what follows, the content and planning of field work will be described in terms of what is desirable, as has been done for theoretical content, followed by a discussion of the problems which face schools and agencies in meeting these demands.

SUPERVISION OR FIELD TEACHING

The individual field teaching to which this name has been given is akin to a tutorial system in that supervisors are responsible, in partnership with the school, for the teaching and professional development of students. This teaching includes helping them to understand individual clients or groups in their situations and relationships through a process of study, diagnosis and treatment. This is based upon process (or semi-verbatim) recording of their cases which makes it possible to study the use of the interview or group process as a means to further the student's application of knowledge and development of skill. The third element consists in helping to learn appropriate administrative procedures, team work, co-operation with colleagues, and use of other social welfare provisions and community resources. This is not only intellectual learning, because the nature of this work with people necessitates the students' becoming more aware of themselves and their effect on others (see below, p. 268 ff.) Supervisors must lead but not push students to understand how their prejudices, unresolved conflicts and unmet emotional needs affect their work. At the same time it is necessary to support them and accept the anxiety and hostility sometimes engendered by this painful self-knowledge. Both supervisors and the agencies in which the students are working will also play a major part in furthering the process by which students become members of a profession with professional ways of working.

Supervisors must know the content of what is being taught at the school because much of the responsibility for helping students to apply this knowledge will rest on them. When students begin field practice with very little knowledge of human behaviour or social welfare provision, the supervisors will also have to do a good deal of teaching about the dynamics of personality and family and group relationships and social administration which will not yet have been reached in the classroom but which the students will need in order to understand and help those whom the agency exists to serve. They will also have to support, guide and encourage students as they learn to practise interviewing or work with groups as a means to foster and then use a relationship through which the individual or group is enabled to explore social and personal problems in order to arrive at ways of lessening them. Before becoming supervisors, social workers should ideally have had the best available professional training (whether in their own country or overseas) and several years' experience in social work in good agencies. This ideal is not easily reached, and various alternatives must be temporarily accepted. Some ways of increasing the available number of supervisors are discussed below (pp. 279-280).

It is desirable that supervisors should not only be well qualified and experienced social workers but also should enjoy and be stimulated by teaching. The task of supervision is both demanding and rewarding. Supervisors require regular opportunities for discussion in order to keep up to date with new knowledge, with professional developments and with good supervisory practices. The part which the schools play in this is discussed below on pp. 279-280.

Ideally, supervisors should see each student for one or two hours at least once a week, or more frequently in the early stages. These should be planned and uninterrupted sessions in which the students' recorded case material and other aspects of work with clients and in the agency and community are discussed. They should have access to their supervisor at other times when they need information or advice on a matter which must be dealt with before a supervisory session.

CHOICE OF FIELD WORK AGENCIES

The agencies participating in the teaching of field practice will necessarily come from a much narrower range than those used for participant observation. It is desirable that whenever possible, they should be agencies offering the best available standard of service and employing professionally qualified social workers, practising casework, group work or community organization. Social work may be the agency's primary function, as in a family casework agency or a secondary function as in a hospital. The agency should be within reach of the school, because concurrent class-room teaching and field work is very much easier to manage from the point of view of integration and school and agency relationships than block placements, (that is, full-time practice in agencies at a distance from the school.) In some situations the concurrent field work may become full-time at certain periods in the year when classroom teaching has ceased.

Block field work placements, particularly where these are at a distance from the school, are more difficult to organize for the reasons given above, but it may not be possible to give students certain types of experience, for example in rural work, or to find enough field work placements except in this way. It is questionable whether such placements can suitably be of shorter duration than concurrent placements if the major purpose is that the students should shoulder responsibility and see progress in their cases, as well as learning agency administration, and also because the span of time is an important element in learning. Where block placements are used, schools maintain a liaison by having the students back periodically for a day, a week, for a few days at set intervals, or for a period at the end; or alternatively or in addition by school staff visiting the agencies regularly to confer with supervisors, to read students' records and to discuss their progress with them. These regular visits by school staff to field work agencies are in any event essential for discussions with executives, supervisors and students by requiring them to send regular reports in which they may assess progress and ask for guidance—it is of course important that these reports should be commented upon fully and promptly. There are educational gains and losses in both concurrent and block field

work placements. Some schools use both methods at different points in the curriculum.

Social work cannot be taught at the professional standard which is capable of being reached at the present day unless agencies are willing to enter into a partnership of almost equal responsibility with the schools. What this involves will be expanded below (see p. 278). It is desirable that agencies taking students should be prepared to give one or more of their best qualified staff members sufficient time and other facilities to enable them to act as supervisors. Alternatively, agencies may provide facilities for a supervisor on the staff of the school to work with a student unit in the agency, or with social workers who undertake the day to day responsibility for the students. The guiding principle of student practice in agencies should be its educational value to the students, with protection for the welfare of those served by the agency in itself a vital component in students' education. The choice of a particular agency for a given student will depend on the student's needs and desires, his stage in training, the kind of supervision he needs, and a variety of other issues at any given time and place. The careful matching of student, supervisor and agency is an important element in successful learning.

It goes without saying that each student should be attached to one supervisor only during his time in the agency, that he should be given continuity of experience and real responsibility for his own cases, and that he should not be moved from one department to another, or given any type of short-term assignment which would interfere with his casework, group work or community responsibilities. So far as possible, he should be treated as a staff member in his relationship with clients and with other agencies. The aim is to give him the largest possible measure of responsibility and to support him in taking this, on the assumption that it is by shouldering responsibility that people learn to act responsibly.

It is also desirable whenever possible that several students should go to the same agency and that more than one should be allocated to each supervisor. This is because students learn more quickly by discussing and working together; while the supervisor much more quickly develops norms of expectation and is therefore better able to select cases, to adapt her teaching to the needs of different types of student, and to evaluate them more accurately than if she has only one student at a time.

NUMBER AND LENGTH OF FIELD WORK PLACEMENTS

It is the general practice for students to have more than one field work placement, so that their entire experience may not be confined to one agency under the teaching and evaluation of one supervisor. On the other hand, more than two placements would usually cut down the length of each to a degree which would not be desirable when the purpose is to develop skill in individual and group relations rather than to give brief experience in different types of agency. The length of each placement varies in different countries and circumstances. Probably five months would be regarded as the absolute minimum and nine months

the desirable minimum of concurrent field work, in order that students may carry through a few cases (individuals, groups, or work in a community) from the first stages and begin to develop skill in orderly and effective study, diagnosis, planning and treatment, as well as initial competence in administration and team work. The length of time in block placements must be sufficient to give students the same opportunities.

ORIENTATION

Students go to agencies not only to carry cases but also to learn how the agency operates, and to play their appropriate part in administration. There should be a planned orientation period of a few days when they first arrive so that they may be introduced to staff members, shown the facilities they are to use, told about the office routine, made aware of their place in the agency, and told as much as they can absorb at that point about its purposes, those it serves, and the way it operates. It is helpful to students to be given staff manuals, a current annual report or any other available written material which they may keep by them for reference.

In the initial period and throughout their time in field work they are being oriented:

(1) To the profession of social work, with its code of respect for people and of confidentiality. This includes an introduction to other professions with which they must learn to collaborate.

(2) To the agency—to its purposes and to the accepted ways of working within the agency, with clients and with other agencies. Students must be helped to understand the social problems the agency exists to meet, the ways in which it does this, the kind of people who use it, the services available both within the agency and through other community resources, and ways of procuring these in suitable cases. If possible, they should attend certain staff conferences, case conferences and inter-agency conferences.

(3) To supervision. In the initial orientation the purpose of supervision and the way it operates must be explained to students. They will need to know the responsibilities they will be expected to assume and how these will be shared with the supervisor. They must be made aware from the start that supervision is a shared learning experience in which their own active participation is essential if they are to benefit from it.

(4) To process recording. It is important to help students to see why this is a valuable learning device and that, although they will find it onerous and time-consuming in the beginning, they will grow more proficient as their memory for what was said or done in interviews or group discussions improves. In some agencies part of the orientation consists in beginning to teach students how to study a case record. This will start with the standardized information on the case front (if one is used) and the reasons why the information is important in the particular agency. When students first read records they react to them as stories rather than as diagnostic, planning and treatment records. In their orientation they may profitably be introduced to the same orderly method of study that they will be using in the methods teaching at the school. This may be done either on general agency cases or on the cases which are

actually to be assigned to each student. Where records do not exist, discussions of what is known about a case (individual, group or community) may be used for the same type of study. In either event students can profitably be asked to make notes for discussion with their supervisor on such questions as:

Who is the client?

What is he asking for?

What is the precipitating problem as he sees it and as the worker sees it?

What relevant information is available about him, his family constellation, his social situation, and his capacity to use help?

Is more information needed about him or his circumstances in order to determine the best way to help him within the purpose of the agency?

What help or treatment seems to be indicated and how could it be carried into effect?

Questions with a similar focus would be relevant in relation to work with groups of communities.

Whatever methods of orientation are used it is important that the students should be given their own cases and become active as quickly as possible.

PROCESS RECORDING

The purpose of process recording is, through recording all that was thought significant in the interview or group session, to show the process of development and use of the relationship between the worker and the client or group as a means to study, diagnosis and treatment. It must thus include observation of the client or group, together with the process of interaction in the interview or group session as expressed by what the worker said as well as the client or members of the group. Sometimes in the act of recalling and recording, students will see connexions which escaped them at the time, and sometimes they will see significant pointers as they re-read and study their records. These process records are read by the supervisor before the students' supervisory sessions and form the main basis both for these discussions and for assessing the student's progress. Students are familiarized in the class-room with the value of process records for study, diagnosis and treatment. In the earliest stages they will be sceptical about what can be validly inferred from them: in particular they may be resistant to some of the inferences drawn by their supervisors from their own case records. As they begin to be able to see below the surface, and as their general theoretical knowledge increases, they all become more able to use insight and to apply knowledge to the understanding of given responses by their own individual clients, or members of a group as they have recorded these.

In the earliest stages, students are apt to find process recording a heavy burden. They record unselectively everything they can remember but often omit their own part in an interview, or significant connexions which have escaped them. For example, they may fail to see that the client returns again and again to the same subject and that each time the student talks about something else. Gradually as their recordings are

used constructively in supervision, they become more appropriately selective, more quick to see connexions, and also able to remember more as they begin to be adept at making the interview or group session more purposive.

It is useful for students to record their own reflections and surmises at the end of each interview or group session. They sometimes also incorporate a summary of the discussion with their supervisor about their cases. This may not be possible if the process record forms part of the agency's official case record, as it does in some agencies. In many instances where the agency record is quite brief, the process record is used solely as a teaching device and is kept by the supervisor in a separate file. Students are much more likely to record freely in the early stages if they know that this material will be confidential to their supervisor. In any event, it is usual for students to summarize their case records periodically, showing the salient points in diagnosing the client and his need in relation to the total situation, the focus of the treatment, and the estimated degree of movement in the case. This applies also to work with groups and communities.

At later stages in their field practice, students may only process record what seem to them particularly significant parts of interviews with some clients, or groups sessions, though continuing to process record all interviews with other clients or groups. One of the reasons for process recording is that the actual interview moves too fast for students to appreciate what is going on below the surface, or to connect an earlier part of the interview with something that may come up much later. When, however, what they remember has been committed to paper, they can study it slowly, see what is coherent and understandable that they had missed, spot gaps in their information or blind spots in their responses, become more conscious of their own part in the process and plan for the next session in the light of the deeper understanding gained through the study of the previous ones. As they become more experienced they are able both to think and to recall in terms of larger wholes, so that they record only what is essential as they become more aware of what is irrelevant or what might be significant. In any event, once having gained some mastery of process recording over a period of time, they must also learn effective use of the summary recording likely to be required of them when they go into employment.

CASE SELECTION IN FIELD TEACHING

It is desirable that each student should carry a small case load and have full responsibility for it with the help and guidance of the supervisor, who will be responsible to the agency for efficient work performance, administratively and otherwise. The same principle holds good in group work and community organization. At first students' case loads should be very small. This is because they must learn both by doing and from doing. This means that in field practice everything is slowed down in order that students may learn in depth from their own process recording, from individual supervisory sessions, from careful preparation for interviews or group sessions, from increasing mastery of administrative procedures and the operation of appropriate legislation,

from reading, and from discussions with each other. Towards the end of their time when they are able to work much faster and with less detailed supervisory help, they should be able to carry a larger number of individual cases or groups or aspects of work with a community, depending on what these demand of them.

This learning in depth rests upon the assumption that the relevant knowledge, skill and working methods are transferable to different people in different situations in different agencies. Experience suggests that this assumption is valid if students have a reasonable range of cases whether in work with individuals, groups or communities, and if they are well taught in relation to them. This assumes that they have learnt an orderly working method within the general framework of study, diagnosis, planning and treatment and have seen sufficient of the varieties of human behaviour and relationships, particularly under stress or in motivating forward movement, to feel a certain familiarity with these when they are repeated in another setting. This repetition in different circumstances is one of the reasons for giving students two placements. The discovery that even when much seems so different there are certain essential similarities in people's behaviour and that social work methods are equally effective is deeply reassuring to students. This is also reinforced by the use of case records from various settings in the methods teaching. The methods and background courses at the school are indeed all the time reinforcing and extending the students' direct field study and action in relation to their limited case loads.

As was said earlier, it is important that orientation as such should not last too long and that students should quickly be given their own cases. These will begin to bring into focus general knowledge about the agency, its objectives and working methods and give students a sense of belonging as they begin to set to work. Students learn most readily about agency practices and community resources by having their imagination, knowledge, reliability and resourcefulness stimulated by real responsibility for their own cases. They should be neither spoon-fed nor left to sink or swim on their own. This holds true not only for new students but also for students who already have social work experience. It is particularly important in these early stages to help students to clarify their own function in the case and in relation to other professional workers who may be involved.

The selection of "good" first cases is by no means easy, even when the supervisor has a number from which to select, which often she has not. It is an essential principle of initial case selection that early cases should be such as to give students confidence in social work as a helping method and themselves as helpful persons. The principles used in the selection of first casework records for classroom teaching will therefore operate here too. Thus, for example, to the degree that this is possible, the first cases for work with individuals should be of reasonably normal people facing some stress situation with which they want and are willing to accept help and where some degree of help is available. They should be people whom the agency is able to serve and with whom it will be easy for students to make a helpful relationship but they and their situation should not make overwhelming emotional demands; for example, they should not be people facing irremediable loss, depriva-

tion, poverty or separation. Usually the initial interview or referral will already have been done, otherwise there will not be sufficient information for case selection. Even so, an apparently straightforward case may prove to be one of much greater complexity. In this event, the supervisor will need to give much more help and direction to the student, or else, in the interest of both the client and the student, to pass the case back to an experienced worker or take it herself. Even though individual cases may develop in unexpected ways, supervisors will make more orderly case assignment if they are familiar with the school's criteria and the records being used for teaching purposes at different points in the course. This also sharpens their awareness of the demands which students' cases are making on them and whether or not these demands are realistic at different stages. If an individual student is unexpectedly undergoing a baptism of fire, the supervisor should be able to give remedial help and to lower the student's feelings of failure by pointing out the excessive demands of the case. The foregoing are some of the reasons why it is necessary for supervisors to have a frame of reference, which will incidentally help them to assess more accurately the extent to which a difficulty may lie in the case rather than in the student. This framework for evolving norms is also of course necessary for student evolution.

As time goes on, students should be given intake interviews and cases requiring greater range and complexity of action and treatment. It is not, however, possible for the students' own cases to keep in step from the learning point of view with those studied in the class-room or with the teaching of the background subjects. For example, long before his studies at the school have dealt with the characteristics of aging, a student may have a case in which the client is an old person. This, as has been said in another context (p. 192), places an added responsibility for teaching on the supervisor. It is a primary reason why it is important for the supervisors to be in close touch with the school or on the staff of the school so that they know both what is being taught and when. It also illustrates the importance of their being conversant with professional literature so that they may be able to suggest to students appropriate reading in relation to particular cases. This may of course be in the field of sociology, law, administration or social economics as well as psychology and social work. It should also include any available research material directly relevant to the particular case, for example, a research project on family attitudes to old people in the particular community.

In the early stages students will need considerable help from their supervisors and in tutorial and class discussions at the school in making connexions between general knowledge or principles and particular cases. As time goes on a sign of progress will be an ability to make these connexions independently. For example, if in the early stages there is discussion with students about the ways in which each case has involved the use of social welfare provision, knowledge of behaviour and of social conditions and use of social work method, they will begin to think in this fashion for themselves as both their knowledge and their ability to apply it increase. Field teaching must continually be steered between the Scylla of narrow technical instruction and the Charybdis of diffuse speculation.

“Good social work practice maintains a healthy focus on the client, or the group, or the community. Good social work teaching also has such a focus.”⁷

At all stages of learning, students will need much help in speculating profitably about the purposes being fulfilled for the client by his behaviour or by membership in a group. In the early stages and with reasonably normal clients, this may well centre on people's feelings about misfortune and about asking for help, including the indications of mixed feelings. Soon it will also take into account people's behaviour to protect themselves or meet their needs, though they themselves may not necessarily be aware of its purpose. Later this speculation will centre on the effects of life experience on present behaviour and social adaptation or dysfunctioning. In courses of sufficient length and when skilled supervision is available, students may be helped to see further into unconscious motivation in their clients, at the same time as they study the personality strengths and pathology in the case, and the purposes which the individual's defences are serving, constructively or destructively, for himself and others. They will inevitably and necessarily come into contact with neurotic and even psychotic people. They must be helped to understand symptomatic behaviour, in order not to be caught in the whirlpool of hysterical behaviour or trapped in a delusional system. This knowledge will be necessary also as an indicator to the need for psychiatric diagnosis, as well as for working as social workers with mentally disturbed people.

Although in the earliest cases students should be able to be quickly and obviously helpful to their clients or to a group, this will not be possible in later cases. It is essential that before long students should recognize less obvious symptoms of hostility and begin to learn to accept overt hostility, recognizing that it is usually directed against them for what they symbolize rather than against them as individual persons. In some settings they must also learn how to attempt to make and sustain a relationship with clients who do not want help, who are hostile, aggressive, negative, apathetic or unconscious of any problem in themselves and who indeed may refuse to receive help. In many countries a large part of their activities may centre on trying to get urgently needed material or other help for their clients.

It is also essential that in the earlier stages students should begin to experience the helpfulness of social work methods where this is not directly obvious to them. Students only really begin to go forward when they have mastered the minimum of skill necessary to demonstrate to themselves on one of their own cases that the method “works”. This is especially true of students in those cultures where a good deal of embarrassment is felt at the strong expression of pain, anger, grief or hopelessness. In these circumstances they tend to push away the painful feelings and to deny that people have them or that they want to express them. When students have experienced the relief of the individual who has given vent to such feelings and had them understood, they begin to

⁷ Arthur C. Abrahamson, “Integration of Classroom and Field Work Instruction”, *Social Welfare and the Preservation of Human Values*, W. Dixon, ed. (Vancouver, J. M. Dent and Sons, 1957), p. 124.

be convinced that to help people to do this is not unwarranted intrusion into personal affairs if it is used professionally for therapeutic ends.

At a later stage they have to experience the limitations as well as the helpfulness of social work, or indeed any other intervention in damaged lives. This will be learnt primarily through diagnosis of the particular individual's, group's or community's ability to make use of social work help, which will include their actual or potential motivation to deal with their problems and their degree of insight about them. Even in the learning stage, students must begin to develop norms for selecting clients for social work help, as well as for the difficult assessment of what constitutes progress in relation to a particular person or group and their situation. As professional workers, they may often be asked or expected to accept clients who are not capable of responding to social work or with whom only limited objectives could be achieved. At the training stage they must at least be helped to accept that this is so and to develop criteria for selection, while recognizing that even limited improvement in a client is worth while and that a hopeless case from a remedial point of view is not tantamount to a hopeless person, group or community. This case selection is also necessary because in employment in most agencies students will be faced with over-large case loads which they must learn to manage selectively according to people's urgent needs and ability to take help and the availability or otherwise of such help at given times.

As has been said at various points in this study, it is beginning to be accepted that in all field work practice there should be teaching about group processes and relationships. In casework the individual is the focus of treatment but an understanding of relationship within the family group will usually be essential to understanding and helping the individual. He will also participate in various group relationships amongst his peers, in the local community and at work. A general understanding of such group relationships, their significance at different ages and more specific knowledge about the individual client's part in them may be an important element in helping him towards a better social adjustment. Students are also working in social agencies where it is essential to understand staff hierarchies, committees, agency and inter-agency relationships, as well as the social conventions which make it possible to work harmoniously with colleagues, other professions and the clerical staff. It is also essential for group and community workers to have a sound understanding of individual people and ability to work with them.

The selection and timing of cases according to the student's stage of development and ability to shoulder responsibility without being overwhelmed by it applies also to work with groups or communities of groups. In case selection, the first groups should be small, with not more than about twelve members. They should be stable groups so that over a period of time the student may experience the changing pattern of group relationships. Normal children are perhaps the easiest groups with which to begin, though in different parts of the world other group situations may be selected.

STUDENT GROUP DISCUSSIONS

It is wasteful to teach in individual sessions what could be taught equally well—or sometimes better—through group discussions between all the students in the agency or in that type of setting. This applies particularly to factual information which must be assimilated; to understanding of the kind of people for whom the agency exists, and the community in which it operates; to some aspects of social work method; and to general administrative procedures and methods of communication within the agency and outside. The student group will be able to take a good deal of responsibility for selecting topics and sometimes for gathering material for these sessions. These small group meetings in field work are an especially fruitful means of integrating theory and practice. They also economize supervisory time because, if there are several student units in the same setting, it is often possible for these to combine under the leadership of one supervisor. If school supervisors work in agencies, these group discussions may be held either at the agency or at the school.

NORMS OF STUDENT DEVELOPMENT

In all learning the teacher is faced with the problem of arriving at norms of what should be expected from different students at different stages in the given length of the teaching programme. This is particularly difficult in field work teaching where some learning is going on elsewhere and when, in any event, the development of skill is harder to assess than the assimilation of knowledge. It is only when supervisors have had a variety of students for both first and second placements that they begin to be at all clear about the variety of learning responses, what these are likely to signify, what is the most helpful approach to different types of student and what is normally or abnormally good or poor progress at different points in the total course.

The importance of developing norms of expectancy is a major reason for sending more than one student to a supervisor and for having regular group discussions for supervisors at the school. These norms must obviously be related to certain criteria of desirable achievement in field work. The following criteria are based upon those suggested in a widely used pamphlet issued by the Family Service Association of America:⁸

(1) Ability to form effective working relationships with people, whether with clients, supervisors and staff members or persons in the community.

(2) Ability to grasp and relate theory and practice; to appraise the causation of a problem; and to learn to use professional social work skills with increasing effectiveness.

(3) Self-awareness and discipline. There must be necessary development of self-awareness, even though this may be patchy in the earlier stages. The development of professional self-knowledge and self-

⁸ Rosemary Reynolds, *Evaluating the Field Work of Students* (New York, The Family Service Association of America, 1946), p. 1.

discipline is necessary in the interests of the clients and of co-operation with other professions.

(4) Ability to fit into an agency. This includes ability to work co-operatively with other staff members, to master and use administrative processes, and to understand and further the purposes of the agency.

These criteria must of course be considered in relation to each other and to what is discovered to be a reasonable expectation of student development in different areas of their work at different points in the course.

At the earliest stages, students' interviews will tend to consist of too direct or else hit-and-miss questions and answers, or of general social conversation without much relevance or focus. The discrepancy of aim between the student and the client will also be apparent in that the student has certain goals in view for the client while the client is only conscious of his problems or desires, which do not necessarily bear any relation to the student's well-intentioned aims. Students will thus tend to be over-anxious to be active in relation to their clients, to make up their minds for them, to give them advice, to make plans, to do things for them, to reassure them, to push away expressions of feeling; and to expect to see positive results from their well intentioned activity. Sometimes this does actually happen because of the students' deep concern and determination to procure help for the client. More often students see these efforts fail and then pass on to the further stage of learning to start where the client is, to proceed at the client's pace and with the focus on the problem which the client has. Most students in the beginning expect clients to feel about their problems as the students think they themselves would feel in similar circumstances. It is often some time before even the very good student develops sufficient rapport with the client to enter into problems as he experiences them. Most students are able intellectually to accept the concept of ambivalence fairly quickly but are much slower to do so in relation to actual behaviour, particularly when the client's ambivalent feelings lead him to go back on a plan to which he has previously agreed and with the success of which the student may have become emotionally identified. Ability to tolerate disappointment, to realize that it may have been due to the student's own faulty timing, and to be willing to learn from, rather than to be discouraged by, mistakes and failure are significant pointers in the development of the professional social worker. This applies equally to work with groups and communities.

Reference has already been made to the difficult stage through which students pass when their knowledge outstrips their skill (see p. 201). This is a normal stage of learning for all but the exceptional student. It would raise question only if it persisted for longer than normal in an individual student. Otherwise the supervisor's main concern is to help students to bear with it until skill and emotional growth have caught up with intellectual knowledge.

At the next stage, students are likely to go through an awkward period of self-consciousness when their lay assumptions that everything is very much as it appears on the surface is giving way before direct experience that this is not so. Most students also relate to themselves

this growing insight about people with the result that they begin to become more aware of their own part in the relationship and the effect they are having on others. They have also begun to be able to listen on several different levels, for the manifest and underlying meaning of what is said and also for significance of what is not said, and for the meaning of observable behaviour. This stage of emotional learning and of changing attitudes can be even more distressing to the student than that in which knowledge outstrips skill. It is the point at which a wider and deeper understanding of human behaviour and motivation are beginning to strike home. Sometimes students in this phase of field practice experience considerable loss of confidence, with attendant anxiety. They may feel that they are being seen through, that they are different people from their previous pictures of themselves, and that they will never make social workers because they and everyone else are so much more complex and inexplicable than they had supposed. Supervisors need real wisdom to support students through this stage without false reassurance and yet with help to go forward. When a given student fails to come to this point or else remains there overlong this would both raise queries about the student, provided he is well supervised. As students pass through this crucial stage, their work will become noticeably more focused, purposive and effective, even though clearly they have much yet to learn. Also they themselves will be very much more objective, selective and constructively self-critical about their work.

Process recording will also pass through identifiable stages with most students. It will at first be either unduly constricted or verbose. In any event it will be unselective with too much or too little put in and with little realization of what is relevant or likely to be significant. As time goes on it will become more appropriately selective, there will be more of the students' own part in the interview or group session, their interventions will be more closely related to the client's or group's preoccupations and there will be manifestly more focus and direction in their activities.

There will also be changes in the use which students make of supervision. At first this kind of teaching relationship may be strange to them; they may expect to be told exactly what to do, or else think that they are expected to discuss themselves and their reactions most of the time. Normal good students are reassured by the discovery that this is mainly a learning partnership which they are largely responsible for determining how to use most fruitfully at different stages. As time goes on they should be able to take a good deal of responsibility for administrative and other planning in relation to their cases. They should also become more able to take a share in deciding what it would be most profitable to discuss in supervision in relation to their work.

The student's own development of professional ethics and of proper use of confidentiality will be an indicator of agency practice and good supervision as well as of norms of student development. This also applies to administration. The development of good administrative practices, of ability to plan work, or reliability and accuracy, of punctuality in completing required returns, and of good co-operative working relationships are all essential to good social work. Any student who lags seriously behind in these respects should be in question, in the same

way as the student who puts smooth administration before helpfulness to clients.

Most students will show the same uneven progress in learning in the field work as in their theoretical studies (see patterns of learning, p. 292). With practically all students there will be a quite considerable set back on a change from one field work placement to another, with partial though temporary loss of skill and learning ability.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-UNDERSTANDING AND ACCEPTANCE OF OTHERS

Many of the clients who come to social agencies are people who in one way and another, for varied reasons, have failed to live up to socially accepted standards of behaviour or responsibility in the conduct of their lives and in their relationships with others, more particularly with their own families. Alternatively, they may be acting morally within the code prescribed by their own sub-culture but this may be different from the students' code and therefore the students may find it difficult to perceive, understand and respect an alien code.

Some students experience very considerable difficulty in moving beyond intellectual acceptance of "the client's right to be different", or in facing their own unacceptable feelings that he is inferior because he is asking for or needs help. Nearly all students have criteria of desirable ways of living in regard to personal relationships, work, expenditure, care of children, care of the home, dependency and so forth, as well as subscribing to moral codes which often seem to them self-validating. Often they only come by slow degrees to see that although their ways may be right for them, there are also other ways of living which can produce good results in terms of satisfactory human relationships; for example, that the children of a dirty and improvident mother may yet thrive because they are loved. One of the values of participant observation is that it may be a means of introducing students to normal people living in ways different from their own. This makes acceptance very much easier than when students see only the failures and the mis-fits, and thus draw a contrast between the success of their own cultural values and the weaknesses of those of others.

Acceptance of the client becomes more difficult still when he has failed to meet the demand of society on any standard, possibly his own included, and when, moreover, his behaviour may be causing irreparable harm to others. In such circumstances the age-old injunction to hate the sin and love the sinner becomes extremely difficult to apply in practice, with the result that moral indignation tends to become mixed in the students' minds with necessary social controls. At a further stage, when students know more about the causation of behaviour and are able to see some of the reasons why an individual behaves as he does, they may swing in the reverse direction, feeling that because some current behaviour and relationships have roots far back in the past, or else are irrational and uncontrollable, and because in any event people do not change through moral condemnation or exhortation, it is well nigh useless to try to improve human relations at all.

During both these stages, students need a great deal of help and support at the school, from their supervisors and in discussions amongst themselves if they are to come through to the third and professional social work attitude of good will and sincere desire for people's well-being, no matter what they are like. This "involves opening one's mind completely to the needs of another human being, a willingness to understand and accept the situation in which he finds himself as a reality, however confused or shocking this situation may be".⁹ Even when they begin to be able to do this, students may swing from over-identification with those who suffer in the situation to over-identification (on account of increased understanding) with the person who may be the central cause of suffering to himself and others. Students at this stage are also prone to feel that acceptance means having no ethical values or standards of their own, and this is a frightening experience.

One of the reasons why it is important to teach about group relationships both at the school and in the field work is because this helps students to develop the attitude of mind in which they are able to hold in perspective the needs of different people in a close constellation of relationships and also to see what is positive as well as what is destructive in the complexities of human relationships.

They also need help to clarify ethical issues and to begin to understand the difference between accepting people as human beings and condoning their often undesirable behaviour. This they begin to do by experiencing the ways in which this behaviour does in fact change, and at the same time recognizing that certain behaviour which is seriously harmful to the individual and others cannot be modified. In such circumstances it may be necessary to use protective community action.

This learning only happens effectively in regard to individual cases, both in the class-room and the field work. Thus in the case of a rejecting mother whose children are suffering in consequence of her neglect, students may experience through their own work with such mothers the ways in which it may be possible to help them to change. This will be done not by condemnation but by a relationship in which their worth and importance, their basic desire to be good mothers, is recognized through the worker's acceptance of them, through partializing their often overwhelming problems and beginning to substitute confidence and ability to do better for feelings of failure and social condemnation. Even in those cases where the client's ability to change is very limited, or where he may see no problems in his own behaviour, students learn in time that such change as is possible will be motivated only by the client's feeling that he is accepted for himself, liked and believed in, without illusion and without condemnation.

In trying to hold the balance true between the needs of individuals and the necessity for social controls, they will also be helped to come to terms with the use of authority and limit-setting in social work. They will also become more clear about ethical values in proportion as

⁹ F. M. Goldberg, "The Psychiatric Social Worker in the Community", *The British Journal of Psychiatry Social Work*, vol. IV, No. 2, 1957, p. 12.

they are able to achieve "a separation of judgements about values from feelings toward a person".¹⁰

Both in class-room teaching and in field work students will have insistently brought before them the social work attitude of acceptance and respect for the individual as a unique human being with an inherent right to live his life as fully as possible, in conformity with the similar rights of others. This will be related to the social work goal of furthering the individual's right to self-determination, or responsible exercise of choice in the conduct of his affairs. This may come about as a result of helping him to work out his own solutions and to make choices which give a margin of freedom from his own self-limitations and those of his circumstances. This in its turn is dependent upon helping to increase confidence, and thus free energy; so that he may exercise greater personal responsibility in the direction of his life.¹¹ These same principles apply of course to groups and communities.

Inevitably when this discussion takes place in relation to the students' attitudes to living individual people, a demand is made upon them for greater self-awareness and understanding of their own reactions than when they are discussing social philosophy in general terms.

"It is easy for the social worker to fool himself at this point. He may hold a theoretical conviction about the 'dignity of man' but change not one whit his sense of intellectual and moral superiority to the illiterate and impoverished people who claim his attention. Respect for the worth of each individual demands of the social worker a fundamental emotional acceptance of the person and his need, no matter who he may be and no matter what he may represent. This does not imply any abandonment of personal and social values on the part of the social worker. What it does mean is that the worker does not discriminate between persons in need of help because their moral and social attitudes differ from his own It is obvious that the worker's ability to help such people depends on a preparedness to examine his own prejudices. The social forces which produce and isolate 'undesirable' citizens also have their effect on the worker, who, if he is not honest enough to admit his own conditioned responses to such people, may withhold his help from those who need him most. To give acceptance to the need of a person as distinct from his personality and behaviour often requires in the worker a painful surrender of stubborn convictions formulated in childhood and reinforced by the restrictive code of an adult society. To the extent to which he can shed these social blinkers is the social worker able to give his help freely to all who need him."¹²

Bridging the gap between generalized ideals and their actual application is harder still for students brought up in cultural assumptions that

¹⁰ Florence Hollis, "Principles and Assumptions underlying Casework Practice", p. 2. Paper prepared for the United Nations Exchange Plan Seminar for Advanced Study of Social Casework, Leicester, England, 1954. (TAA/SOCWEL/136).

¹¹ The translation of this into practice will of course be very different in different cultures according to prevailing attitudes to individual, family and community responsibilities.

¹² A. S. Livingstone, *Social Work in Pakistan* (West Pakistan Council of Social Welfare, 1957), pp. 43-44.

"it is wrong to think about oneself" and that to recognize feelings in oneself or permit their expression by others is a sign of weakness. This will be even more difficult in those cultures where objective self-understanding of strengths and weaknesses is an alien concept. Such students may find some of the work at the school very disturbing because of the emotions it arouses, and yet feel it is not permissible to discuss this with the staff or even with fellow students. In a sense they are being given permission to do so when they are asked to examine their own attitudes in relation to their work with people. Instead of its being accepted that they like some kinds of people but not others, they will have to discover with whom they over-identify or whom they reject or towards whom they feel hostile or irritated, so that they may learn to recognize but to control these feelings in the interests of providing as good a service as possible to everyone who needs it.

"This self-awareness that the supervisor seeks to develop in the student is not 'therapy' nor 'casework' with the student. The focus is always kept on the student's reactions to a specific client or case situation and he is rarely encouraged to figure out with the supervisor what in his own background may make it more or less difficult for him to make use of certain ideas. At the same time he is gaining in self-awareness and learning to control his own reactions and feelings, as is appropriate in a professional setting. The purpose of this is not to encourage introspection for the student's own gratification, but to enable him to reach out with warmth and acceptance to a wide range of people different from himself without needing to judge them by his own personal standards and biases and without trying to satisfy his own personal needs through his clients."¹³

With any particular student this calls for quick perceptiveness on the part of the supervisor in order to be sensitive to points in the student's recorded material and in supervisory sessions at which patterns of over-identification, rejection, desire to make people dependent or other particular blind spots begin to show up.

Some students with a good deal of insight will quickly begin to make these connexions for themselves with a little help in doing so. Other students may need a good deal more stimulus and encouragement to recognize their attitudes about, for example, ill people, old people, delinquents, family relationships, villagers, members of another class, race or religion, the giving or withholding of material help. Thus inevitably at a time when they are feeling most incompetent and unsure of themselves in the face of considerable responsibilities and heavy emotional demands, they must also be ready to accept criticism of their own attitudes and to learn to become realistically self-critical. This will be particularly difficult for students brought up in family settings where there is extreme indulgence or in educational systems where criticism implies failure.

¹³ Rosemary Reynolds, "The Relation of Field Placement to Classroom Teaching", *Techniques of Student and Staff Supervision* (New York, Family Service Association of America, 1953), p. 57.

In either circumstance it will be a strange and disturbing experience to be expected to take responsibility for assessing and dealing with their own strengths and weaknesses.

"But as in the classroom workers in cases being studied are appraised with understanding rather than with condemnation and ridicule, the student gradually accepts criticism and self-appraisal as part of the game of becoming truly professional, and he is thus less fearful and less defensive of this in his field work. The point is that he first experienced criticism vicariously through identification with the workers in the cases in the classroom."¹⁴

Students sometimes also have a hard struggle to distinguish between personal friendship and a professional relationship. This may often include a feeling that they are belittling people if they do not accept a reciprocal friendship from them; or else that confidences have been made to them personally rather than as representatives of the agency and must not be recorded or shared even with their supervisor. Any other relationship seems to them cold and detached, particularly when warm and generous feelings of compassion and desire to help have been called forth by individual tragedy and need. It is perhaps through the relationship of the school staff and the supervisor's relationship to the students themselves that they begin to understand how it is possible for real personal concern, warmth and liking to exist apart from a reciprocal friendship in which each makes demands upon the other. This may be a different kind of relationship from any they have experienced before.

"It has come into being out of one person's need for help rather than out of the need of two people for each other. One person has the responsibility for understanding the needs of the other and for rendering the service indicated. One person has the responsibility for directing the relationship toward productive ends. Thus the student learns that the relationship has a different reciprocity than other relationships. The client may act the same here as elsewhere, that is, he may attempt to use the relationship to meet his needs, realistic and unrealistic. The worker, however, cannot be the same person, that is, use this relationship as he rightly uses other ones for some self-realization."¹⁵

In the early stages students do not think of themselves as playing any part in the success or failure of interviews, or group sessions except by trying to be receptive, helpful and friendly. It often comes as a shock to them to realize that their personality can have a significant impact on others and will always be a vital factor in the social work process. Thus, individual clients and groups hold up a series of mirrors to students in which they should begin to see more of their own personality, their strengths, weaknesses and prejudices, the effect they have on others, the emotions which they feel, the immediate or long-term causation of these, and the ways in which they themselves react in given situations. They will find in themselves conflicts about inde-

¹⁴ Charlotte Towle, *Some reflections on Social Work Education*, op. cit., p. 53.

¹⁵ Charlotte Towle, *The Learner in Education for the Professions* (University of Chicago, 1954), p. 267.

pendence and dependence; they will begin to recognize ambivalence in themselves as in others; they may discover unexpected strengths, as well as unknown or over-stressed weaknesses; and they should learn to accept themselves as they try to accept others, at the same time that they work for growth and change in themselves, as in others.

During the total course they may realize and may or may not be encouraged to discuss with the staff or fellow-students, the deeper causation of their desire to do social work and to be employed in particular settings. Sometimes these may make them unsuited to social work at all, as when someone whose conscious motivation for going into social work is a vocation to help the underdog proves to have deep-seated hostile urges to punish others. At other times dangers may be revealed which are very painful to the student but will not indicate unsuitability for social work if they are recognized and allowed for, and if they are counterbalanced by other advantages. For example, the woman student whose hunger for children drives her into child welfare may have punitive attitudes towards inadequate parents, but much intuitive understanding of children and herself in relation to them.

Sometimes students in the shock of discovering that some of their own deepest needs will be at least partially met in social work feel they are unsuitable and should turn elsewhere. They may need a good deal of help to see to what extent this is a need which they are driven to gratify at the expense of other people or whether it is a healthy satisfaction in their work without which they are unlikely to make good social workers. The acceptance of limitations in themselves as in others is a necessary corrective to trying to

“Wind ourselves too high
For mortal man beneath the sky”

or else becoming “little gods working minor miracles with people because we are above the human passions and the self-seeking which we study and try to control in others”.¹⁶

EVALUATION OF STUDENTS' FIELD WORK

It is primarily the responsibility of supervisors to undertake the evaluations and prepare the reports which will be used by the school to decide whether the student has reached the required standard in field work practice (see also p. 340 ff). This is a heavy responsibility, because clearly the evaluation must be made as objective as possible. It is largely for this reason that it is important for supervisors to develop norms of student performance. It is also helpful to them to be in regular touch with an experienced staff member at the school so that there may be full discussion over a period of time about the progress of any doubtful student.

Evaluation should be going on all the time at each supervisory session, in that the students' performance on cases is being discussed, their knowledge, skill and administrative competence tested and their

¹⁶ Philip van Praag, “Basic Concepts of Social Work”, *International Social Work*, January 1958, p. 6.

awareness of themselves constantly brought under review in relation to their capacity to help people. Thus students should be reasonably well aware of their own progress and increasingly able to assess this objectively for themselves. It is, however, desirable that there should be formal evaluation sessions towards the end of each placement, and sometimes midway through the placement, as part of the total process of preparing progress reports for the school.

The purpose of the evaluation session with students is a joint discussion of past progress in all aspects of practice, and planning for the future in the light of it. If it is made a joint enterprise between the supervisor and the students, with the students knowing the purpose of the evaluation and taking a good deal of responsibility for preparing for it, it can be very helpful to them in drawing their work together (including integration of theory and practice), consolidating what they have achieved and looking realistically at the ground still to be covered. Students also need criteria for this stock-taking and the supervisor should be able to explain to them what are the normal expectations of the school and the agency at this stage of the course. A date should be fixed for the evaluation session with each student. The students should have good notice of this so that they may have time to prepare for it by reading through their case records and trying to assess their individual progress in the light of the criteria of progress in different aspects of their work, and to decide the points where they feel it is important to concentrate on improvement. It is often helpful to them in doing this to know what ground is covered in the reports sent by the agency to the school (see below) and also that this will provide the framework for the evaluation session.

The supervisor should prepare for the evaluation session in much the same way as the students. She also should read through their case records, noting particularly the consistent strengths or blind spots which show up in them. She should further go through her notes of previous supervisory sessions, and be aware of the students' relationships with staff members and the standard of their administrative performance, including reliability, promptness and accuracy. In the same way that students must try to assess their feelings about clients, so the supervisor also must examine objectively her feelings about students, towards whom she may have over-protective feelings or with whom she may have experienced disappointment or irritation.

Both the supervisor and the student may be nervous at the beginning of an evaluation. This should be substantially allayed by beginning with factual material, and all through, so far as is possible, giving the student a clear statement of progress (or lack of progress) based on evidence. The aim in an evaluation session should be joint discussion rather than the supervisor making statements to a student who either passively accepts these or else enters into an argument with her. At the same time, the supervisor and the school must take final responsibility for the report itself. Many supervisors find it helpful to make notes beforehand of what they plan to say in the evaluation report to the school, to discuss these with students, to agree on modifications and to let them know that it will be made clear in the report if they do not agree with something which the supervisor proposes to say.

This shared responsibility is a means of fostering the students' professional growth, and of enabling them to experience for themselves some of the same attitudes which they are expected to cultivate in relation to clients. It also serves to lessen the embarrassment or hostility which students may naturally feel at receiving praise or criticism.

"The one element that makes it extremely difficult for the average student—or anyone for that matter—to accept just criticism of his work, is the sensing of a hostile attitude on the part of the supervisor. Unpleasant truths can be discussed with advantage to the student if he really knows that the supervisor likes him and is more than ready to work with him around that particular problem."¹⁷

The situation is fairly clear both for the school and the supervisor where students have weaknesses or blind spots of which they are able to become aware and which do not call their total performance in question. The situation is very much more difficult when they turn out to have some personality defect of which they are not aware, which may well not be capable of remedy and which makes them unsuitable for social work. It would be destructive to such students to try to make them conscious of their handicap, and yet it may be that they must be asked to discontinue the course or else not receive the qualifying award. Probably the best way to handle this is, as with more successful students, to discuss their actual performance in relation to their cases. For example, a student may have proved too immature and self-centred for social work; if so, this limited ability to help people and the student's desire that they should respond positively to him or her will show up in the actual work and the evidence of failure to reach the required standards can be demonstrated from this rather than by trying to discuss basic personality defects and thus deepening a sense of failure or injustice.

EVALUATION REPORTS

The school cannot easily assess reports unless comparable material is given in each and unless actual evidence is available for every statement made in the report. Therefore it is increasingly the practice for school staff and supervisors to work out together the outline or guide to be used in preparing evaluation reports. In addition to factual information like the length of time spent in the agency, the following is some of the material which it is usually desirable to include:

(1) A general picture of the student and ways in which his personality and past experience helped or hindered him in fitting into the agency.

(2) His grasp of the aims of the agency and the administrative and other means of meeting these, together with his ability to use the agency's resources to meet the people's needs in ways which also further good staff relationships.

(3) Knowledge of and capacity to use other social welfare services and community resources.

¹⁷ Rosemary Reynolds, *Evaluating the Field Work of Students*, op. cit., p. 51.

(4) The cases and other responsibilities carried by the student. The reasons for the selection of each and an assessment of what the student learned or failed to learn from them, including any especially good work or the reverse.

(5) Growth in ability to understand human motivation, particularly people under stress and including both pathology and strengths. Ability to understand people both in themselves and in their family group, and community relationships; and (where appropriate) to work with individuals, groups and communities.

(6) The progress made by the student in the systematic use of relationship and in study diagnosis planning and treatment.

(7) The student's ability to use supervision as a means of learning to integrate theory and practice, and to become increasingly aware of himself in relation to his work.

(8) The student's progress in process recording, letter- and report-writing and other administrative requirements of the agency.

(9) Special points to be noted in the next field work placement or the student's first job.

Practice varies as to whether the supervisor heads the report with a pass or fail mark, or grades the student on a three, five or seven point scale, or leaves it to the school to grade after comparing reports with each other. Practice also varies in regard to showing students the actual report. Some supervisors not only discuss their notes for the report with the students but also show them the final version. Other supervisors tell them what is in it but do not show it to them, feeling that to see shortcomings in writing may be more damaging than to discuss them verbally. For a further discussion of evaluation reports from another angle see p. 340 ff.

THE RELATION BETWEEN THE SCHOOL AND THE SUPERVISORS

As has been said the teaching of students is a single process, some of which takes place in the school and some in the field work. This means that the teaching function of the supervisors is as important as that of those who teach in the school. This points to supervisors being regarded as part of the total teaching staff, whether they are employed by the school or by social agencies.

Supervisors carry heavy responsibilities for students and their cases. This means that they need a good deal of support and practical help, not only from their own agencies but also from the school staff. It is desirable that one or more staff members at the school who are themselves experienced social workers should have specific responsibility for relations with the agencies and supervisors. This will include initial decisions each year about the students who are to go to each agency, and discussions with the supervisors about them. The appropriate staff members should also visit the supervisors regularly in order to discuss students' work and read selected case records. This support will be particularly necessary for inexperienced supervisors, or in relation to students with difficulties in learning or elsewhere.

SUPERVISORS' MEETINGS AT THE SCHOOL

Supervision is not something static and formalized but a continually changing, living relationship in which students are going through an intensive educational experience. This means that supervisors are continually challenged by the demands of this teaching method. There is always more to be learned so far as general principles and individual situations are concerned, in all the aspects of supervision outlined above. This includes case selection, the content of supervisory sessions with individual students and the student group, to ensure progressive learning periodic and final evaluation reports, the development of norms of performance at different stages in the course, and means of relating theory to practice, as well as supporting students through the necessary development of greater self-awareness. The most effective way to lessen supervisors' anxieties, to support them in remaining keen and alert, and to help them to become more skilled is through regular and frequent meetings at the school, in which there is a planned programme of study, worked out by the group, and with opportunities to discuss supervisory case records presented by members, as well as particular problems of individual students. Not only do supervisors learn the content of supervision in this way but they are also helped in a very difficult task by the strong group identification and group support which develops in these meetings. The meetings also promote a double loyalty to the employing agency and to the school, so that supervisors are able to act as interpreters from the one to the other through seeing the needs and point of view of both.

These meetings are also a means to acquaint supervisors with the content of the school's programme in detail and to keep them up to date about the stage at which particular subject matter will be taught, so that they may be able to relate this appropriately to field practice. Changes in courses should also be planned in consultation with them and they should be encouraged to make suggestions for revision, based on their experience with students. This makes it desirable that in the regular supervisors' meetings at the school there should be planned discussion of the content of teaching and the apportionment of this as between the school and the field work agencies. It will not, of course, be possible to hold frequent meetings when agencies are at a distance from the school. Even so, there should be periodic meetings, visits by the school staff and regular correspondence. Supervisors may need help in working out the actual content of their teaching. They should also be given appropriate reading matter about supervision.

SUPERVISORS' MANUALS

It has often been found helpful for the school staff, the supervisors and the agencies' executives jointly to produce a manual stating the aims and methods of supervision, the respective responsibilities of the school and the agencies in the total programme of professional education, and the agreed policies and procedures for achieving these objectives. A joint enterprise of this kind helps to clarify thought about aims and the means to their most effective realization, and it also underlines the partnership

in a common enterprise between the school, the agency and members of the social work profession. Frequently each will tend to think the other's demands are unreasonable. This is often a healthy sign because if steady advance is to be made in a newly developing profession it is essential that both the schools and the agencies should each make higher and higher demands on the other in relation to the content and methods of professional education. This is particularly essential in field work, which is still too largely at an apprentice level, whereas the long-term aim should be for it to approximate in its own sphere to the standards and the standing of that in teaching hospitals. Joint preparation and periodic revision of a manual focuses attention not only on the essential content of supervision but also on the practical means to its realization. This can be both stimulating and educational to the school staff as well as to agencies and supervisors.

SOME PRACTICAL PROBLEMS WHICH FACE SCHOOLS AND AGENCIES IN PROVIDING ADEQUATE SUPERVISION

In the foregoing pages desirable standards in field teaching have been outlined. Probably schools and agencies face greater difficulties in reaching (or going beyond) these standards than in making improvements in any other part of the curriculum.

There are five essential considerations in planning field work to develop social work skills :

- (i) The degree of maturity of the students ;
- (ii) The relevance of the teaching given at the school ;
- (iii) The availability of supervisors who are themselves skilled social workers and who have an aptitude for teaching ;
- (iv) The willingness of social agencies to make staff time, accommodation and other facilities available for students ;
- (v) The willingness of the school to take its share in this partnership.

Something has already been said about the problems of professional education for young students. The position is not quite so serious if they have already taken a related pre-professional course, or if the professional course occupies three-four years and if they can spend time initially in the kind of participant observation already outlined. Because of the difficulties of securing adequate teaching and field work, there is a tendency in many schools to qualify students after participant observation only (that is, without going on to develop skill in the practice of social work) ; or to try to develop such skill at a superficial level in students who are too young and inexperienced to be able to shoulder the responsibilities inherent in social work practice ; or else to send students to agencies which give a fairly long apprenticeship type of training in agency methods and procedures. All these practices are dangerous in that although they appear to be cheap in comparison with the alternative of actual field teaching related to the class-room work, in fact, they are expensive in the long run because several years of effort only result in producing workers who are better educated but little more skilled than the untrained. As has already been said, employing agencies themselves often complain that this is so. But in many situations both schools, agen-

cies and government authorities seem insufficiently aware that it is not possible to train professional social workers except by means of planned and integrated theory and practice. This means that the facilities for practical teaching in the field must be designed in relation to their educational content and their effectiveness in developing skill based upon knowledge, and that there must be good teaching of methodology and the social behavioural sciences in the schools.

Much has already been said about the importance of relevant teaching in the school but this will be largely wasted unless it is also reinforced by application of this teaching in the practical work in social agencies in the ways already suggested in this chapter.

PROBLEMS OF TRAINING SUPERVISORS

This field teaching can be effectively given only by supervisors who are themselves competent social workers, who in their own work use appropriate knowledge, study, diagnosis and treatment, and interviewing and other skills characteristic of social work method. Ideally this means that they themselves should have had a full professional education for social work and several years' successful practice in good social agencies before becoming supervisors. Even so, they will need a good deal of help from the school in learning how and what to teach and in discovering the difference as well as the similarity between education and social work. In actual fact in most countries not only is there an acute shortage of supervisors so qualified, but they may even be almost wholly lacking because there has been no professional training in the country based upon this kind of field teaching.

Remarkable advances have been made in recent years in producing supervisors, particularly in casework, under conditions of much difficulty. This has been done largely through the use of United Nations and other scholarships and fellowships for study abroad, by the use of United Nations consultants and Fulbright fellows, by seminars, particularly under the United Nations European Exchange Plan, and by the efforts of the schools themselves, as well as those of associations of professional social workers and of national and international voluntary agencies. The result is that the development of a body of qualified supervisors has gone forward at an almost spectacular rate in some countries during the last decade, though more slowly in others. Unfortunately, even in conditions of extreme scarcity, some social workers qualified to supervise are not permitted to do so by their employing agencies; while others are hindered in making their maximum contribution by lack of time, lack of co-operation by other staff members, and lack of recognition that various facilities, for instance privacy for uninterrupted sessions with students, are essential.

In some circumstances schools must often use social workers who are not professionally qualified to supervise but who have the right personalities, who wish to improve their own practice and who are willing to be supervised themselves in relation to their work with students. Undoubtedly one of the best ways to meet this problem is to run an in-service training course of at least a year's duration for a picked group

of social workers, with the emphasis on social work skill and method, related to the understanding of human motivation. Where resources permit, it is also desirable to supervise individual workers on one or two cases so that they may have first hand experience of supervision and its helpfulness.

Where such teaching is given, it is essential to have full co-operation from employing agencies so that if full-time leave of absence is impossible, caseloads shall be lightened and the participants be given time to practise process recording, to undertake necessary reading and to arrive at the classes without undue rush and strain. The best way of ensuring this is through their being released for one whole day or more each week rather than for part of a day. Knowledge and skill in student supervision can be taught only when supervisors have already acquired the necessary minimum skill in social work. This means that sessions on supervision as such will usually be introduced at a later stage in the course.

An alternative or supplementary system to the one discussed above is for the school to employ several qualified supervisors and to make these available to suitable agencies. Such supervisors may either be directly engaged on student supervision or else they may supervise agency staff in their supervision of students. They may also do a good deal of the teaching and the relating of theory to practice outlined in this chapter. This method secures a closer integration between school and field work teaching and makes the best use of scarce resources. It implies, however, that the school has the necessary funds to make these appointments. Administrative and other difficulties may also arise, and the student unit be cut off from the main work of the agency if the school supervisor is not also an actual staff member in the agency, unless functions and responsibilities have been quite clearly worked out jointly by the school and the agency, and the agency staff is willing to co-operate.

DEMANDS MADE ON THE AGENCY BY STUDENTS' FIELD WORK

The ability and willingness of agencies to afford the necessary facilities for student teaching in practice, is in some ways the most difficult issue of all. As has been said earlier in this Survey (pp. 39-60) it is still quite generally assumed that social workers are persons who administer services with a tinge of welfare rather than that they themselves provide a service through the exercise of professional skill in casework, group work or community organization. This means that the practical training of students is still regarded by many agencies as a training in administrative procedures and the way the agency services are run, rather than in the development of professional skill and the understanding of the people who come to the agency.

Many agencies are also reluctant to take students because of their effect on staff and on those whom the agency exists to serve and because they take both time and space when each of these is in short supply. Alternatively students may be welcomed because they are regarded as cheap labour, they may be used to do a variety of odd jobs, clerical work, escort duties, routine visiting and so forth; or they may be treated as holiday relief staff. It need hardly be said that it is almost pure waste

of the students' time to be used in these ways at the professional learning stage. All the same, it must also be recognized that agencies are being asked to make a considerable contribution to the advancement of professional social work in their country if they make available a large part of the time of their best qualified workers to supervise students—who after they qualify will not necessarily work in that particular agency. Moreover it is essential to provide a reasonable minimum of office accommodation for students, including facilities for interviewing in privacy; and to give them access to clerical services and telephones if these would be available to staff members in carrying out their work. Students must learn to write letters in the accepted style to other agencies, to construct clear reports for committee or other purposes and to represent the agency in transactions with other agencies or members of other professions in relation to their clients. If they are to exercise a considerable measure of responsibility under supervision then they should be allowed the use of all resources which would be available to staff members. This also means that, wherever possible, they should be given facilities for learning to dictate their letters and reports.

In some agencies, and usually their number increases as professional education for social work becomes recognized, it is regarded as a distinction to be asked to train students. Agency staffs also often enjoy and are stimulated by students as they learn from them and become more analytical about their own work. It is likely that, as schools of social work begin to make high demands in terms of good agency practice and well-qualified social work supervisors before they will consider sending students to an agency, the agencies in turn will by degrees respond to the challenge of being asked to receive students on such terms. They themselves will begin to realize that the terms are exacting because of the vital part which properly planned field practice plays in professional education. The most effective incentive of all is to employ students who have been trained in this way and to discover their greater competence in their work.

THE NEED FOR NATIONAL PLANNING IN RELATION TO FIELD WORK

In most countries lack of good field work supervision is an even greater bottleneck than shortage of school staff and other teachers, funds and teaching materials. Often there are only piecemeal *ad hoc* efforts by schools, agencies and professional associations to remedy the situation. Yet if trained social workers are an essential element in the effective implementation of social welfare programmes, then there would seem to be a strong case for government review of the total situation in each country. This might include working out plans over a period of several years for the training of supervisors and for their most effective use and deployment so that their number would steadily increase each year as the number of professionally qualified social workers increased. It is only by some such planned use of very scarce field teachers at key points that the total supply can be increased at a rate which will bear any relation to demand, and thus the level of professional education be raised in the country concerned. In addition, there is an equally urgent need of supervisors for in-service training and staff supervision.

TEMPORARY ALTERNATIVES TO FULL SUPERVISION FOR NON-PROFESSIONAL WORKERS AND OTHERS

In view of the fact that social workers must be and are being trained not by the dozen but by the hundred all over the world, it would be unrealistic to suggest that all social worker students at all levels could be given the full training in practice discussed in this chapter. It is, however, suggested that it is essential to give some students in every country the best possible education in theory and practice, in order that their contribution may help to raise the whole level of social work.

So far as other students are concerned, including auxiliary workers, every attempt should be made to continue to raise the level of their field practice. This may involve longer periods in one agency; more careful allocation of cases suited to the students' level of understanding and skill; more opportunities for regular individual and group discussions either in the agency or at the school; more help in understanding the people who come to the agency and the ways in which their needs can be met by the use of simple social work insight and methods. This may mean that more of the school's teaching should be directly related to the experience which the students are having in their field work. The close contact between the school and the agency is just as important where students are being trained at a lower professional level in circumstances where full supervision cannot be provided for them at the time. The effect of improved teaching about human behaviour and social work is always to increase the demand for better supervision as the primary means of learning how to use this knowledge in practice.

PART IV

**EDUCATIONAL METHOD IN TRAINING FOR
SOCIAL WORK**

CHAPTER XIII
CURRICULUM PLANNING

INTRODUCTORY

If the purpose of training for social work at any level is to prepare students for effective performance, it is clearly essential to analyse and test the actual results of training with a view to continuous improvement in the school curriculum.

In this and the succeeding chapter some parts of the educational framework will be studied in greater detail; other parts have already been analysed further in the chapters on the content of training for social work. It must be emphasized, however, that only general guides can be given, not specific answers for given situations. A study of this nature can only offer general principles for selective use according to the needs of particular schools, and as a stimulus to further thought, discussion and experimentation.

Because needs and resources differ widely no attempt has been made to arrange material under course headings, or even to any great extent under the traditional divisions of subject matter. In addition to discussing the background and professional knowledge which may be said to constitute the core of social work education, it is also necessary to consider what are the objectives of this type of professional education, the ways in which these aims may be achieved, and some of the educational principles and teaching methods involved. The over-all aim of a school of social work may be expressed succinctly as "the promotion and encouragement of the study and practice of the art and science"¹ of social work. What the study and practice of the art and science of social work involves has been debated with increasing energy and interest in many countries during the last decade, both nationally and internationally. This has led to cross-fertilization of ideas and practice through study visits and it has been the subject of a number of seminars and published and unpublished studies under United Nations and other auspices.

The result of increasing knowledge in the social and behavioural sciences, on the one hand, and expanded social welfare services on the other, has been twofold. It has increased the demand for competent administrators, teachers and practitioners: it has also heightened the demand on educators and students through extending and deepening the range of knowledge and skill required for effective practice. The integrative task in social work education has thus assumed such dimensions that schools and social agencies find it increasingly difficult to convey essential knowledge in a manner which will assure the development of sufficient skill.

¹ Charter of the Royal College of Surgeons of England, 1800.

This situation has led to a new concern with educational method. While knowledge itself is still of primary importance, it is also recognized that to master it depends in large part on method. In a changing social scene this in turn makes necessary a continuous evaluation of the curriculum in order to select essential subject matter and to arrange educational experiences which will foster the progressive integration of learning. Yet it is only as this occurs that a learning process will be set in operation which will provide the nucleus for growth in subsequent practice and for the slow attainment of wisdom.

Precise analysis can of course only be undertaken in relation to specific programmes and having regard to the total situation in the country concerned. All that can be attempted in the following pages is to try to draw together a few concepts about curriculum planning and educational method which seem to be generally valid, however difficult it may be to apply them in any given circumstances.

An analysis of existing programmes of social work education indicates a widespread lack of due balance between different parts of the curriculum and as between theory and practice. Some programmes are mainly theoretical with only short periods of practice not integrated with theory and with little attempt to develop skill.

"Where this is true the students emerge from their practical training with a general view of the type of work that is performed by this or that social agency, but little, if any, experience in discharging the responsibilities that such work entails. . . . The data suggest indeed that a considerable number of schools have not as yet worked out supervisory and teaching methods calculated to transform practical training from a loosely controlled apprenticeship arrangement into a closely supervised learning experience."²

In other programmes there is considerable theoretical teaching followed by a substantial amount of practical experience but with very little teaching of methodology, either at the school or in the field work. The United Nations meeting of experts in social work training held at Munich in August, 1956 came to the conclusion that:

"It is possible to identify three broad categories of social work education in schools of social work at the present time:

"(a) Training to perform a specific job within the framework of a social service;

"(b) University education in the social sciences with a comparatively small amount of practical experience connected with it;

"(c) Professional education composed of knowledge about man in society, together with the development of social work skills through an integrated course of theory and practice.

"There is throughout the world as a whole a general swing toward the third form of social work education. This may involve broadening the first type of course and adding professional education onto the second one. This change is related to a new awareness that social work is becoming a profession and that social workers are able to perform

² *Training for Social Work: An International Survey* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1950. IV. 2), pp. 97-98.

a social function which is different from simply providing services and giving advice. They now have certain skills at their command which enable them to practice in any setting and which differentiate them from other professions. Students must therefore receive a training in which they acquire the appropriate knowledge and skills in order to enable them to exercise this social function."³

THE NATURE OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Professional education is the education of adults and should be conducted as such. It should not be a training in memorizing facts in order to carry out routine procedures but rather an educational process which aims to make the student heir to a relevant body of principles and theory, to be applied in practice. There is a particular kind of internal consistency about professional education as distinct from general education at the undergraduate level. In the latter, within broad limits, the student may well be encouraged (if the examination system allows) to roam as fancy dictates, to discover that which delights him and to pursue it for its own sake. If, however, he decides to choose a professional career he has in so doing made a decision which imposes its own limitations. His energies, his responsibility to succeed, his intelligence and his creative imagination must now be concentrated upon related aspects of a limited range of subject matter. There are those who, failing to distinguish between general and professional education, think that this careful selection of subject matter renders social work education a technical training, whereas "it is in the nature of a profession that it bases its techniques of operation upon principles rather than on rule-of-thumb procedures or simple routine skills."⁴ These principles are composed of knowledge and certain philosophical assumptions, and are to be used with flexibility and discernment. "The really useful training yields a comprehension of a few general principles with a thorough grounding in the way they apply to a variety of concrete details."⁵

The means by which this education is to be given must be considered in relation to the purposes of professional education. These are to impart a coherent body of knowledge with its related skill; to produce practitioners who will operate on common assumptions at a dependable level of competence (and at a higher level than could be achieved through experience alone or apprenticeship training); to help the novice to acquire attitudes consistent with the ethics of the profession; and "to set in operation a learning process that will endure and wax strong throughout the years of professional activity."⁶

Charlotte Towle in *The Learner in Education for the Professions* distinguishes the following aims of professional education:

³ "Report of United Nations Meeting of Experts in Social Work Training, Munich, 28 July-1 August 1956," p. 5. (Working Paper No. 3).

⁴ Charlotte Towle, *The Learner in Education for the Professions* (University of Chicago Press, 1954), p. 5.

⁵ A. N. Whitehead, *The Aims of Education and other Essays* (London, Williams and Norgate, 1929), p. 41.

⁶ Charlotte Towle, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

“(1) To develop in students the capacity to think critically and analytically and to synthesize and to generalize.

“(2) To impart ‘essential knowledge for use... to develop feelings and attitudes that will make it possible for students to feel and act appropriately.’

“(3) To develop a capacity for establishing and sustaining purposeful working relationships. In social work this capacity is essential in helping relationships, in collaborative work relationships and in group-to-group relationships. . . . The development of this aptitude will depend on the extent to which this inclination is used throughout the educational process and on the nature of the relationships which the students experience in professional training. It will depend also . . . on the student’s intellectual capacity and his potentials for change in feeling . . .

“(4) . . . Helping . . . prospective practitioners develop social consciousness and social conscience . . . the promotion of the maximum welfare of the individuals whom the profession has been established to serve. . . . To think critically and objectively in order to effect change rather than to be blindly worshipful of traditional thinking and doing is the persistent aim of professional education.”⁷

THE NECESSITY TO RELATE THEORY AND PRACTICE

Experience shows that it is possible to give students a sound professional training only by means of full-time courses of substantial duration in which theory and practice are intimately and fruitfully related to each other to form an educational whole. It would be idle to pretend that this kind of integration of theory and practice is easy to accomplish in training for social work; indeed the countries most advanced in this respect are some of the most critical of the dichotomy between theory and practice and the comparatively small advance so far made in linking the one to the other, whether in systematic theoretical content or in educational method. To attempt this kind of interrelation is expensive in money and staff time: it also necessitates a close working partnership between schools of social work and agencies taking students for practical work, a partnership in which the agency is willing to recognize its responsibility to contribute to professional education, with all that this entails. Furthermore it involves thorough and careful analysis of what constitutes the total body of relevant knowledge; how this may be most fruitfully apportioned as between teaching in the school and teaching in the field; what is the most effective timing in the study and integration of different subjects; how certain subjects are to be reinforced from different aspects and how integration between the parts is to be achieved so that they may form a coherent whole.

This is an extremely difficult aspect of curriculum construction, even so far as the background subjects are concerned, and apart from the integration of these with the methods subjects and of both with the prac-

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 6 *et seq.*

tical work.⁸ This difficulty is partly inherent in the nature of the subject matter, that is to say, the study of man in society which forms the basis of social work knowledge and skill:

"the consideration of mind and body as separate entities is now generally understood as a heuristic device. . . . The same problem, however, is to be found in an equally convenient but still misleading separation of the individual and environment or, more specifically, the individual and society. . . . It is necessary to remind ourselves . . . that man is by nature a social animal. Man without fellow man is nothing—or at best a corpse."⁹

To teach students in this holistic way about man as a social being and at the same time to help them to develop some skill in applying this knowledge to bring about better social functioning through the methods of social work is a major undertaking. It postulates the existence of a group of well-qualified full- or part-time teachers and supervisors with real enthusiasm for student education, able to work together as a team and given the kind of leadership that will stimulate them to seek continually for ways to improve the presentation of subject matter, to re-evaluate the achievements of the course in relation to appropriate aims, and above all to avoid a static complacency. This would not be easy in any event; it is all the more difficult:

"because there is in every country an acute shortage of professionally qualified and experienced directors of schools of social work, together with teachers and supervisors. This often results in the direction and an undue proportion of the teaching being in the hands of persons with other academic qualifications who do not necessarily understand the nature of social work nor the requirements of professional education for it."¹⁰

THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS IN TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK

A. N. Whitehead has conceived the educational process as proceeding from imaginative consideration through analysis, synthesis and generalization back to imaginative reconsideration.¹¹ A social work student without the capacity for analysis and synthesis in relation to the problems of practice is not likely to be suitable for the profession. Students are, however, all too apt to make pronouncements on isolated facts unrelated to principles, or else to fly from imagination to generalization, leaving out the essential intermediate steps, which can only come from having the knowledge with which to think. It is therefore essential to plan the total course so that ample opportunity will be given for the use of every part of this process. If students have had their pre-professional

⁸ For a more detailed discussion of what is involved see, for example, Mildred Sikkema, "Some Aspects of Curriculum Building", *The Social Service Review* (Chicago), March 1958, pp. 11-23.

⁹ Martin Loeb, "The Anatomy, Physiology and Psychology of Human Society", *Mental Health and the World Community* (World Federation for Mental Health, 1954), p. 63.

¹⁰ "Report of United Nations Meeting of Experts in Social Work Training, Munich..." op. cit., p. 7.

¹¹ A. N. Whitehead, *The Aims of Education and Other Essays*, op. cit.

education outside a school of social work and have studied the same subjects in different ways, or even not all studied the same subjects, it will be difficult in designing the curriculum to know how soundly based is the knowledge with which they come and to what extent they know how to work and to think for themselves.

A great merit of opportunities for discussion, of early field experience and of concurrent theory and practice, is that students quickly realize the need for accurate knowledge and for precise analysis in relation to their experience and their cases (a 'case' is a situation not a person or group). Where there is good integration of theory and practice they will learn in time to synthesize this field experience with their theoretical studies and to proceed from the particular to the general, so that principles are grounded in fact and facts become significant in the light of principles. Imaginative reconsideration will apply not only to a growing body of knowledge but also be expressed through pondering upon the personalities and responses of their clients and the meaning to them of their life experiences, and also to the student of his own life experience.

The knowledge itself is divisible into that which has been subjected to scientific proof, that which is based on fruitful working hypotheses but is apparently valid for use in practice, and that which is based on experience but has not yet been systematized. Students need to be aware of these differences, particularly as they relate to practice.

"It is the responsibility of a professional school to determine the kinds of learning, both in content and in method, which will develop the student's potentialities for the fulfilment of its educational aims. There is widespread concern in professional education with the fundamental dichotomy—the biologic versus the social—the unification of which may well be a means to the attainment of the aims of professional education. This introduces the problem of determining what knowledge and what educational process will effect essential personality change in the learner. It has been noted by professional educators that the data of the natural sciences are more readily submitted to scientific discipline than are social data. Many students can think clearly, use evidence carefully, and not conclude impulsively or distort findings when dealing with biological data. There is greater complexity in the systematic study of the interaction of man with his human environment and of the individual personality and social trends resulting from this interaction than is involved in the study of the physical world, of man as an isolate, or of his parts per se. There is greater complexity in learning to conduct a differential helping process oriented to psychological understanding and social insight than in learning skills for the manipulation of the human organism and its physical environment. A basic factor in the complexity of the science of human relations, clearly, is that the learner brings to the consideration of social-psychological problems a greater degree of emotionally determined thinking."¹²

This is so because:

"There are events and episodes in almost every paragraph of a lecture on personality development in which the student may recog-

¹² Charlotte Towle, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

nize some moments of his early life. The outstanding feature of this situation is that the student of personality development learns in a profoundly different sense from one who learns about physics, accountancy, or French."¹³

To students who come with no background in these subjects, the very idea that man and society can be studied systematically in dynamic terms and the results of this study put to use is quite new and sometimes disturbing. The essential discovery for them to make is, then, that this knowledge exists and can be transmitted and applied in practice. Observation exercises help them to make these connexions.

Charlotte Towle points out in *The Learner in Education for the Professions* the small use so far made of educational psychology in social work education but also at the same time the problem of studying the effects of an educational process which "is inextricably related to the life experience of the learner, so that it is impossible to isolate the learning experience for study of its effects."¹⁴ All individuals are in any event continuously learning from experience as a condition of survival.

"Individual growth and social change require continuous learning. Learning is the process whereby the organism continually adapts to the changing self and to the changing environment and strives for the mastery of both."¹⁵

It is achievement of goals which provides the motivation to learn, and in so doing to change, this necessity for change arouses anxiety, which, however, is a drive towards attainment and only becomes stultifying if the demand for change exceeds the individual's capacity to meet it, otherwise a change which leads to growth is satisfying because it enlarges the personality.

"In the educational situation, as in learning throughout life, we want the individual's integrative capacity to exceed the task by a margin which provides something more than an anxious struggle for the equilibrium necessary for psychological survival. Thus the outcome of learning hinges on three sets of factors which are continuously interrelated—the individual's motivation, his capacity and the opportunity afforded him to attain his aims."¹⁶

Students who come to schools of social work are adults who have chosen this career, often in preference to others which are financially more rewarding and have a higher social status. Therefore as a group they have an effective motivation to learn and to succeed, so that the desire to integrate learning and to grow through so doing is usually strong. The opportunity given them to do so will depend upon the total educational programme, including the field work, and the whole group and inter-group relationships which they experience in the course. Often students fail or else only reach a standard well below their potentialities because of inadequate teaching, overloaded curricula, insufficient oppor-

¹³ Paul Halmos, "Teaching Personality Development", *The Times Educational Supplement* (London), 10 January 1958.

¹⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 6.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 24.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 86.

tunity for discussion and poor integration between theory and practice. This may happen because the subject matter is not well presented so that it leaves the students indifferent, confused or frustrated, that is to say, in one way or another they reject what is offered to them because they are unable to use it productively. It may sometimes even arise because the teacher is indifferent or authoritarian.

Students may also be poor learners because they are given insufficient or ill-assorted or inappropriate knowledge which has little relevance to a coherent educational plan. This, it should be noted, is quite different from leaving individual students free to explore a particular aspect of a major subject further, provided this is related to the whole. If the capacity of students to integrate and use knowledge is a relationship between themselves and the whole educational situation, then the way in which knowledge is selected and presented is of crucial importance to social work education.

PATTERNS OF LEARNING

It is also vital to take account of the ways in which students learn. Even though material may be presented in a smooth progression this is not the way in which most students actually assimilate it. The rhythm of learning is for many a series of plateaux, with slumps and upward movements. An intuitive understanding of this is vividly expressed in the French motto *il faut reculer pour mieux sauter*. This "in and out movement", even apparently at times a backward movement, such as occurs on a change of field work placement, accounts for the well-known mid-way slump. A learning curve for a course of any given length would indeed usually follow this pattern, with progress in the beginning, apparent regression or slump around the mid-point and further progress with much deeper assimilation of the material towards the end. In a soundly structured and presented curriculum the students will leave eager for more learning and feeling they have foundations on which to build, though they are conscious of how little they know, rather than glad to be finished because they are satiated with ill digested material.

Within these general learning rhythms, it is noticeable that individual students have widely different learning patterns as regards optimum spells of work, the time span in which they move ahead or go backwards, the ways in which they either accept or else critically appraise new material and the methods by which they set about their work. It is often possible to lower student anxieties and to help individual students to work more productively by making them familiar with these differences in learning patterns and by helping them to discover and to make the best use of their own individual patterns. Individual students may also need a good deal of support and realistic reassurance in the periods when their work seems to be in a slump phase and they feel they are learning nothing while others seem to forge ahead. The teacher will also need to be able to distinguish between digestion, indigestion, indifference and anxiety, regression and rejection, as well as between realistic anxiety and anxiety which stems from arousing basic conflicts.

THE TEMPO OF LEARNING

In social work education, students are being stretched not only intellectually but also emotionally. This demand for rapid growth in two aspects of personality functioning can be painful to flabby intellectual muscles and to emotions channeled in well-defined grooves out of which they are now being required to flow more widely and freely. Often this is interpreted by students as attempts to "break them down". The tempo of learning requires careful regulation because if it is pressed too far and fast so that defences are heightened, there will be mounting frustration, hostility and inability to learn because of the resultant anxiety. Alternatively the defences will be lowered too rapidly, with varied consequences resulting in failure to learn or in withdrawal from the course.

This rapid intellectual and emotional stretching, combined, too, with much deeper insight into themselves and other people, often leads students to feel that their old ideals, their assumptions about people and their ways of making life meaningful have been shattered. This may be an inevitable stage in growth for some students, it is certainly one which requires understanding and wise handling by the staff and strong support from the student group, much of it indirect. If they receive this support, students can be expected to come through to a realization that they now see people in greater depth, with more perceptiveness, in less stereotyped patterns of "good" and "bad", and perhaps with greater wisdom and compassion. They may also realize that their philosophy of life still holds good but that they have disentangled it from certain cultural and personal prejudices and limited interpretations with which they had confused it. It is through these changes that they come to possess the attitudes appropriate to the demands of social work. As Charlotte Towle puts it:

"The content of the educational experiences may serve to activate only partially resolved conflicts and to shake and sometimes even to break down ego defenses which had seemingly been well entrenched. Consequently, one finds that learning involves the growth process. It may demand personality change at rapid tempo. This means that there will be a larger element of disorganization than in many other learning situations, and hence reorganization—that is, reintegration—will occur at a slower tempo."¹⁷

THE IMPORTANCE OF GROUP RELATIONS AS AN ELEMENT IN LEARNING

In the last analysis, some aims of a school of social work are not different from social work itself, though the students are there for education, not therapy, and the methods used are educational. The school is concerned with the personal problems of students only as far as these directly affect their work. The aim of the educational process is the intellectual, emotional and social growth of the students.

This means that teaching must be designed as a coherent pattern, bearing all these aspects of growth in view and intended to familiarize the

¹⁷ Charlotte Towle, *op. cit.* p. 107.

students with what is known, what surmised and what not known in the relevant subjects; to help them to relate one subject to another and to think in conceptual terms; to respect the need for accuracy and the importance of evidence on which to base conclusions. In addition, the creative imagination must play upon knowledge if it is to become significant and if it is to be applied with understanding. It is important that teachers and supervisors should have the same attitudes of respect for personality and helpfulness towards students that these in their turn are expected to develop towards clients.

“The student as he spins his connecting links between classroom, field and administration, needs to find the school an organic whole. There must be sufficient unity that he will get a sense of one relationship in which the specific relationships may vary in importance from time to time. The sense of oneness may be obtained to the extent that the student in all his contacts with faculty in school and field consistently finds the same attitudes towards people. This implies the same philosophy of social work, a like set of values, and fundamental purposes and aims that are identical. Differences in thinking as to specific means to ends are usable, provided that they do not violate the philosophy or defeat the aims. This implies a universal attempt to understand the student as a learner, in order to give help in the mastery of learning. It is essential that social work educators be conscious of the fact that their teaching, helping, administering relationship with the student determines in large measure his very capacity to work purposefully with people in ways appropriate to the profession, whether in the helping relationship between worker and client, in collaborative work with colleagues, or in his relationship with subordinates and persons in authority within the agency hierarchy.”¹⁸

Changes in attitudes, thinking and acting will come about if there is intellectual stimulus and warm friendliness, so that the total atmosphere fosters intellectual, emotional and social growth. Reference will be made later to various learning devices and to actual curriculum content: the factor of primary importance, however, is that these should be used deliberately to create a total educational setting in which such growth and change of attitudes becomes possible. The speed and degree to which this can happen will depend on the interrelation between the students' personality, age and previous education, the content and arrangement of the teaching in the school's programme, and the less definable but basically important creative group and individual relationships which inspire both staff and students with a sense that they are engaged upon an educational adventure in pursuit of a goal. It is by nurturing experiences and relationships rather than by being spoon-fed or left to sink or swim that students absorb learning. This nurture is the more necessary in view of the heavy emotional demands that some subject matter and well-supervised field work make upon them. It is also essential in order to help students to strengthen their own inner resources if they are to meet the discouragement and failure which they will inevitably experience, as well as satisfaction and rewards in their work.

¹⁸ *Ibid*, pp. 140-141.

Anxiety will certainly run high at times, and, unless there is strong and positive group support, some individuals may find the strain too great, or the whole group may become apathetic or openly resentful. It requires much awareness in the staff to distinguish between useful safety valves for otherwise free-floating anxiety and signs that the current pressures are too great either for individuals or the group as a whole to absorb and deal with. Provided the total structure is sound, these group tensions can be kept in bounds and group membership become an enriching experience if much opportunity is given for discussion (both formal and informal) in relation to the total impact of this educational experience. Ideally, the school staff, supervisors and students should feel that they are all involved together in a joint educational enterprise in which roles are different but goals are the same. These professional students are adults with a big stake in learning: they should, therefore, be involved in the actual conduct of the course, they should be consulted about relevant matters, and their proposals for change should be seriously considered.

Because a school of social work aims to qualify its students for entry to a profession, its evaluation of progress must be related to total personality potentials and achievement. This in itself produces anxieties in students far beyond those of more narrowly educational programmes. This is so because to fail, or even to be in doubt, is in some sense to be judged and found wanting as a person. It is only tolerable to the students to risk this if the staff is manifestly "for" them, if they accept them as persons even though they must be clear-sighted about their strengths and weaknesses as potential social workers. It is a natural tendency of students to underrate (or occasionally to overrate) their own performance in relation to that of others and to be uncertain about their progress; some anxiety can thus be allayed by regularly assessing with individual students, both at the school and in the field, the progress they are making and where their strengths and weaknesses lie. This sense of essential oneness between staff and students will only exist if there is a strong positive group feeling amongst the staff (including the supervisors), amongst the students, and between each in relation to the other. In such a situation real communication becomes possible. This not only promotes intellectual and emotional growth but also makes it easy for differences in points of view to be expressed; and it permits individual and group tensions to come to the surface, rather than leading either to disruption or sterile conformity. It will take longer to create this kind of relationship between staff and students when the latter have been educated in an authoritarian school system and when they have experienced rigid discipline or passive indulgence in their homes. It will, however, be important under any circumstances to pay attention to the mental as well as the physical health of students.

There is undoubtedly a connexion, as yet little understood, between a strong positive group experience and the speed of an individual student's development. The group itself must be within a reasonably homogeneous range of intellectual ability and emotional maturity; otherwise, a few will lag behind or be far ahead, and thus tend to become isolated from the main group. The stimulating effect of strong group life increases capacity to learn, to analyse, synthesize and draw out principles,

as well as to gain realistic confidence in social work practice. This capacity is also enhanced by a well-designed educational programme of integrated theory and practice directed to clear objectives, which gives the students the sense that both they and the school know what they are doing and why, and that it will be able to help them to become professional workers.

EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES IN TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK

The over-all objective of social work training is to educate students who will be able to work with people in ways which result in improved social functioning. Because social workers are employed in social agencies the people concerned will not only be individuals, groups or communities, but also colleagues at all levels. This means that it is also necessary to begin to develop ability to work as a member of a team, to understand and use administrative procedures; to be aware of the agency's structure and function and its place in the social pattern. This comprehensive objective involves for its achievement at any level that students should have the necessary knowledge about people and about administration which they require in order to develop skill, and that they should also develop attitudes towards people and self-awareness consistent with the application of the knowledge and the effective practice of the skill. This is most likely to happen effectively if there is a relation of mutual trust between them and those who teach them in the school and the agencies.

The achievement of objectives requires that no knowledge should be dead or irrelevant but rather that it should be presented both in the school and in the field work in such a way that students are able to use it for further learning and for application in practice. A primary purpose is that they should begin to discover how to set about learning and speculating about social work issues. The ways in which they are encouraged to learn should also help them to pose problems accurately, to know how to set about gathering relevant information in regard to these and to assess the degree to which this provides an answer or solution to the problem.

“ . . . It has been shown that information can be acquired at the same time that students are learning to solve problems. Hence, it is more economical to set up learning situations in which the information obtained is part of a total process of problem solving than it is to set up special learning experiences just to memorize information. Furthermore, when information is acquired as a part of problem solving, the use of the information and the reasons for obtaining it are clear. This is less likely to result in rote memorization.”¹⁹

The actual methods used may include discussions in the class-room and field work, use of literature, essay-, report- and letter-writing; observation and analysis of the results through process recording in field work; interviewing or participation in group activities; presentation of class papers or of cases in case conferences; and planning and carrying

¹⁹ Ralph Tyler, *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 47.

through a small research project. These are various means by which the students in time assimilate the working methods appropriate to good social work practice. They are discussed in more detail in the following chapter. It is of course important that these working methods and the attitudes to knowledge and its use should be basically the same in the school and the field work even though at certain points they necessarily differ, and that they should be planned to reinforce each other. Otherwise the students will be torn in two directions, learning will be seriously impeded and conflicting loyalties will retard the development of the desired attitudes.

Acquiring skill of course necessitates sufficient opportunity to exercise it under competent guidance, moving by degrees from the simpler to the more complex as ability increases. This also implies knowing what are attainable goals, whether at a particular moment of time in a given situation or throughout professional training, and how it is also necessary to evaluate the outcome of the methods used to reach them. Sufficient and coherently planned opportunities must therefore be provided for the students to develop the desired competence in the exercise of defined social work skills.

This points to close integration between the teaching at the school and the practice in the field so that each may reinforce the other, in both content and method. For example, far more is likely to be gained by carrying or studying a few cases and learning in depth about human needs and behaviour from them, as well as taking real responsibility for practising social work skill in relation to them, than by a superficial contact with a wide range of cases. The aim is to teach a body of knowledge and sound working methods which provide the framework for study, diagnosis and treatment and which become so deeply ingrained that they are applicable by the students to other kinds of people in other situations. It is often difficult to convince employing agencies that such students will in fact do a better job, even though they have not seen a wide range of cases, or had experience of different kinds of legislation or varied settings, than those who leave their training with a superficial knowledge in wider areas but with little real skill or ingrained methodology.

Planning for development of desired attitudes involves rather different considerations, though those attitudes are obviously related to knowledge and skill. For example, the competent use of the working methods suggested above is likely to lead to attitudes of respect for knowledge and of critical appraisal rather than to rote learning and snap judgements. It is also accepted that to learn to practise social work requires the development of certain attitudes of respect for people, sympathy for them in their need and an un-selfregarding wish to help them. The extent to which the desired attitudes may be attainable will partly depend upon the extent to which they are congruous with the attitudes which students already have as a result of their family experiences, their education and their culture. Marked disparities between these and the working methods and attitudes of social work will set up resistances in the students and only limited change will be likely, unless there is strong motivation to change and capacity for doing so. Students may often be confused about the changes that are being asked of them, for instance to exercise initiative rather than carry out decisions, or to look for evidence or express

their own point of view rather than take statements on trust or accept passively what they are taught. Some may feel no inner pressure to change, provided they can get by without doing so; others will go through painful stages of individual growth before they understand the meaning of what is required of them; yet others may find the ways of working and the attitudes so well to their liking that they are strongly motivated to make them their own. There is always a risk that some students will learn intellectually without real integration of what they have learned or capacity to apply it, or that they will develop superficial skill not based upon well-integrated knowledge or related to appropriate attitudes and ethical values. The most important element in bringing about attitude changes will be the total group feeling, especially the relationship between teachers and students.

MEANS TO ACHIEVE THESE OBJECTIVES IN CURRICULUM PLANNING

It is little use to state desirable objectives of training without at the same time taking into account what would be involved in achieving them. It is not uncommon to read course syllabi in which large and most desirable aims are expressed but the content, the means, and the time available make it almost certain that these aims are incapable of achievement. If aims are not related to means and regularly reviewed by methods which will realistically assess their effectiveness they are likely to remain pious aspirations.

The construction of any curriculum of training for social work, no matter what its length or level, involves the following three elements:

(a) The objectives of the course; that is to say the kind of worker it is hoped to produce at the end of it;

(b) The educational methods by which these objectives can be achieved;

(c) The content of the course and its length in the light of the foregoing.

These three aspects are interwoven with each other and all must be taken into account in effective curriculum construction.

Within these limits there will always appear to be a need to teach students more than is in fact possible, no matter what time and teaching resources may be available. It is therefore essential to clarify with great care what are the purposes of social work practice and what changes the school aims to achieve in thinking, feeling and doing; how much of this is possible in the time available; and what educational experiences are likely to bring it about with the greatest intensity, that is, so that it starts a continuing growth process in the students. This analysis will probably lead to a much wider range of objectives than can be realized during training, indeed some of these will only result from constant day to day contact with given practices or phenomena, and others from years of experience. This means that as few as possible attainable and closely related objectives should be chosen as the basis for curriculum planning.

“A small number rather than many should be aimed at since it requires time to attain educational objectives An educational

program is not effective if so much is attempted that little is accomplished. It is essential therefore to select the number of objectives that can actually be attained in significant degree in the time available, and that these be really important ones."²⁰

This indicates that it is not desirable to give a number of disconnected courses or field work placements in which students will tend to "learn less and less about more and more".

The objectives will include knowledge, skills and attitudes.

"The most useful form for stating objectives is to express them in terms which identify both the kinds of behavior to be developed in the student and the content or area of life in which this behavior is to operate."²¹

It is of little use, for example, to plan the content of a course without also deciding what the student is to do with it, in what ways it is significant and to be used by him, whether for further thought or action. It is also little use to state broad purposes like the development of a capacity to integrate theory and practice, without providing students with constant and varied opportunities to do this in ways which do in fact achieve the desired results.

"There has been an increasing effort to formulate objectives in terms of changes in behaviour rather than in terms of knowledge to be acquired. This tendency has been promoted not only by the increased emphasis on functionalism in the curriculum but also by the needs of evaluators who find in behavioural descriptions greater opportunities for determining the efficacy of one programme or another. In order that there will be a guide for a teacher in the development of an instructional programme it is insufficient to describe the objectives in terms of behaviour since it is also necessary to describe the content of experience with which the behaviour is concerned or which produced the behaviour."²²

This is especially relevant when changes in attitude are involved because these only happen slowly, even in those already prepared for such changes, for example, the increased self-awareness and self-discipline which is essential to good social work (see also pp. 268-273) is of very slow growth.

This involves an understanding of how students learn and what conditions are most likely to help them to do so effectively.

"The term 'learning experience' is not the same as the content with which a course deals nor the activities performed by the teacher. The term 'learning experience' refers to the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he can react. Learning takes place through the active behavior of the student; it is what *he* does that he learns not what the teacher does. This theory of learning does not lessen the teacher's responsibility

²⁰ Ralph Tyler, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 30.

²² Willard C. Olson, *Psychological Foundations of the Curriculum* (Paris, UNESCO, 1957), p. 6.

because it recognizes that it is the reactions of the learner himself that determine what is learned."²³

Dr. Tyler goes on to analyse in broad terms the experiences necessary to produce the required objectives. In summarized form these are:

(1) The course must give the student an opportunity to practise the kind of behaviour expressed in its objectives. If, for example, interviewing is a basic social work method, then students must have ample opportunity to interview as a means of putting into practice knowledge of good interviewing method in relation to specific objectives.

(2) The learning experiences must be such that the student obtains satisfaction from carrying out the kind of behaviour implied in the objectives. This also means that they must be within his capacity at any given point in the course—neither too simple nor too complex.

(3) Many specific experiences can be utilized for the same educational objective. If a range of educational devices is used they will reinforce each other, and different individual students will be able to learn in the way which accords best with their temperament and abilities.

(4) The same learning experience will usually have several results. Thus in taking responsibility in relation to a particular case or in classroom discussions the student is developing skill and using and adding to his knowledge of human nature, the social welfare services and administrative procedure. He is also becoming more aware of himself and others, so that his attitudes undergo change.

When the over-all objectives have been identified and the learning experiences by which these are to be achieved, there remain further decisions about the total content to be taught, the range and depth of subject matter to include, where and how it shall be taught and what is to be the balance as between one subject and another, and between work at the school and field practice. If students are not to be choked with knowledge which they cannot assimilate (and therefore quickly forget) it is necessary to be realistic about the number of class-room hours a week and the amount of reading and written work which can properly be required of them, in addition to the field work. It must be remembered that the effectiveness of a course is not measured by the number of lectures given or the hours put into field work but by the changes it brings in the students.

"The real purpose of education is not to have the instructor perform certain activities but to bring about significant changes in the students' pattern of behavior."²⁴

Experience shows that it is not educationally sound to have a lecture course given by a variety of different lecturers, even though they are each expert in some aspect of a subject. Students learn better from continuous association with the same teacher with whom they can identify over a period of time, even if his knowledge is at certain points less thorough than that of the specialist in some particular aspect of the subject. This is all the more true in proportion as he is a stimulating

²³ Ralph Tyler, *op. cit.*, pp. 41-42.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 28.

teacher who likes and is interested in the students, who knows how to present in his material in a clear, well organized form and to relate it to other courses.

In deciding upon the most effective educational experiences to achieve the objectives of the course, it is helpful to bear in mind that:

(a) Knowledge which is quickly used is much more likely to be retained. This use may be, for example, in group discussions or in the field work where it will be knowledge with which to think and to do.

(b) Effective learning only takes place if there is a cumulative effect, that is to say if it is reinforced from various angles, through more than one of the senses and through active participation by the learner, who is stimulated by responding to demands which are within his competence, though they stretch him, and if they are related to attainments which he desires.

In planning the ways in which the total subject matter of a curriculum is to be taught, the importance of continuity, sequence and integration is generally emphasized. This involves a vertical relationship of the simpler to the more complex and a horizontal relationship of one subject to another, because, as Dr. Tyler points out:

“Both of these aspects of relationships are important in determining the cumulative effect of educational experiences. If the experiences provided in the sixth grade in geography properly build upon the experiences provided in the fifth grade, there will be greater depth and breadth in the development of geographic concepts, skills, and the like. If the experiences in fifth-grade geography are appropriately related to the experiences in fifth-grade history they may reinforce each other, provide for larger significance and greater unity of view, and thus be a more effective educational program; whereas, if the experiences are in conflict they may nullify each other, or if they have no appreciable connection, the student develops compartmentalized learnings which are not related to each other in any effective way when dealing with his own everyday life.”²⁵

Continuity

This involves providing recurrent opportunity for practising, analysing and discussing the kind of skill required of the student. In curriculum planning it also involves clearly identifying the concepts and core themes which are to be taught and ensuring that these appear and reappear in appropriate form in different contexts throughout the course. These will of course relate to method (for example, case study), to knowledge (for example, the effects of maternal deprivation), to skill (for example, interviewing), and to philosophy (for example, respect for and acceptance of people, though not necessarily of their behaviour). These concepts and core themes will need to be made explicit, studied and repeated from different aspects all through the course, both in the school and the field work, so that the students absorb and are able to use them. Reiteration and continuity of a subject matter is of course

²⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 54-55.

quite different from unplanned overlapping, which is certainly to be avoided.

Sequence

This involves arranging the subject matter, whether at the school or in the field work, so that there is a planned progression from the more simple or the known to the more complex and less familiar. Each stage is built upon the preceding one but the material is considered more broadly and deeply than before. At the same time:

“In this matter of progression from the simple to the complex, it is important to state that the simple is not the unimportant or the non-essential. The simple beginnings must be what the learner needs to know first in order to begin to help people in ways appropriate to social work. They must be what he needs to know first in order to cope with greater complexity later. They are not such easy beginnings that they fail to challenge the learner . . .”²⁶

It is also essential to plan a given course not only for its own internal progression, but also in relation to other courses and to the field work. This should result in an overall ordered progression in the subject matter, with primary foundations well laid before more advanced material is introduced; with a clear focus round which the material is organized; and so that previous learning is carried forward and re-emphasized at each succeeding stage. Thus it is incumbent upon teachers and supervisors to be clear about essentials and to present these so that they are significant both in range and depth, and so that there is an orderly and understood progression from the simple to the more complex as the whole course proceeds.

Integration

The achievement of integration is vital to the success of any course, because failure in this will leave the student with a series of isolated experiences. These are of comparatively little use because they lack cohesiveness and are not coherently integrated with each other in ways which add to his total capacity to function affectively. Integration is of course a question of relatedness—of the relation between different background and methods subjects and of these with the field work at every stage throughout the duration of the total course so that the effect is cumulative. This integration must also be looked at from the angle of the student's own capacities.

“Integration of learning implies perception of relatedness. It requires the ability to relate one thing to another, the readiness to put the parts of the whole together, and to see the significance of the whole”.²⁷

This ability is part of intelligence and previous experience, so that the range and depth of potential integration is related to the students' education, intelligence, experience and maturity.

²⁶ Charlotte Towle, *The Learner in Education for the Professions*, op. cit., p. 159.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 109.

Integration therefore involves most difficult issues of the balance in the total curriculum between background and methods subjects and between study and practice. This also raises the question of what is most appropriately learned in the school and what in the field work, and how each can reinforce and be integrated with the other, so that although the weight falls on any given aspect at any time it is always interrelated with the rest of the curriculum.

“Welding the various courses of the professional curriculum into a consistent whole, so that the student sees the concepts taught as part of a larger unit and sees how the parts fits together, is the problem of integration There is only one way to promote integration: knowledge must be kept from getting into compartments in the first place and students must be helped to see interrelationships in each separate course. This goal is not easy to achieve It can be attained only by repeated demands on the student that he use knowledge obtained from other courses in considering the subject matter in a particular course. This method makes great demands on the instructor: he must be sufficiently at home in the different fields so that he knows what knowledge from each is relevant to the subject he is discussing and he must be sufficiently up to date in each so that he uses current knowledge, not that which he learned as a student many years earlier. In other words, he must, in his own thinking about his subject, avoid the evils of compartmentalization”.²⁸

To achieve continuity, sequence and integration thus means planning the total presentation, whether in the school or in the field work, so that it not only moves from the simple to the more difficult but also has continuity, with certain basic concepts, facts or principles appearing and reappearing in order that they shall be steadily reinforced, and so provide the framework of the building. As the subject matter moves forward it should also become both broader and deeper. All the time the different elements in the course should be so integrated with each other that their significant relationships weld them into a whole.

“For example, in teaching the problem-solving method of social casework, continuity obtains in so far as this method appears and reappears throughout the casework sequence, so that its important steps are iterated and reiterated. Sequence would obtain as this method would be repeated in new fact situations which exert a new demand and thus involve progression in learning. Here one finds repetition with a difference. Integration obtains as this method recurs in subject areas other than social casework, thus providing opportunity for reinforcement of the elements to be learned from one field to another, as well as differentiation in the elements between fields, so that the learner is prepared to use them adaptively elsewhere”.²⁹

The essential problem for those who plan the curriculum is to see that students are given a sound knowledge of the whole before they study any given aspect at greater depth, that they should be helped to

²⁸ Helen Wright, “Social Work Education: Problems for the Future”, *New Directions in Social Work*, Cora Kasius, ed. (New York, 1954), pp. 189-190.

²⁹ Charlotte Towle, *op. cit.*, p. 169.

see part/whole relationships, and that at each stage of the educational process a solid foundation is built for the next one.

"Clearly we cannot squeeze into a curriculum . . . all the knowledge that would be useful. The schools must try to select only the essentials—the elements that the student cannot or is not likely to get after he leaves school and the material that provides a foundation on which other knowledge and other skills can be built".³⁰

The relationships of parts and wholes must also alternate in the way subject matter is presented to students. A course of social work education should be thought of in terms of a "Gestalt", with staff, supervisors and students all aware of this whole and of their respective parts in it. The same principle holds good in the actual teaching. At the outset of the course, the students should be made familiar with the general educational programme, the objectives of the course and the ways in which the different parts, that is to say school and field teaching, and the content of courses, are related to this total purpose. Periodic review of the ground so far covered and what lies ahead also furthers the same purpose of integration. This will include the particular relatedness of courses to each other and to the whole, the planned progression of learning, the purposes to be achieved by social work education and its part in furthering the processes and objectives of social work. This bird's eye view, an imaginative consideration of the whole in relation to the parts, the methods to be used, the ground to be covered and the problems to be mastered in order to achieve the goal, gives the students a frame of reference for the analysis, the exact knowledge, which they must then go on to gain in order to think and act with assurance and an open mind in accord with the demands of the situations which will confront them in their practice and in the assimilation of theory.

From the point of view of the teacher, difficult problems of selection and arrangement of subject matter are involved. One alternative is to start historically—for example, with conception and birth in human growth and development, with an earlier period in the development of social welfare provision, or with early stages of civilization in anthropology. Another alternative is to start with the present, with this man, woman or child as they are functioning at this moment, or with the current operation of a social welfare service or the structure of a society, and then to go back to discover how they became as they are now. Some of the content of social work education lends itself particularly well to starting from and making use of the students' own experience. The focus is on the deeper understanding of man in society, which means that the students' own experience as members of families and small and large social groups can provide material on which further learning can be built. It also means that the actual content of learning should carry forward what the students already know from their life experience, and that this should be related to practice in social agencies. Much of the subject matter will be new to them but it should be related to what they know already, and, where possible, it should also be relevant to their situation, for example case illustrations should be drawn from the local culture. Those from an alien culture should

³⁰ Helen Wright, *op. cit.*, p. 189.

usually only be used at later stages or else to teach habits of thinking comparatively. Students should be helped to think more deeply and to ask relevant questions about ways of life which they already know, so that they may have a basis for moving forward to an understanding of behaviour which may be strange or unacceptable to them.

It is important to remember that logical arrangement of material does not always accord with its maximum psychological impact. For this reason a certain flexibility is sometimes desirable so that some material can be presented when students most feel the need for it. Whichever method is used the connexions between subject matter and social work methods, objectives and philosophy should be drawn out in relevant ways. It is for this reason, as well as for the coherence of the whole curriculum, that it is essential for all the staff, whether whole-time or part-time, to have an understanding of social work and be able to help students to make the necessary connexions between other subject matter and their own future professional practice.

In all types of training for social work the background subjects in particular are likely to be taught by experts in these subjects who will usually not be social workers. This presents much difficulty to many schools of social work. It calls for full consultation and discussion with these other teachers in planning and teaching the total curriculum (see also pp. 25, 31 and 312). The following criteria have been suggested for fruitful collaboration with an expert in another subject.

“He must:

- (a) Know his own field thoroughly and maintain his identification with it;
- (b) Have an orientation to social work and respect for the profession;
- (c) Have the capacity to work with others in a complementary relationship and with respect for the others' contribution;
- (d) Have a scientific orientation to the 'whole man in relation to his environment';
- (e) Have the capacity to think conceptually and to teach”.³¹

FACTORS AFFECTING THE LENGTH OF A COURSE

The total content of any given curriculum which would represent a desirable standard for social work education at this stage of its development would involve substantial and prolonged study by mature students with a good general education. At the same time, some basic core of knowledge about the nature of man, society and social relationships, the structure and operation of social welfare provision, and the theory of social work, coupled with the development of skill in practice and of appropriate attitudes, is essential for all social workers, whether professional or auxiliary. The problem, therefore, is to consider realistically the extent to which these aims can be achieved within limitations of students' capabilities, time, and available teaching and other resources.

³¹ *Towards an Integrated Program of Professional Education for Social Work* (New York, American Association of Schools of Social Work, 1952), pp. 14-15.

Any training course must be built within the two walls of student selection (including the background with which they come) and the functions they will be required to perform after qualification. Thus the length of the course and what students can gain from it will be partly determined by what they bring to it. Mature, well-educated students with good experience, and the right personality for social work, and strong motivation to enter the profession, will advance much more rapidly (i.e., will be able to absorb a more demanding professional education in a given time) than students less well equipped in these respects. In particular, students who have learned to think for themselves, no matter what subjects they have studied, will learn more quickly than those who have been crammed with information in an authoritarian school system, even in relevant subjects. The first will go on learning, the second will have much to unlearn before they can go forward.

“Concepts of rigid old-fashioned discipline in the home and in the school conflict with such objectives as the development of leadership, initiative, and independence rather than submission and dependence on authority and external control.”³²

The nature of the course, its content and length, including or apart from specialization should also be related to the level of responsibility which students must assume in their first jobs, as well as to the amount of support they will have in continuing their professional learning there. If first jobs are considered as part of the educational process, so that for about the first year newly qualified workers will receive planned help and teaching, then this will have its repercussions on the range of objectives to be aimed at in the school's programme. If, on the other hand, it is expected that newly qualified workers should be able to undertake professional responsibilities with little or no support in their employing agencies, then the training will need to be longer. In any event there may be a waste of teaching resources in such circumstances because many students will not be able to make this transition without the loss of a good deal that they have learnt. There will be greater waste still in those situations where newly qualified workers meet with active hostility from unqualified colleagues and with inertia, indifference or opposition from administrators and policy-making authorities.

Unfortunately it is not usually possible to define goals or to control the post-qualification experience and then arrange the length of the course and the level of teaching accordingly. It is more usual to find that the length is determined by a number of extraneous factors and that the planning must be done within these limitations. The tendency is, however, towards lengthening courses as it becomes apparent that the essential content cannot be given and assimilated unless the minimum necessary time is available. Factors to be taken into account in determining what can be covered within given time limitations are:

(i) The two factors already mentioned of pre-entry qualifications and support in the first job;

³² Willard C. Olson, *Psychological Foundations of the Curriculum*, op. cit., p. 6.

(ii) Knowledge about social work and attitudes to social welfare in the country concerned;

(iii) The quality of the teaching available and the degree of planned integration which is possible on the course—broadly speaking, the more soundly based the course is from the point of view of the psychology of learning, the more students will assimilate in any given time span;

(iv) The extent to which it is desired to change attitudes, the level of skill to be developed and the differential use to which this is to be put. It is important to remember that changes in attitude and changes in feeling occur more slowly than intellectual learning. At the same time, the speed and effectiveness with which these take place will also depend upon the quality of the teaching and the degree of support which is given to the students as they experience these changes;

(v) The degree of integration and coherence of the whole course, its clearly stated and understood objectives, the extent to which students feel positively identified with these, and the overall "climate" of the course, including external attitudes towards it and towards the function of social work in the community.

This amounts to saying that in order to determine the minimum length of a course it is necessary to take account not only of the ground to be covered but also of sound educational method, the climate of the course, social attitudes towards the students, and the status of the profession for which they are being prepared. Course content and goals must also be related to where students are in their practice and stage of development. Students at the primary learning stage are not being equipped to become chief administrators or social planners or highly skilled practitioners or to design and carry through major social research projects, even though these may all be put before them as necessary activities and desirable goals for those with sufficient competence and experience in the practice of social work.

It must also be borne in mind that the means to the attainment of the primary objectives will differ according to the people being trained, the purpose for which they are being trained and the time available in which to do this. Thus, for example, students at any level should understand the necessity for social research and what may be learnt from it, but not all students require to be trained in actual methodology. Professional students should know something about the actual use of several social research methods; this will therefore be an objective in full professional courses. It would not, however, be realistic in other courses if, in fact, students will not be called upon to use this knowledge or if the amount of time they would have to give to it in relation to the total length of the course meant that the background and methods subjects and the field work had to be cut to an undesirable extent. Thus what would be a primary objective with certain students and in a certain level and length of course may not even be a secondary objective in other situations. This amounts to saying that certain primary objectives are constant in that the aim is to prepare students for effective practice at a given level, but that the means to their attainment and their depth and range will differ in differing circumstances according to the demands of the situation.

PRE-PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

The question of the amount of ground to be covered and the length of the professional training course is naturally related to the students' previous knowledge of some of the content of the background subjects before they begin their professional education. In some countries, for example, Canada, India, Pakistan, and the United States of America, students study some of the background subjects before going on to graduate schools of social work. In others, for example, Australia, Israel, New Zealand and South Africa, pre-professional and professional education may be combined in university courses. In Europe and in many of the schools in Latin America and some in the Far East, a common pattern consists of independent schools of social work which combine both background and methods courses in the same curriculum. In other countries, particularly the United Kingdom, both patterns are found in that university social sciences courses lay a groundwork upon which may be built various professional courses, either within or outside the universities.

It is claimed in favour of the first pattern (that is, undergraduate study of the background subjects in a university) that students have a good general experience of university life and the clash of different ideas before going on to what may be a rather isolated professional school. In favour of the second pattern (one continuous curriculum) it is pointed out that there is better opportunity for planning the presentation and content of the background subjects in relation to professional subjects and field practice, which means in effect that more ground can be covered in greater depth and in less time; moreover it saves the professional school from the necessity to make up deficiencies at the undergraduate stage. The arguments thus essentially turn upon the respective merits of a well co-ordinated educational programme as against a more varied educational experience. In any event, the choice is frequently determined by the educational pattern of the country concerned rather than lying within the province of an individual school to determine.

COURSE CONTENT, BALANCE AND TIMING

No matter what the length of the course or the standard of the students who enter for it, difficult decisions will have to be made, and regularly reviewed, about the balance as between work at the school and field work, and also between the background and methods subjects. The question of timing is also important, both in relation to background and methods subjects and to material which must be presented from different angles in different courses. In full-time courses of three or four years' duration a good deal of the background subject matter is likely to be taught at the pre-professional stage, and picked up, reinforced and carried further when the students come to the methods subjects and to supervised field work (as distinct from observation and participation) in which the aim is to develop skill through learning how to practise as a social worker in a social agency. In these courses as time goes on, the material will become more and more directly focused on

the methods, aims and philosophy of social work, and use will be made of relevant knowledge (including theory and principles) from the background subjects to reinforce this. As the whole course progresses the students will also spend an increasing amount of time in field work, until in the last one to two years they may spend say three days a week in practice and two days a week at the school—or an equivalent division of time if they have block field work placements.

It is not easy to generalize about the amount of time which it is desirable to spend on the methods subjects as this will partly depend on the way the background subjects are taught. For instance, where it is difficult to find lecturers to teach human growth and development from the angle needed by social workers it may be necessary for a good deal of teaching about human needs and motivation to be given in the methods courses. It would seem desirable that the methods subjects should occupy not less than half the total class time at the professional stage. It is assumed that students in full professional training courses will be given opportunity to do a substantial amount of reading and that they should be helped to make intelligent use of library facilities. Great difficulties, however, face schools where almost no literature exists in the students' native language.

In shorter courses and in training auxiliary workers the balance is likely to be different. The methods and background subjects will often be interwoven with each other, and the total course structure may move from the specific to the rather more general, instead of starting with background knowledge and moving to methods later. The teaching is likely to be largely descriptive with comparatively little underlying theory, though students should be encouraged to think for themselves, to analyse different possibilities and to formulate goals of practice. Ideally it is desirable that for auxiliary or other rank and field workers the teaching should be very closely related to their own field work experience (see also p. 133 ff.).

Where more or less drastic selection must be made from the total range of subject matter outlined in earlier chapters, it would be probably be agreed that the basic subjects are:

- (i) Human growth and development;
- (ii) Social structure and social influences on individual development and behaviour;
- (iii) The structure and operation of the social welfare services as means of meeting certain human needs;
- (iv) Principles and practice of social work.

In reducing these subjects to actual course content it is important to teach relevant wholes, even although this must sometimes be at an elementary level, and then to teach in greater depth at certain points. As an example, manifestations of poverty and the economic aspects of social policy will inevitably be touched upon in relation to the development and operation of social welfare provision. In courses at a more elementary level some simple understanding of the economic forces at work in society may be made realistic in other courses rather than by being taught as a separate subject. This also applies to sociology and

anthropology which might not be taught as such but as part of a course designed to help students to a better understanding of the structure, functioning, patterns of behaviour and ways of gaining a living in their society. For example, at the Arab States Fundamental Education Centre: "General studies make use of the contributions of disciplines like sociology, psychology, economics, and administration as they bear upon the understanding of social problems in an integrated and comprehensive manner. *The primary objective of these courses is not to study such areas as systematic disciplines but in so far as they are relevant in providing trainees with disciplinary leads for a deeper insight into and understanding of social problems.*"³³

The human growth and development subject matter is the key course on which both the methods teaching and the field work is based. No matter at what depth it is taught it should give students an imaginative insight into the major phases of the life cycle and the behaviour characteristic of each; the meaning to people of the great life experiences of birth, marriage, parenthood, sickness, separation and death; the major human needs for love, recognition, security and achievement; the importance of the family; the internal and external pressures on the human person, the effects of these as manifest in fear, anxiety, frustration, anger and hostility ("fight or flight"); how people may be motivated to deal with their difficulties; the ways in which the personality is formed and how it defends itself against threats to its integrity; and deviations from the normal caused by life experience or by congenital disease or defect. This teaching will be closely related to that on principles and practice of social work in which, once again no matter at what level it is taught, the students will be given an understanding of the nature and functions of social work, the various social work methods and how these are used. This will be especially related to knowledge about the ways in which people react to stress-inducing situations and how the social worker can help to lessen undue stress, so that negative emotions are released and tension thereby lessened; or by partialising the problem so that it becomes manageable; or by endeavouring to secure the material required to lessen strain and to meet need. The central aim of social work training at even the simplest level is to give students a better understanding of people and how to help them, through the application of social work methods and in conformity with the function of the particular social agency, at the same time using other resources as these may be available and appropriate. It is only when this central core is being adequately taught through combined and integrated theory and practice that other subjects should be added; even then, it is desirable that this should be by way of broadening and deepening these subjects coherently rather than teaching details of, for example, legislative regulations or administrative procedures, or of physical care.

In the fulfilment of this aim it will be necessary to imbue students both in the school and in practice with what are sometimes called "case-work attitudes" but are in fact effective methods, based upon understanding of human behaviour, of motivating people for some mastery of their difficulties in any situation. It is desirable that these should be taught

³³ Arab States Fundamental Education Centre, *Training Programmes* (Cairo, 1958), p. 5.

with illustrations and case records from the three fields of casework, group work and community organization. They are as appropriate to in-service training as to full-time training for professional or auxiliary workers. In some circumstances to take part in or plan and carry through simple social surveys may be an essential element in students' training.

Where group work is included in courses at any level teaching must be given about the purposes served by group membership at different ages and in different circumstances, group formation, group process, group relationships, group programme activities or definition of other goals, and the ways in which the group worker helps the group to work towards these. This teaching should be related to field practice under supervision.

Similarly where the emphasis is on work with communities, students will need to know more about the ways in which casework and group work concepts and methods as well as other necessary knowledge and skill can be used in the study of community needs and in mobilising rural communities or various interrelated groups in urban communities to define and work on these by appropriate means.

It will be noticed that in discussing the minimum course content the emphasis has been upon normal human development and functioning. Students at any level must know something about personal and social pathology but this should be set in the context of deviations from the range of the "normal", and in any event the emphasis should be on working with strengths in the individual, group or community rather than on pathology, important though it is to recognize the existence of this and its effects. At the same time, students must know something about the steps which have been or are being taken to identify and meet social needs (economic, educational, health, housing, social and psychological) in their country. This material will figure in the content of various courses as the whole moves forward together.

The manner of arranging the presentation of subject matter will thus depend on the length of the course, the educational background and maturity of the students and the extent of their previous experience. In short courses and in-service training for auxiliary workers it will probably be most profitable to relate the course content directly to the work they are doing or for which they are being trained, using typical situations to teach necessary administrative procedures in relation to the agency's function; to deepen their understanding of the people who come to the agency; and to explain the needs which it exists to meet, how these are met by the particular service, and what personal feelings and social attitudes centre round having this kind of need or problem. In so far as time and other considerations permit, the focus may be broadened from the people served by a given agency and social work ways of helping them to a more general view of the type of agency and form of social provision, in relation to general social welfare provision and to the aims of social policy in meeting recognized need. This will probably include practical discussion of administrative procedures. As much as possible should also be taught about the common human needs of people in their family and social relationships. It may be best to

teach largely by means of case records, interspersed with some didactic teaching, and with care to see that students grasp such general principles as are necessary to enable them to respond appropriately to different people who see their problems differently and who may react differently to the same situation.

Where the students' capacity to think conceptually is comparatively limited, much more will be attained by concentrating on their experience and the fairly direct demands of the job than by giving general courses based on broad principles. At the same time, the teaching should not be directed towards memorizing facts unrelated to their purpose and use, but should throughout draw upon the students' capacity for thought and imagination, particularly in relation to case studies (these will include administrative situations as well as casework, group work or community organization). This method of planning the presentation of the subject matter will rest upon the principles of

"increasing breadth of application, increasing range of activities included, the use of description followed by analysis, the development of specific illustrations, followed by broader and broader principles to explain these illustrations, and the attempt to build an increasingly unified world picture from specific parts which are first built into larger and larger wholes".³⁴

The use of visual aids, role playing and tape recording is likely to be found especially helpful with students who lack experience or who find it particularly difficult to think in abstract terms. Great care must, however, be taken to prevent these from becoming a series of interesting but unconnected experiences which do not add up to significant wholes and are not related to actual practice in the field (see also pp. 333-335).

In reviewing the total balance of the course it is essential to ensure that the focus is upon knowledge which the future social worker needs in order to work effectively with those whom social agencies exist to serve. This involves not only a proper balance but an effective relationship between the background and methods subjects. In many of the older schools of social work whose curricula have been built on the teaching of background academic subjects in abstract terms, there is a risk that one or two methods courses will be plastered on to an already overfull curriculum and that these in turn will not be dynamically related to teaching in the field work. The integration which has been stressed throughout this report cannot come about if students have to attend lecture courses primarily designed to meet the needs of other students (for example, the first year of a three-year course for students specialising in economics) nor if most of the teaching of background subjects is given by teachers who do not know about the actual needs of social work students and whose primary interest is in academic analysis rather than in living social issues as these confront social workers. Such teachers may often confuse appropriate selection of material with teaching at an elementary level: they may also insist on teaching in such broad or abstract terms that the subject has no significance for the students and is quickly forgotten when they leave (see also p. 25).

³⁴ Ralph Tyler, *op. cit.*, p. 64.

LENGTH OF EXISTING COURSES

An analysis of the descriptive summaries of schools of social work in the United Nations *Directory of Schools of Social Work* (1954)³⁵ shows courses of the following duration:

More than four years 5; four years 29; three years and over 120; two years and over 166; one year and over 29.

These figures refer to courses, not schools of social work; that is to say, where a school provides more than one course each has been included if it provided a qualification for social work. The two-year group is misleading because it includes courses intended to cover the whole ground in that period and also fifty-four courses in North American postgraduate schools which aim to recruit graduates who have already taken social science subjects. It also includes twenty social science certificate and diploma courses in British universities designed on the assumption that students going into social work should take a further one-year professional course. If these factors are taken into account the weight falls heavily on the three-year group. If the situations in which students are expected to take a basic course followed by a professional course are also taken into account, it would seem that it is more common to spend four years or more in education for social work than these figures taken at their face value would indicate. Moreover, the figures themselves are out of date, and it is known that a number of schools have lengthened their courses since these figures were collected in 1953.

It is not possible to make the same calculation about the length of courses of training for auxiliaries because these are run under many different auspices and for different purposes in different parts of the world. In any event, information about them has not been collected on an international basis so far. Such information as is available clearly indicates a trend towards lengthening such courses or a desire to do so if circumstances permitted. Probably one to two years full time would be generally accepted as a desirable length.

The range of what is reasonably desirable and possible seems to lie between three and four years for professional social workers. The shorter period is probably the minimum time in which the background and methods subjects and field work could be covered in such a way as to produce workers who have the basic knowledge, skill and attitudes required by professional practice at the level which is now possible.

The length of part-time courses, whether or not they are part of an in-service training programme, involves rather different considerations, taking into account whether or not they have been preceded or followed by and are integrated with full-time study, how much time is available each week, and so forth. Some part-time courses provide for study of background subjects in the students' own time or through part-time day release, followed by a full-time professional course. In others, the students are already employed in social agencies but have supervision of their field work and attend classes part-time. In others yet, there

³⁵ United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1955. IV. 2.

may be periods of practice in the employing agency interspersed with short periods of full-time study. The criteria for selecting the content of part-time courses and the educational principles involved will be basically the same as for full-time courses.

THE RELATION BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND SOCIAL AGENCIES FROM THE STANDPOINT OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

The over-all objectives of any given course require continuous re-thinking in the light of the current social needs which social workers are required to meet in the country concerned; as well as in relation to new developments in knowledge and professional method. The basic objectives are:

“to produce social workers who are (a) intellectually and technically prepared, and (b) personally qualified to perform social work functions in such social welfare programmes as the country concerned has established to promote social and economic well-being”.³⁶

This suggests that schools and employing agencies must keep in step with each other and that the objectives of social work in any country will necessarily be related to the climate of opinion about social welfare and the ways in which it should be provided. This is essentially a dynamic concept, for in conditions of social change and when knowledge and professional skill are both developing rapidly, the ways in which social workers are used and therefore the ways in which they are trained cannot remain static. It is inherent in the nature of social work as an activity carried on in social agencies, which themselves embody the particular country's recognition of social needs, that schools of social work should be in the design and content of their curricula in close accord with changing social attitudes and patterns of welfare provision. There are at times bound to be tensions in this partnership, as in all co-operative activities which call for growth and change.

It is clear that all professional education must be an equation between the training given and the subsequent use made of it. This means that education for social work is essentially a partnership between schools of social work and social agencies in which some of the latter provide supervised field work and all who are employers of the schools' graduates have an interest in raising standards of performance. In most countries this partnership also involves Governments and professional associations, both of which may have a substantial interest in the objectives of social work education.

Because of the many different interests involved and the tensions which may arise if there is no common meeting ground, it is the practice in some countries to provide opportunities for regular planned meetings between all those directly concerned in social work education. This forum for discussion may be government sponsored (as in Belgium and France) or initiated by the schools themselves (as in the United States) or by a semi-independent organization (as in Italy). Its value is obvious in providing a means for the regular review of objectives, to

³⁶ *Training for Social Work, An International Survey*, op. cit., p. 25.

make possible the expression of different points of view and their consideration in order to arrive at a consensus of opinion as to desirable action and the ways in which and by whom this is to be taken. Avenues for common discussion and study of curriculum content and presentation must be distinguished from externally imposed curricula and examination systems, which may make for inflexibility and lack of freedom to experiment.

It is now well recognized that the development of social welfare services is to a considerable extent dependent upon the appropriate training of social welfare personnel:

“In the initiation of social welfare in any country, the question arises as to whether the training of personnel precedes the development of programmes or vice versa Clarity as to levels of training and type of personnel will more appropriately flow out of clearly defined objectives, based on careful study and evaluation of the priority social welfare needs of the country.³⁷”

This also holds true for agencies in countries with well-established social welfare provision and a comparatively high level of living. In such countries the need is apparent for social workers with substantial skill in providing a professional service for people under stress whose personal or social problems or deprivation are having destructive effects on their own and their families' lives and on the community.

Although schools of social work must realistically relate their training to the actual social welfare and employment situation, it is also desirable that they should at the same time always attempt to turn out graduates who are ahead of all but the best current practice and thought. They should always be educating for tomorrow rather than for today. This is a necessary objective for schools of social work if they are to play their part as leaders in professional education and as agents of social progress. It is an essential function of an educational institution to lead the way in the definition and implementation of desirable objectives in the particular form of education which it provides.

Objectives must be related realistically not only to the job to be done—tomorrow as well as today—but also to the kind of worker which it is the school's aim to produce. Hence it is clear that no matter at what level the training is given, the objectives should be to impart soundly based knowledge which the students can absorb, integrate and put to use; to develop the necessary minimum of skill and an orderly method of working which is sufficiently ingrained to be capable of further development in the less sheltered conditions of employment; and to be assured that the student has the personality, attitudes and aims which make him suitable to practise as a social worker. To put it in a nutshell, the over-all objectives should be to turn out students who can think for themselves and act responsibly in relation to a body of principles and working methods. The answer to the question “training for what?” is to be found in the nature of social work. It was suggested in the chapter on the nature of social work that social work is essentially con-

³⁷J. R. Dumpson, *Training for Social Work in Pakistan* (United Nations, TAA/PAK/3. Rev. 1.), p. 44.

cerned with helping to remedy certain social dysfunctioning, i.e. an unsatisfactory relationship between people and their social environment, using for this purpose professional skill and the public and voluntary social resources which the community provides, or requires to provide, for this purpose. It is also increasingly engaged in preventive work with individuals, groups and communities, as well as in helping people to discover how to make their own choices and decisions. Social work training at any level should thus bear a realistic relationship between these objectives and the educational means to their achievement.

The nature of objectives also raises the question of the level of skill to be demanded from the worker. There must naturally be a close and identified relationship between the level of skill required of the worker and the objectives, methods and content of training. If this is not well thought out there may be waste of teaching resources because of too loosely defined aims, and poor educational method and inappropriate content in relation to the aims. This does not mean that education for social work should become a technical "know-how", but that objectives should be related to the requirements of practice on the one hand and to educational method on the other. This precision does not result in debasing educational standards, indeed it may enhance these by directing more attention to the essential purposes of any sound education.

CURRICULUM PLANNING, EVALUATION AND REVISION COMMITTEES

Since the proof of the pudding is in the eating, it is important not only to analyse objectives, to study educational method and to plan the content and presentation of subject matter in the school and the field work in relation to these, but also to try to discover from time to time whether the desired results are actually being attained. This involves an identification of strengths and weaknesses, as well as of unintended by-products in any given part of the course. If it is found that some desired results are being effectively achieved, this will be a spur to further achievement and to rectifying weak points in the course.

Evaluation is largely dependent upon the development of norms of expected progress in the students at any given point in the course and in relation to each major aspect of their work, including their field work (see also pp. 265-268). If there is a serious lag in regard to any change which it is desired to bring about in students this will raise questions as to their previous experience, the realism or otherwise of what is being expected of them, and what modifications may be called for in order to achieve the desired ends. The evaluation of the course will thus be closely related to the evaluation of students, indeed these should be two aspects of a total process. For example, if students do much more poorly in examinations on one subject than in others this should call in question the way it is taught and its relation to the total curriculum. A change in the curriculum must also be judged in the light of its effects on student performance.

The regular reassessment of the total content of the course and the way it is taught should be undertaken not only from the point of view of the students' progress and their subsequent performance in pro-

fessional practice but also in relation to additions to knowledge in the various subjects, new insight into good teaching methods, and demands from social agencies for social workers with additional knowledge and skill. From time to time any or all of these will tend to upset the balance of the course and point to a need for curriculum reassessment and revision. This is also necessary in view of the constant tendency of the curriculum to become overloaded. The effects on the students of an overloaded curriculum will be mounting anxiety because the task they are set exceeds their integrative capacity, and the result will show in poorer performance. This tendency to overloading is inevitable as knowledge and the demands of practice both increase, as background and methods courses encroach on each other's time, and as individual lecturers and field work supervisors demand an amount of time which would throw the total programme out of balance. What to cut out, what to lessen, what to increase, what fresh material to include, what could be covered more effectively in a different way, whether the total programme could be lengthened or should be revised, must be continual preoccupations of any alive and growing school of social work. The curriculum should be dynamic not static, thus reflecting the situation in which social work finds itself (see also p. 26).

This means that a curriculum committee or regular meetings of the whole staff (including supervisors) to discuss course content and curriculum planning are a necessary means to integration and to ensure that there is unfailing awareness of the need both to fertilise and to prune a curriculum. Such a committee provides a natural means for involving new staff members as well as supervisors and part-time teachers in curriculum planning. It gives everyone concerned a clearer picture of the whole and the relation of their particular contribution to it and it ensures that the curriculum itself and any necessary changes in it are based on collective discussion and decision rather than imposed from above. The importance of involving supervisors in curriculum planning and revision is discussed on p. 277. It is also desirable that administrators in social agencies taking students for field work should be invited to play their part. If they are familiar with the school's programme and the place of field work in it, they will have a valuable contribution to make because of their knowledge of the realities and demands of practice, and also because as representatives of employing agencies they are in a position to point out strengths and weaknesses of newly qualified social workers.

This kind of regular re-evaluation of the programme by representatives of the various interests concerned is the most effective way to ensure a realistic relationship between ends and means and to avoid the danger of confusing aspiration with attainment. At the same time, the schools must resist pressure from some social agencies to train students in narrow specializations, so that they may know details of legislation and administrative procedures and perform by the use of rule of thumb methods.

Students themselves are also a very valuable source of information about the impact of the total curriculum and its various parts on them. It is the practice in some schools to invite students' comments at the end of the course, either by discussion with the whole group or through

their elected representatives. These joint discussions often point to knowledge needed in the field which is not being given at the school, to poor timing of some part of the programme, to material which was badly assimilated because it was redundant, ill-timed or presented from the wrong angle. If students are given an opportunity to work out their views, and it is clear that these are thought to be important and may lead to action, they will usually take very considerable trouble to give them responsibility. This kind of joint staff/student evaluation of the course should not only happen at a given point in time. Good teachers will be alert all the time to students' responses and will recognize that there is not one who teaches and others who learn but that these are reciprocal processes.

There may be student committees for various purposes, as well as a joint staff/student committee whose discussions will in fact be a form of on-going evaluation. Some schools also ask the same group a year or more later, either at a reunion meeting or by means of a questionnaire, or both in combination, at what points and in what ways their training has helped or failed to help them in their practice.

In any event it is desirable that students should be followed up periodically as part of the evaluation of the effectiveness of the course in achieving its objectives, as well as to show whether the objectives themselves need to change at some points. This evaluation must of course be based on a plan. This would include defined discussions with the workers themselves and with their employing agencies, as well as reading a sample of their records and in other ways trying to gain some idea of the standard of their performance. It is extremely difficult to make such an evaluation sufficiently reliable, to decide upon satisfactory criteria, to control other variables (for example, different working conditions or attitudes to professional social work), to eliminate subjective factors, and to apply the criteria to a sufficiently large and homogeneous sample at any one time. If a control group of untrained or in-service or otherwise trained workers doing the same jobs is also available and can be matched and investigated in the same way, this may throw a good deal of light on training and its results.

Any type of evaluation should of course be designed so that the results are useful for selection of candidates as well as for training; indeed the follow-up in employment should be regarded as the final phase of the selection procedures.³⁸

The following summary of points raised in this and the following chapter is suggested as a guide to matters which require consideration by curriculum planning and revision committees:

(1) The objectives and consequent focus of the course, that is to say, the knowledge, skill and attitudes it is necessary to ensure, in relation to the identified purpose and function of social workers; and consequently the changes in ways of thinking, feeling and doing which the students must experience.

³⁸ For a detailed discussion of some of the complexities of such evaluations and how they might be undertaken see Jeanette Regensberg, "Testing the Products of Schools of Social Work", *Social Work Journal* (New York), October 1950, pp. 164-170.

(2) Student selection, including age, educational background, desirable personal qualities and methods of selection.

(3) (i) The time necessary to achieve the objectives in relation to the educational background and maturity of the students; and given this, the time needed to assimilate the necessary knowledge and acquire skill, and to integrate these with each other in a way which leads to changed attitudes; (ii) The time which is actually available.

(4) What can realistically be expected of students in the time available, considered in relation to the objectives of the curriculum, its content, the dynamics of learning and the ways in which learning may be intensified by the use of sound educational method.

(5) The depth and range of the total programme in the light of the foregoing considerations.

(6) To what extent underlying theory should be taught in the different background subjects.

(7) The essential content of the curriculum.

(8) What is elementary and what more advanced.

(9) How this total body of knowledge is to be divided between different lecture courses and between theory and practice.

(10) What is the appropriate timing in the teaching of any given subject matter so that the students have previous knowledge to which to relate it (some of this may come from their previous education or life experience) and so that it is rightly timed in regard to related subject matter in another part of the course.

(11) What is the appropriate balance and timing as between background and methods courses and theory and practice.

(12) Continuity—the analysis of continuing knowledge, skills and attitudes which must be repeated and reinforced in both theory and practice throughout the course.

(13) Sequence—this is related to timing in that it is concerned with an “orderly progression in learning”, with each element in the course built on preceding ones which the students have assimilated. It will include new knowledge or skill and a broadening and deepening of that which is already known. It involves considering in what order and in what detail any given subject matter shall be presented, in relation to the timing of the whole.

(14) Integration of subject matter as between one course and another and between theory and practice. It is in having knowledge which can be put to use, doing this and discussing and reflecting upon it, that students steadily learn to integrate one subject with another.

(15) What is most effectively learnt in theoretical studies and what in practice, and how each may reinforce the other.

(16) What is most effectively learnt in theoretical studies and what in practice, and how each may reinforce the other.

(16) What unifying concepts and “core themes” must be taught. How they should be introduced throughout the course so that they help to synthesize the subject matter and become part of the students’ ingrained ways of thinking, feeling and doing.

(17) What is the place of specialization and how is it to be integrated into the whole.

(18) What are the most effective teaching devices for any given subject matter, type of student or point in learning. For example: (a) Didactic teaching; (b) Discussion; (c) Seminars with presentation of papers by students; (d) Analysis and discussion of case records; (e) Reading; (f) Preparation of essays; (g) Preparation of an original thesis; (h) Individual tutorials; (i) Research projects, individual or collective; (j) Visual aids; (k) Role playing; (l) Visits of observation; (m) Observation; (n) Demonstrations; (o) Experience in social agencies; (p) Field practice with individual supervision and group discussion in relation to this.

(19) The most productive use and the right timing of observation, participation and field practice.

(20) The type, nature and number of field work placements in relation to the level of skill in performance which is desired and which it is realistic to expect of students in the time available.

(21) What shall be covered in the field work, including:

(a) Application of knowledge of human behaviour and motivation and of the manifestations of social influences on these;

(b) Skill in helping those served by the agency through one or more social work methods;

(c) Attitude changes; competence in the required administration;

(d) Ability to record interviews or other activities with clients;

(e) Knowledge of relevant legislation and regulations;

(f) Knowledge of and ability to use community resources.

(22) Normal expectations of attainment in both theoretical studies and practical work at given points in the total course.

(23) The optimum size of the total student group in relation to effective learning.

(24) Ways in which a large group may be broken down and yet the essential group unity be maintained, e.g. through seminars, group projects, field work units.

(25) Ways in which the total staff, full-time and part-time teachers, supervisors and agency executives, may be involved in curriculum planning, in evaluating the course in relation to the achievement of its objectives, and in considering curriculum revision in the light of experience and increasing knowledge.

(26) The over-all evaluation of students for the final award. The type of tests which will further rather than impede learning and which will effectively measure attainment in knowledge, skill and professional attitudes. This will include evaluation of field work as well as work at the school.

(27) Staff-student relationships and the total planning and conduct of the course from this angle. A strong positive group feeling and a stimulating educational experience are potent factors in the assimilation of learning.

(28) Evaluation of students' performance in subsequent practice from the point of view of the light which this casts on the content and educational method used in social work education.

It will be noticed that the last point comes back full cycle to the first one.

CHAPTER XIV

THE CONTENT OF COURSES: THE SELECTION OF STUDENTS, TEACHING DEVICES AND STUDENT EVALUATION

INTRODUCTORY

Those aspects of curriculum planning which remain to be considered are the selection of students; the use of various educational devices from the point of view of effective learning; and student evaluation. The written and the spoken word, observation and the use of visual aids are the normal range of educational devices. But careful attention must be given to the appropriate timing and combination of listening and speaking, of reading and writing, as well as of the best uses of visual aids, in order to give the maximum possible breadth and depth to the students' education. The purpose in view is to help them to think, to give them knowledge as a basis for thought, and to help them to apply principles in operational terms. The use of each educational device should, therefore, be tested in relation to the extent to which it seems to be furthering or failing to further the attainment of these purposes.

The selection of students must also be related to the function they are to fulfil and to the ways in which the school aims to prepare them for this function. That is to say, because education for social work is, like all education, in its nature a relationship between an educational situation and those who undergo the educational experience, it is necessary either to select students who can meet the demands of the curriculum, or else to modify the curriculum to meet the capacities of the students. Where a good range of candidates is available it will be possible to select only the most suitable. In other circumstances over-young or otherwise less suitable candidates may have to be accepted. In either event learning can be made more effective by the use and continual review of the best possible educational method and teaching devices. In countries where there are several schools of social work but a limited number of good candidates it might produce the best results to run a more advanced course at one school and to concentrate some of the best qualified students there. There are naturally other difficulties in implementing such a policy (see pp. 18 and 27).

The evaluation of students at the end of the course raises the issue of devices which effectively test that which it is desired to evaluate. It naturally includes performance in field work as well as in the theoretical studies at the school.

STUDENT SELECTION

Very wide differences exist in practice so far as admission procedures are concerned. In some countries it goes against accepted educational practice not to admit to a school of social work any candidate who applies. It is considered democratic to allow anyone to start a course, leaving it to the principle of the survival of the fittest to weed out the unsuitable. This is becoming less common in education for social work as it becomes evident that it often wastes the school's resources, antagonizes social agencies, may result in damage to clients, is a heavy drain on the finances of unsuccessful students, and may subject them to a destructive experience which is out of accord with the philosophy of social work. Where there are more candidates than vacancies some form of selection becomes inevitable.

At the other end of the scale are to be found elaborate selection procedures, as for instance the tests over a period of days used to select trainees for some schools of social work and some community development courses, or the highly systematized selection interviews used in some schools of social work.

In most schools of social work where total resources, especially staff time, are limited, it is desirable to select a student group which is reasonably homogeneous. If the range of intelligence, education and previous experience is too wide it will be impossible to design an educational experience which engages all the students fully without stretching some too far and others too little. This also means that young and immature students from a sheltered background cannot effectively be mixed with older experienced students. The former are in any event not at a stage when they are well fitted to meet the demands of training in this field, though for various reasons many schools of social work find themselves forced to recruit students straight from school.

The minimum age of admission to schools of social work varies from eighteen (or even lower) in some countries to twenty-three or more in others. Some have a maximum age of thirty-five to forty; others have no fixed upper age limit. A tendency may be noted to require previous work experience or a short period in some form of social work as a means of testing the candidate's suitability as well as giving him or her an insight into what the career involves. Minimum educational requirements vary from completion of a certain number of years of secondary education to four years of college education. These differing requirements are related to the status of social work in the country concerned and the educational system as a whole. In some countries there are many more candidates from whom to select than there are vacancies in the schools; in others there are vacant places with insufficient suitable candidates to fill them.

The selection of candidates for admission to schools of social work implies decisions about the qualities and qualifications which the curriculum is designed to fit and how these are to be assessed. The two essential questions in regard to selection are, then, what to look for and how to discover it. So far as age, education and previous experience are concerned this is of course relatively straightforward

because (at any rate on the surface) these are objective criteria which can even be verified on paper. But beyond chronological age there lie questions of intelligence and emotional development; beyond educational qualifications, what significance the education had for the candidate; and beyond experience as such, what of it is relevant to social work. Personal suitability is increasingly recognized as an essential criterion for selection in any profession involving responsible relationships with people in need.

Some schools are still forced, owing to distance and other considerations, to accept some candidates without interview but personal interviews by staff members or experienced social workers are increasingly regarded as essential to good selection. This is partly because selection begins to be recognized as vocational guidance to the candidate and vocational selection by the training school. Many their personality would be right for this profession, and the profession a rewarding one to them in terms of satisfaction in a demanding career. Realistic assessment by the school and the candidate should therefore be looked upon as a joint enterprise in which both are seeking to discover whether it seems as though the profession and the person are likely to fit together. This is also the basis for pre-selection courses. In any event joint decisions involve personal interviews in which there is exploration of what the candidate has to offer and whether or not his views of social work and his motivation for wishing to enter it are realistic. This approach to selection has the merit of providing a common meeting ground for the interview in which the candidate may begin to feel more relaxed and therefore less likely to put up a show in order to secure what he wants. If unsuitable candidates can be helped to see that what they wanted is something different from the realities of social work, then rejection will be less damaging to them. Indeed it is claimed as a further advantage for this common exploration that unsuitable candidates are often themselves able to withdraw as a result of discussion rather than face the humiliation of rejection.

It is customary to assemble and carefully assess written material as a basis for selection and for decision as to whether or not to interview. As a preliminary to the submission of material by the candidate and his referees, it is important that he and they should all receive not only the school's syllabus but also a clear statement about social work and the qualities that make for success or failure in it, in order that they may be better informed about the requirements of the profession.

The material assembled commonly includes the following:

(a) A completed application form. Careful attention is now being paid to the design of these forms so that they may indicate important pointers to suitability or unsuitability. They may include such factual information as age, sex, address, educational qualifications (both attempted and awarded), work experience, remuneration, exact responsibility in each job, length of employment and reasons for leaving, voluntary social service activities, leisure interests, previous illnesses or disability, marital status and family responsibilities, and financial resources to take the course. Other factual information required will vary with what is cul-

turally acceptable in the country or educational institution concerned. For example, some forms ask for information about religious affiliation, race, the number, ages and careers of brothers and sisters, father's and mother's occupation (as indicators of family patterns in regard to education and employment) and personal interests. In any event, it is essential to design application forms so that each question is entirely clear and unambiguous and so that it may be reasonably obvious to the candidate that the question is a necessary one in order that he may give an adequate account of himself and his circumstances.

(b) An essay, autobiography or other free-flowing account of the candidate's reasons for wishing to train for social work. The extent to which this is intended to be a life history will vary considerably. Some schools only ask for a brief statement as to why the candidate wishes to train for some branch of social work; others ask for a more detailed statement about the ways in which his family relationships and life experience have influenced his decision to become a social worker. If the request for this material is suitably worded so that its purposes of guidance and selection are clear, the very fact of thinking out and writing the required account can prove useful to candidates in clarifying their own motivation. In proportion as they are full and thoughtful these accounts can be of considerable value as an initial indication of the candidate's unsuitability or as a pointer to what should be followed up further in the interview. Often it will be found that pointers have been given in the application essay which would probably have been missed otherwise in the interview.

(c) References. Candidates are usually asked to give the names of two or more persons who have known them personally over a period of time, preferably in an educational or work relationship. The school will usually write direct to the referee explaining that it is attempting to arrive at a decision with the candidate about his suitability for social work and describing common causes of success or failure in relation to the demands of social work as a career. It is not unusual to decry references; sometimes indeed they are of little value, but they are often less useful than they might be because the referee has either been constricted by a set form on which to answer "yes" or "no", or else left with too little idea of what information it would be useful to give. It is common experience that information about health, intelligence, emotional stability and personal integrity is more readily given if its importance is explained as part of a total assessment for the choice of a career rather than being set out as a series of questions on a form. Such forms often give almost no picture of the candidate as an individual person and fail to achieve their avowed object of forcing the referee to think in relevant terms and to give specific answers to important questions.

(d) A report on a medical examination. Requirements vary in this respect. Some schools demand a thorough examination in a prescribed form (including a chest X-ray and a Mantoux test). Others are less rigorous. Increasingly attempts are being made to assess the candidate's mental as well as physical health, for example by asking for information about mental ill-health and treatment. It is also the practice of some schools to refer a candidate to a psychiatrist if there is doubt on this score. Where this is done it has usually been found to be important

that the psychiatrist should be well acquainted with social work requirements and should distinguish between a diagnostic and a vocational guidance interview.

(e) Further correspondence with individual candidates on particular points. The kind of questions candidates ask and the way they respond to requests for further information are additional pointers to their personality.

It is desirable to recognize that all the school's dealings with the candidate are also indicators to him of attitudes towards people, and therefore whether this is the kind of institution where he would like to train. Courtesy and consideration are two-way matters.

When all this material has been gathered it will only be effectively used if experienced staff members have time to go through it, trying to assess its significance in terms of what qualifications and qualities have been worked out as desirable in candidates. Ideally, notes should be made on each application briefly summarising the picture it presents and giving the evidence for any queries which are raised. For example, "several recent changes in employment but this may be related to what she says about her mother's health. Explore at interview". At the next stage decisions may be made as to whether to interview or to reject without interview. Candidates will be less upset about rejection without interview if it is explained in the initial letter in answer to their enquiry that only a certain number will be asked to come for interview. It is often possible to save staff time by making a quick decision about those who are clearly suitable or unsuitable for interview, thus having more time to spare for fuller discussion of the others.

Selection is often made as a result of board or panel interviews. There are widely differing views about the value of such collective interviews. In some selection procedures a group of candidates are asked to discuss a topic, or to engage in some practical activity while the selectors watch or listen unobtrusively. This is sometimes preceded or followed by one or more individual interviews. It is important that, no matter which method is used, those who interview should have ability in this and frequent experience.

Ideally those who are called for interview should have two separate and substantial interviews with two experienced interviewers. These may be supervisors or others connected with the programme as well as school staff, provided they interview regularly enough to develop norms. Much attention is now being paid to the structure of such interviews and to recording them. In some interviews the candidates are asked set questions: in others the discussion is free-flowing though the interviewer has in mind the areas to be explored. The latter type of interview combines the advantages of a framework while at the same time making it possible to allow the interview to develop as may be significant in relation to the candidate's personality, experience and queries about social work. It is desirable not only to put candidates at their ease but also to conduct the entire selection procedure in such a way that they may be given an experience of good educational and social work principles in operation. For those who are accepted this will be the beginning of their identification with the school and its practices; while those who are not accepted will be less likely to feel

personally devalued. Furthermore a candidate who is at ease and who feels that his desires and point of view are of concern to the interviewer is much less likely to be on the defensive. For, as Charlotte Towle puts it, "we cannot force an individual to be truly revealing".¹ In any event, the candidate may be aware of personal motives for wishing to become a social worker which he is not willing to share with a stranger; he is also likely to have motives of which he is not necessarily aware. The candidate who is willing to tell everything about himself at a first interview is usually a poor risk for social work. Some of the final appraisal after the interview must therefore rest upon deduction from evidence as well as direct evidence. Inevitably, some qualities desirable for social work cannot be clearly assessed in every candidate by present selection methods. Intelligence tests and personality tests are used by some schools. These are valuable if combined with careful consideration of the candidate's previous life history and educational and work performance, coupled with good interviewing.

Opinions differ as to whether, when there is more than one interview, the interviewers should compare notes between interviews. The merits of so doing are that the same ground is not unnecessarily covered a second time and that suggestions can be made about matters which were insufficiently explored. The disadvantage is that the second interviewer will not see the candidate with a fresh eye and may also fail to perceive things which were missed by the first interviewer.

It goes without saying that interviews should be free from interruptions and that the results should be fully recorded as soon as possible after the interview, with distinctions clearly made between facts and opinions and giving the evidence on which inferences are based.

When all this material has been assembled, the decision about acceptance, postponement or rejection must be made. This may be done by those who did the interviewing, by these with one or two additional staff members as assessors, by an interviewing board, or by a board which reviews all the available material but does not actually interview the candidates. Whatever method is used a decision must be reached as to whether the candidate is above or below some agreed desirable margin. The selection criteria should of course be related to the results of evaluating previous students and following them up in employment. Many lists exist of desirable attributes in social work candidates. The following will be found in most of them:

(a) Age—between the agreed minimum and maximum age.

(b) Health—good health is normally essential, though some physically delicate or handicapped people are successfully employed in fairly sheltered conditions.

(c) Education—having the minimum entry qualification and (desirably) more.

(d) Experience—opinions differ as to whether work experience is essential. If so, some require that it shall be in social or closely allied work. Others think a wide experience of reasonably normal people more desirable. Prolonged or indifferent social work experience is sometimes regarded as an actual drawback because of the unlearning involved. In

¹ Charlotte Towle, *The Learner in Education for the Professions* (University of Chicago Press, 1954), p. 180.

any event it is desirable that candidates should not come from a limited and sheltered environment only.

(*e*) Intelligence—all social work requires intelligence. Professional training for subsequent skilled practice will demand high intelligence. It is not always possible to judge this accurately from previous education without also knowing something about the status of the educational institution concerned and the quality of the educational experience. [Sometimes a candidate may have done poorly who is capable of doing well, given a good educational experience.] At other times he may have been “a big fish in a small pond”. Intelligence tests may be used to reinforce other pointers, though they are not altogether reliable for adults.

(*f*) Vocation—this is an emotionally charged term, highly valued by some and rejected by others. It would, however, be generally agreed that it is necessary for candidates to have a real desire to help and a liking for their fellow-men, to be realistic about what this may demand of them and to be likely to find satisfaction in the profession and to wish to serve in it rather than to advance their own personal ends and ambition for power. This devotion to professional goals is of course compatible with reasonable status, salaries, working conditions, personal fulfilment and career prospects.

(*g*) Real concern for troubled people and a capacity to form and sustain helpful relationships with them which meet their needs rather than those of the candidate. This should also hold good for work relationships with colleagues and in team work, which is of growing importance in social work.

(*h*) Ability to work in a disciplined way and to meet administrative as well as personal demands.

(*i*) Maturity. This will of course be related to age and experience. Immaturity, which manifests itself in self-centredness and dependency, is one of the commonest causes of failure in social work. It is often difficult to detect in an interview because it may be masked by an air of sophistication.

(*j*) Capacity for growth and change. This is at the opposite pole from immaturity and rigidity. Flexibility and capacity for growth and adaptation are essential attributes in social work. This quality is almost essential to success in a school of social work and in the profession. It is sometimes hard to assess on an interview, though the total selection material may provide clues in regard to the candidate's life history and what he has made of it.

(*k*) Imagination and insight. The capacity for empathy, to see life through the eyes of other people and to know with compassion what their experience means to them is essential for good social work.

(*l*) Absence of severe neurotic traits (or of incipient psychosis). Opinion is very much divided as to whether mild neurotic traits are necessarily indications against acceptance. It is pointed out that the introverted person with some neuroticism may have much more subtle insight and imagination than some more normal people with limited capacity for insight or for “feeling with” others. Any high degree of anxiety, hostility, compulsiveness, lack of confidence, tendency to self-punishment through overwork or tendency to feel persecuted, is to be avoided.

Those responsible for making the final decision will thus weigh up what is known about the particular candidate in relation to agreed minimum requirements and desirable qualities. They often concern themselves with the further question of whether this is the best time in a particular candidate's career for him to train, knowing that what anyone gets from training is a relationship between the experience he brings to it and what it has to offer. A given candidate may therefore be advised to postpone training for a year or more and helped to get suitable work experience in the meantime. Where the nature of a course and the supervision in field work necessarily lead to a high degree of self-awareness, the question may arise whether a candidate with an unhappy life experience could stand this insight without damage and possible breakdown. Unhappy family and other experiences are not necessarily reasons for non-acceptance. What matters is not the experience as such but what the candidate has made of it. Accepted cultural standards in regard to service to others or self-aggrandizement are also vitally important in determining candidates' likely responses to the demands of social work.

As was said earlier, it may be possible to make fairly rapid decisions about those who are agreed to be suitable or unsuitable (though mistakes are likely to be made). It is always the middle group who cause most reflection. None of the qualities listed above—or any others—are ever found in pure form, and in any event they are aspects of a total unique personality. The decision therefore always relates to a balance of qualities and motivation in a person, and to trying to discover the strength and flexibility of the personality. There will always be uncertainties as to whether or not a given candidate should be taken. There will always be risks, particularly where the imponderable degree of capacity for growth and change is at stake. What matters is that, so far as possible, these should be calculated risks and that the school staff and supervisors should know how to help students to come to terms with those elements in their personalities which hinder their development.

Even with the best selection methods used by experienced people mistakes will be made, good candidates will be turned down, unsuitable ones accepted, or those who were regarded as risks will prove to be excellent or impossible. This is one of the arguments for systematic recording of the reasons (with the supporting evidence on which conclusions are based) why candidates are accepted or rejected and for checking these records against the candidate's performance in the school if he is accepted. Some schools grade candidates at selection and continue to award grade marks all through the course. Full study of selection procedures and their effectiveness requires that predictions of performance in relation to personality (based upon all the available evidence) should be made at the time of selection, that there should also be full records of performance at the school and in the field work against which the prediction at selection may be tested; and that the student should be followed up for a period in his subsequent work.

TEACHING DEVICES

Curriculum planning does not only include decisions about the content of the course, what shall be taught of any given subject and how it should be integrated with the rest. It also includes selection of teaching

devices in order to present the subject matter effectively so that it may be assimilated by students. It is also necessary to think not only of these devices in themselves but also, of the best ways of using them in conjunction with each other. For example, visual aids should be used to illustrate didactic teaching and class discussions rather than being laid on as stimulating but isolated events. Similarly, case records may be used at various points in the curriculum to show the working of particular principles in given situations. Curriculum review committees will thus find it rewarding to concern themselves with the best ways to teach the varied content of the curriculum as well as with the selection and arrangement of subject matter. It goes without saying that this requires of the teachers a real concern for the students and a lively intellectual interest in their subjects and in the psychology of learning.

Use of the discussion method in lecture courses

As a general rule it may be said that group learning and group discussion reinforce individual learning. Where classes are not over large so that discussion can take place either throughout or following a lecture, it brings the teacher into much closer touch with the students and so enables him to move at the students' pace, to rectify inaccuracies and misunderstandings, to challenge them to substantiate their statements, to encourage them to further thought and to the use of illustrations from their practice and other experience. Group discussion is also an effective means of modifying individual attitudes. It is for these reasons that purely formal lectures without discussion are tending to give way to a teaching method in which substantial blocks of material are presented by the teacher and then discussed, or there is a continuous give-and-take of discussion throughout the session. This kind of teaching makes a heavy demand on the teacher to evoke interest and profitable participation and to maintain a planned framework of subject matter with free-flowing discussion, as well as being able to recapitulate periodically in summarized form so that the class is clear what ground has been covered and what principles have been illustrated. The discussion method is also an effective means of bringing home to students their responsibility for their own learning. These lecture discussions also give the students practice in handling the social worker's tools of listening, making tentative deductions, and talking with a focus and a purpose. Allied to training in observation, discussion periods are thus not only good educational practice but also a beginning in learning social work method. At the same time it must be remembered that:

"inductive methods of presenting curriculum experiences, while effective, are time-consuming and require resourceful and skilled teachers. Inductive teaching tends to limit the amount of content that can be studied and may interfere with the logical sequence commonly associated with systematic deductive teaching arrangements. In order to provide continuity, progression and integration within and between units, it is generally necessary to use both the inductive and deductive approaches. What is important is to select a curriculum arrangement and methodology appropriate to the objectives of the unit and of the course of which it is a part."²

² Ernest Hollis and Alice Taylor, *Social Work Education in the United States* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1951), pp. 244-245.

The discussion method can be extremely helpful to teachers because it enables them to analyse content, presentation and timing much more effectively. In fact it is one of the best means by which teachers may learn from students.

Individual tutorials or consultation

It is advisable that every student should be individually allocated to a member of the staff for regular discussions. This is the most effective method for keeping each student's total progress under review, for discussing any problems in learning with him and for helping him with any personal difficulties which may be affecting his work. Together with supervisory sessions, it is an important means of relating theoretical learning and field work to each other. Students often suffer much strain as their self-awareness deepens through their work with clients. It is essential if they are not to do damage in their future work that they should become aware of desires, identification and needs in themselves which they have previously denied because these did not fit in with their picture of themselves. The actual process can be a very painful one in which students may either put up unrealistic resistances or else deny all that is good in themselves and almost lose for a time their sense of self-identity. At these times they need the reassurance of someone who accepts them for themselves, feels warmly towards them, does not minimize their own struggle to accept themselves, holds them to a sense of reality when they tend to go too far in either direction, and shows belief in their ability to come through to a better integration. The task of the tutor or adviser is thus complementary to that of the supervisor, whose questioning in relation to students' work with clients is the main cause of their growth in self-awareness and who must hold them to the consequences of the effect of their personality on their performance. It goes without saying that faculty advisers and practical work supervisors should work closely together, in fact there should be a degree of manifest confidence between them which may occasionally make it possible for an individual student to discuss realistic difficulties with an adviser or with a supervisor without feeling guilty, and without being able to play one off against the other.

Individual study

Because students are being taught to acquire relevant knowledge and to think for themselves in relation to it, lectures and direct observation and practice aimed to produce skill must be reinforced by reading, as well as by the preparation of essays, dissertations or research reports. Many schools of social work struggle with inadequate library facilities and often with only a minimum of indigenous literature or translations, particularly in professional social work. This means that often students

“are being set a task beyond the powers of many of them if they must study in an alien tongue the practices of an alien culture and then try to apply these in situations which in any event make demands upon all their resources of knowledge and personality.”³

³ Report of the Reviewing Committee on the Tata Institute of Social Science (Bombay, The Sir Dorabji Tata Trust, 1953), p. 19.

Even so, and whatever their circumstances may be in this respect, students should be helped to regard personal study as a fundamental aspect of their learning. Many students, even some who come on from universities, may need help in making use of books for different purposes, of pamphlets, legislation and periodicals, in learning how to seek specific information or different points of view, and how to take and organize their notes. It is valuable to give students comprehensive and annotated bibliographies on the subjects covered in the course, and that these books, periodicals and other material should be freely available to them for study.

Essays

The preparation of essays closely related to field study and reading, as well as to class-room work, is an effective means of helping students to organize knowledge and their own thought round a particular subject, to come to conclusions and to substantiate these conclusions by supporting evidence. Essay subjects may well be set in such a way as to require the use of knowledge from several different sources, as well as of field work experience. Case studies may be used in the same way, with questions set which require general knowledge to be focused upon the particular case and its handling. Students should finish an essay or case study with some sense of achievement, clarified thought and assimilated knowledge. This is less likely to happen if they are set too many essays in relation to their other commitments and thus become over-anxious and frustrated.

Research projects

Similarly, a dissertation or research project may be a most valuable means of helping an individual or group of students to construct a small piece of original work and to learn to use some tools of social research method. In this the students have the greater stimulus of making original discoveries and adding to knowledge. Moreover some of this research material may be of real value in building up a body of indigenous social work literature. It may also deal with real problems facing social agencies on which they need help. In addition, the students have a valuable experience of identifying a problem amenable to research, of designing and carrying through a research project, and of working as colleagues with the teacher or teachers responsible for helping them with their theses. Carrying out a research project is also commonly regarded as a proper hall-mark of advanced adult study. These and other advantages are well-known. On the other hand, the research project shows a perpetual tendency to become unwieldy in the total demand it makes on students, for example in learning statistical method and in gathering, analysing and collating the material. The time it consumes is often out of balance with its proper place in the total course and students frequently leave with an unfinished thesis hanging over their heads or else neglect other essential work in order to get it finished at undue cost to themselves at a time when they should be concentrating on drawing the whole course together and reviewing their total achievement. Group research projects are now gaining in favour because they do not suffer so much from these disadvantages and at the same time have the advantages of intensive work by small groups. The dissertation, which lies midway

between an essay and a research project has merit when because of the length of the total course insufficient time is available for research, but when it is yet thought desirable for the students to complete one substantial piece of original work. It is usual for the dissertation or research project to involve direct observation, interviewing and fact gathering, as well as a study of relevant published material.

Presentation of class papers by students

In some schools of social work students at a later stage of the course present their own cases to the class after careful preparation and consultation with their supervisor and the teacher concerned (see also pp. 225-227). In some schools, seminars are held in connexion with various courses in which papers are read by individual students, or by groups of students who have worked on different aspects of a subject and possibly take different points of view. This is good practice for students in studying a subject more thoroughly and in preparing it for presentation to an audience. It is a less valuable experience for the audience unless the teacher helps with the presentation, for example by showing the students how to speak from notes instead of, in effect, reading an essay.

Use of case records

The traditional way of teaching social work process, developed in the first instance by the pioneers of social work in the United Kingdom and the United States, is through the use of recorded case material. This method has fallen into disuse until recently, except in the North American schools of social work where it has been highly developed in teaching casework, group work and, to a lesser extent, community organization. The renaissance of casework teaching in Europe and its rapid development elsewhere has been accompanied by the study of case records as an essential element in teaching the principals and practice of social work. These records must be process recorded, that is to say they must contain in substantial detail what was actually said by the worker and the client or the group, so that there is sufficient information about responses to the worker's contribution to reduce unverifiable conjecture in the class discussions to a minimum. This detail is also necessary in order to study the ebb and flow of the relationship and the ways in which the worker either used or failed to use social work methods effectively in study, diagnosis and treatment. These records must also be carefully selected for teaching purposes so that the degree of complexity of a particular case and the teaching points to be made in relation to it fit in appropriately at a given point in a methods course.

"Cases can be chosen to teach just what is needed at each stage in the learning programme. The tempo can be adjusted to students' needs, without regard to urgent problems requiring immediate action; time can be allowed for any repetition of old concepts which may be necessary in introducing the new, and for individual variations of speed. The sequence of happenings can be traced, and students can work out how far the difficulty seems to lie in the environment, how far in the personal problems of an individual or in the repercussions of these upon the family. They can work out a plan and see how it re-

quires adaptation as new knowledge emerges and as the client accepts or evades help.”⁴

Until recently the only case records which fulfilled these criteria came from North America, but indigenous records are now being produced in those countries where the schools have started to teach by this method.

The term “case record” does not of course necessarily mean a case-work record since a “case” is a person or a group, or a community in a situation in which a social worker carries out characteristic activities on behalf of a social agency with specific purposes. This method of teaching through the use of case records may also be effectively used not only in the study of casework, group work and community organization, but also in administration, and industrial relations. Unfortunately there are very few non-American group work records. A number of studies have been made of community development projects in rural conditions. There are very few community organization case records from any part of the world. The available case studies in administration and industrial relations are beginning to be used in schools of social work.

The identification and editing of case records for teaching purposes is naturally extremely time-consuming. When a suitable record has been found—and a number are in fact student records—agency permission must be obtained for its use; it must then be cut but with continuity preserved, completely disguised with every identifying particular removed, and then reproduced with an introduction giving brief particulars of the agency, the source of referral and the background of the case, if it does not begin with the first interview. Ideally, records should also have teaching notes and indications of their most appropriate use attached to them.

Verbal and visual learning

All the foregoing learning methods make use of the traditional teaching devices of talking, reading and writing, that is of verbal expression in one form or another as a means of reflecting upon and incorporating knowledge and ideas. Yet, as the Hollis Taylor Report put it:

“effective teaching and learning in any aspects of the basic curriculum require the use of teaching methods and instructional devices that appeal to as many as possible of the five senses, but especially to the visual and auditory senses under conditions that permit the student to react verbally and emotionally through some form of identification or overt behavior . . . An object or a more complex situation does not have meaning for the individual until it is perceived and interpreted by the senses and related to his current background and framework of conceptual learning.”⁵

Role playing

Observational exercises and field work itself are more vivid means of learning, partly because they make use of a wider range of the senses

⁴ K. M. Lewis, “Supervision, Education and Social Casework”, *The Boundaries of Casework* (London, Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, 1957), p. 54.

⁵ Ernest Hollis and Alice Taylor, *Social Work Education in the United States*, op. cit., p. 244.

and also call forth emotional identification. Another effective device for producing these results under comparatively controlled conditions is through role playing, which is a potent means of stretching the imagination through putting oneself in someone else's shoes. The significant point about role playing is the astonishing degree of identification with the part being taken which occurs quite spontaneously and without any deliberate "acting a part". It may be used to demonstrate interviewing, what it feels like to be turned down for a job, to go into hospital, to be a handicapped person, to ask for help, or to be confronted with many other real life situations. Role playing may also be used to give realism to legal and administrative studies, for example by staging a court, or a board meeting to discuss a specific project. It thus gives an experience of group process and of what it feels like to the individual to be faced with various stresses and demands. The "play" is of course unscripted and develops spontaneously as the "actors" become identified with their parts. Each episode may vary in length from a few minutes to two hours or more according to its nature. The class should always have an opportunity at the end to discuss each presentation, both in its knowledge and experience components. Care must however, be taken not to play situations which are too emotionally disturbing to students.

Tape recordings

Tape recording of interviews or group discussions have great merit compared with written material in that they are not distorted by the recorder's memory, and that the tone of voice in which things were said, together with silences, provide clues to the significance of the whole process of the interview or group discussion which are lacking in written material. They may also be used to teach students something about the practice of process recording through class-room exercises based on the use of tape recorded verbatim interviews.

Visual aids

Visual aids are useful in teaching because the message through the eye is often more immediate and deeper in its impact than the message through the ear. Moreover, visual presentation can sometimes clarify learning more quickly than purely verbal descriptions, for example, of bodily functioning. Visual aids can also drive home and add to verbal learning. For example, the British film "A Two Year Old goes to Hospital",⁶ the French film "Monique" and the American film "Grief" all vividly illustrate theoretical knowledge about the emotional effects on small children of maternal deprivation. Films are also an effective means of bringing out the relation between culture patterns and universal human drives, as for example in the film "Bathing Babies in Three Cultures".

Films and other visual aids should of course always be used in relation to, not as a substitute for, verbal teaching. Their use should also be planned as part of, and at appropriate points in, the total curriculum.

⁶ For a description of the use of this film in teaching see Alice Hyde and Jeanne Murphy, "An Experiment in Interpretive Learning", *The Social Service Review* (Chicago), December 1955, pp. 364-365.

The teacher concerned should be familiar with the film before it is shown, and the teaching points to be made in relation to it. Students should be told the specific purpose which is to be illustrated by a given visual aid and there should be opportunity to discuss the significant points in it and its impact upon the class. Used in this way visual aids are also useful in developing skill in interpreting observable behaviour. They also have the advantage of speaking a universal language, as against books which may require translation. Thus they

“provide excellent medium for promoting the international exchange of ideas and techniques in the field of social welfare.”⁷

The United Nations film loan service in Geneva consists at the present time of over 400 films, covering various fields of social welfare. If the sound track of a particular film is not in a language understood by the audience in the borrowing country a translation of the script is sent with the film.

Films are costly to make, and good films on social welfare are rare in any event. Film strip is by comparison cheap; its aim is more limited but it requires much simpler equipment both to make and show it. Much good film strip now exists and as many social agencies have made their own film strip it may often be much more closely related to the local scene.

Observation exercises

It is a matter of common experience that knowledge becomes more significant and more “memorable” if it is quickly put to use. The sequence and proportion of the background and methods courses will, as has been said, depend on the possible length of the course and the degree of previous knowledge with which students come. But in any event it is desirable to introduce some direct experience quite early. The form which this takes will partly depend on the students’ background. Thus it may be either supervised field work in social agencies or short or longer periods of observation in which the students are trained to observe by discussion both before and after the visit. The threefold purpose of any kind of direct experience at the earliest stage is to help students to observe perceptively and accurately and to record their observations for further discussion; to stretch their imaginations about and their understanding of different kinds of people—children, industrial workers, old people for example; to give them experience of various social agencies and how social services operate; and to introduce them to differing social settings, whether localities or institutions. Students are helped in this by being participaters rather than passive observers, therefore the difficult art of quick and accurate observation which is essential to social work must often be practised while carrying on some more or less routine job in an agency. Great care must be taken by the school to see that students are in fact taught to observe and that this experience is related to courses being given at the school. This subject has been considered in more detail from another angle on pp. 251-254.

⁷ *Social Welfare Film Loan Service. Consolidated Catalogue* (United Nations, TAA/Film/Con/Rev. 1), p. 1.

Demonstrations

This teaching device is much used in medicine, as well as in informal education. It has not so far proved possible to use it in teaching actual social work method. When students are studying the elements of physical disease processes or psychiatry it is useful to accompany this teaching with clinical demonstrations at hospitals. It is also used to teach programme activities with groups and educational aids in community development. Case conferences are becoming more usual between different social workers involved with the same family or between different professions dealing with the same case. Attendance at a few such conferences helps students to understand the process by which experienced workers use the methods of study and joint discussion to arrive at diagnosis and decide on treatment. It also gives them a better understanding of the contribution of different professions, the major competence of each, and the way they fit together in a total study of an individual, family, group or community situation.

Demonstrations are more "real" than role playing or films, though they also make use of listening, talking, seeing and doing.

METHODS OF ASSESSMENT FOR THE QUALIFYING AWARD

General

Schools of social work bear a heavy responsibility in qualifying or refusing to qualify their students. In giving or withholding their qualification they give or withhold a hall mark of competence as a matter of a profession, with all that this should involve. In some instances the qualification automatically admits to membership of a professional association, which may also be equated with recognition as qualified to practise in a particular field. Increasingly as social work becomes established in any country the qualification is a guarantee to the public of a certain minimum standard of competence, which it will obviously expect should be higher than that of the unqualified. In certain circumstances, for example where there is a system of registration, failure to qualify may debar the unsuccessful student from a life career. Whether or not this is so, it is important from the point of view of future clients as well as of colleagues that those who are unsuitable on grounds of personality and inadequate professional attainment should not receive a qualification which is a passport to membership of a professional sub-culture with its code of ethics, its standards of practice and its professional goals. It is for this reason amongst others that professional associations often seek to play a part in the methods and operation of the assessment procedure. It is desirable that they should be able to contribute their experience and point of view, provided this is not done to further vested interests or rigid requirements.

The costs to students of failure are so heavy that they should be avoided by every appropriate means consistent with the preservation of proper standards. These costs are not only financial but also relate to the injury that may be done to a person by being apparently judged and found wanting in a professional education which is a searching test of the whole personality. This points to the fundamental importance for every reason of good selection procedures. It also points to the need for

Careful consideration of doubtful students at suitable points in the course with a view to advising them to leave, if they are unlikely to qualify rather than allowing them to go on and risk failure, unless they themselves insist on continuing.

Before discussing means of assessing students it is necessary to say a few words about the objectives and timing of such assessments. The evaluation of students' performance is presumably an appraisal of the degree to which they are attaining or have attained the major objectives of the course. This involves the objectives themselves having been identified, a group of students having been selected who are thought capable of meeting the objectives at some pre-determined level of competence within a given time span, and these students having had a total educational experience which makes it possible for the majority to attain the objectives. In other words, the success of the students is the culmination of a joint enterprise between themselves, the school and the field work agencies. The failure of any given student therefore must mean that a mistake was made in selection, or that something outside the course happened to him to cause failure, or that the educational experience he was offered was insufficient for his particular needs, either in intensity or length. If a considerable number of students show disappointing results on the various assessment tests this may point to poor selection or to the educational experience being too meagre in various respects to bear the weight of the final tests, or else to the tests themselves being inappropriate.

The total objectives of professional training include, as has been said, knowledge, skill and attitudes. The design of a curriculum to cover these has been discussed already. The final point to be considered is the kind of tests which will evaluate the degree of the students' attainments in these various aspects—and what weight shall be given to each in deciding upon the qualifying award. For example, if one of the objectives is that students should be able to integrate theory and practice, then they must be given steadily more demanding opportunities to do so and the assessment must test their ability, knowledge, skill and attitudes in relation to this.

In general, the tests must really test that which they purport to test. For example, an examination may test knowledge about social work method but it will not be a reliable test of ability to use the knowledge, that is skill. It may also test some attitudes, for example, capacity for critical thought, but it will be a poor test for others, for example a capacity to make good relationships. It is only if the test is related to that which it is desired to test that it will be to a sufficient degree either reliable or objective. Objectivity also means that the actual appraisal of the test results must be as free as possible from subjective bias. This is particularly difficult to achieve in assessing students' development of skill in social work practice. Yet there is no other way to measure this except through assessment of their actual performance over a period of time and in relation to their recorded interviews. If a sufficient number of tests is used, as is inevitable in testing something so varied as professional training, then at some points there will be a consistency between different tests which will add to their reliability and objectivity. If students are tested at various points in the course, for example, by essays and by peri-

odic field work evaluations, the assessments will also show the degree of their progress from one point in time to another. The results of various tests naturally only provide the material on which a judgment may be made: they are not the judgement itself. The final judgement, the decision whether or not to qualify a particular student, must be made as objectively as possible in the light of all the available evidence and in relation to a range of criteria, which are in the last resort decisions about the degree to which the objectives of the course have been attained, and the balance between the attainment of these various objectives.

In the following sections some means of assessing students will be considered, together with their respective merits and demerits.

Examinations

The most usual means of assessment is of course the written or oral examination, answering a series of previously unrevealed questions under prescribed conditions and within a time limit. The advantages claimed for this system are that it requires students to marshal together and focus the work they have done on the course; to get their material into order and thus to clarify their own thought and achievement. This, so it is held, forces students to work and to think in an orderly way who might otherwise do little of either. It is also held to be a more objective and comparable test of progress in certain aspects of the total curriculum than any alternative so far devised.

The disadvantages of the examination system are said to be that it can be an unprofitable interruption of work, forcing students to a degree which obstructs real learning to prepare to give the expected answers to examination questions. It tends to arouse anxiety far beyond the point where this is useful and thus wastes time which might otherwise be given to more disinterested study and integration. In the examinations themselves these emotional effects may obscure intellectual attainments so that the examination may fail to test that which it claims to test; in fact, it is sometimes said, examinations are often tests of endurance rather than of knowledge and ability to think clearly and accurately; they put a premium on ability to verbalise, orally or on paper, which is only one of the range of abilities needed in any profession. And finally, their appearance of objectivity can be misleading, since in marking examination scripts on other than purely factual answers examiners often differ considerably in their marking, so that in fact candidates are right in trying to discover "what the examiner wants to know". Moreover, the system is not adequate to bear the weight put upon it in finally determining the fate of an individual student. Where "examinations . . . alone determine whether or not he is qualified to continue . . . he has a great deal at stake. All that he has learned in class room and field may go down before one set of examination questions."⁸

Oral examinations are sometimes used for candidates who are marginal on their written papers, or else for all candidates. Some claim that for a student to be able to hold his own in this kind of exposition and give and take of discussion is a valuable complementary test to a writ-

⁸ Charlotte Towle, *The Learner in Education for the Professions*, op. cit., p. 386.

ten examination, and that in fact the student receives more stimulus and help in an oral examination. Others would say that a nervous borderline candidate may be so overwhelmed by what to him seems like an inquisition in which he will be judged and found wanting that memory becomes clouded by emotion and he often fails to lay before the examiners any fair sample of his actual achievement.

Those who recognise some of the disadvantages of set examinations would yet say that the over-reaction of some students to a stressful situation is in itself a significant matter to be taken into account; while to be able to meet the demands of an examination successfully is an indication of how other similar life situations have been or will be met. They would also say that the very preparation, intellectual and emotional, to meet this situation is valuable in itself, even though there are other losses from interrupted learning. They might agree that examination results do not have all the objectivity sometimes claimed for them but they would add that the mere fact that examinations are thought to be objective lays them open to less criticism of personal bias than any other test. It is also the practice in many educational institutions to have one or more external examiners in order to reduce this possibility of bias still further.

The design of the examination papers, their number, the point or points in the course at which they are held, and the conditions of the examination itself will naturally affect the nature of that which is tested—and hence the results. The practice of holding examinations at the end of each term may tend to focus the students' energies on gaining superficial knowledge in order to surmount a series of obstacles rather than on sustained study. Some of these disadvantages also apply to tests set by course teachers, unless these are used simply to help students to clarify what they have learned in a defined period. It is clearly not desirable in professional education that examination papers should only be intended to test whether facts have been correctly memorised, nor that they should call for or permit a recapitulation of lecture notes, committed to the students' notebooks and learned up for the examination. Whether or not they do so will, however, depend less on the structure of examination papers than on the total educational method used in the course. On the other hand, questions should be based on what the students will have assimilated at a given point in the course and should be within their capacity to answer, rather than calling for a degree of knowledge and experience which can only be met by unrealistic generalisation.

Preferably questions should be so designed that to answer them calls for knowledge which is analysed, related to principles and considered imaginatively. This means that the examination must be designed so that it is within the scope of any given group of students' capacity to deal with the questions in this way. It is also obvious that the questions must be closely related to the total educational content of the curriculum and deal with matters which the students have studied and discussed. The scope of the questions must also be related to the time given in which to answer them and to the amount which the student group knows about the subjects. Poor examination results come partly from asking questions which are either too difficult or too simple, when in either event the students will not be able to do themselves justice. It should

always be remembered that examinations reflect the quality of the teaching as well as of the taught; indeed the quality of the whole educational experience, as well as of students' native abilities and educational attainment. Trends in examination scripts should therefore be carefully watched as a means to discover whether failures or inadequacies at any point may be partly due to ill-grasped material which has been presented in such a way or at such a point in the course as to confuse the students; or because certain material has not been well integrated with the rest of the curriculum. It is thus always salutary to remember that examinations are tests of teachers and examiners as well as of students. The whole intention behind them should be to enable students to do their best rather than to catch them out at their weakest. The degree to which this is achieved will depend not only on the examinations themselves but also on the extent to which staff and students habitually work together and have confidence in each other. This will also help to determine the degree to which anxieties and hostilities can be diminished so that students find examinations an experience which can contribute to learning, and thus the examinations themselves come nearer to a true assessment of that which they are intended to test.

Other tests

It is increasingly the practice to rely on a variety of tests in social work education rather than upon examinations alone, so far as theoretical studies are concerned. The usual ways in which this is done are to take into account written work throughout the year and also class participation. The practice of giving grades for class work is usual in North America and certain other countries. Essays, dissertations and theses have already been discussed from another angle (see pp. 331-332). Their value as part of the assessment of students' performance for the qualifying award is held to be that they are a much fairer test since they do not arouse the same concentrated anxiety as examinations and they often require more thoughtful and prolonged work on a given subject, so that they may in fact make a higher demand on a student who might "get away with it" in writing short answers to a series of examination questions. Moreover as they are spread throughout the year they test students' abilities over a period of time rather than at a given moment.

Evaluation of field work

In all schools of social work, the students' level of attainment in field work is taken into account for the final award. It is axiomatic that if students are being prepared for professional practice their ability for such practice should be tested for the qualifying award. The school can test knowledge and the ability to think. It can also test knowledge about social work and capacity to express the right attitudes, to analyse a case and suggest treatment possibilities as well as a grasp of psychology, sociology, administration, social policy and social welfare. But it cannot test whether or not the student is able to put this knowledge to use in helping clients, what skill he has begun to develop in individual, group or community relationships used to further social work objectives; and what degree of insight and self-awareness he

has in relation to his practice. This appraisal, then, must primarily be made by those who have supervised him in his field work (see also pp. 273-276). It is, however, necessary for the school to play its part because the appraisal is a test of the supervisor's competence as well as of the student's attainment. Periodic evaluations are therefore the framework within which the effectiveness of both of these is analysed. This is a major reason why it is necessary to have an agreed framework and to develop norms in relation to it. The final responsibility for evaluating the appraisal of field work must of course rest with the school. This is in many ways a far more difficult assessment than that of intellectual attainment, the factors to be isolated and considered are more varied, the nature of that which is being evaluated is more complex, and the element of subjective judgement more difficult to control. In fact, evaluation relates to certain aspects of the student's personality as this has developed in relation to different aspects of his performance in social work. The most basic of these is his capacity to form and sustain relationships which are experienced as helpful by the individuals, groups or communities with whom he has worked, and which the progress of the case shows in fact to have been so to an acceptable extent. This will indicate his grasp and use of social work methods; his ability to gather all the relevant information about a case, to consider alternative hypotheses, to test the social diagnosis which most closely fits the facts and to re-test and change this in the light of progress, to focus effort on defined goals, to change these as may be indicated by the individual's, group's or community's response or by changes in circumstances, and to make appropriate use of other social welfare services and community resources. In addition to direct work with individuals, groups or communities, the degree of the student's administrative ability and his relations with colleagues and members of other professions will also come under review. The use he is able to make of supervision as a means of professional learning will similarly indicate his development in these three aspects of his work, in the same way as his studies at the school indicate his response to the educational programme there—and also his ability to keep these two work places, methods of learning and work relationships in balance with each other.

An evaluation framework is likely to include assessment of:

(a) The student's personality from the angle of effective work with individuals, groups or communities, administrative efficiency, and acceptable relations with work colleagues.

(b) The ways in which strengths for social work practice have been further developed and undesirable "lay" attitudes recognized and dealt with, at the same time that there has been sufficient growth of self-awareness to deal with over-identification, rejection of certain kinds of people, stereotyped behaviour, inability to tolerate strong emotion, and any particular personality defects which may have been a problem for the individual student.

(c) The appropriate application of knowledge and the development of skill in using social work method to help people in ways which are allied to social work philosophy of acceptance of and respect for the individual.

In order to have a frame of reference for evaluation reports many schools use set headings for aspects to be covered in these, though the actual account under the headings may be free-flowing. These headings should be worked out jointly by the school and supervisors and revised from time to time as experience indicates that they could be improved in the light of growing knowledge about the content of field work and evaluation in relation to it. It is also usual to give an evaluation grade mark. Some schools and some supervisors use a straightforward "pass" or "fail". Others prefer finer shadings which in their view do greater justice to the differences in individual performance. It is of course desirable that supervisors should discuss students' progress with them all through the placement, and that there should be a joint evaluation session between the supervisor and the student before the report is prepared so that the student actively participates in and to some degree takes responsibility for his own evaluation. The evaluation will be based upon his performance on his actual caseload, brief particulars should therefore be given of each case he has carried, the reasons for allocating the particular cases to him and what level his performance has reached in relation to his work on them.⁹ When a student's attainments are in doubt a staff member will usually read several of his case records and thus to some degree lessen the subjective elements in the appraisal. Any doubtful student is likely to have been regularly discussed between a staff member and his supervisor, while he is also likely to have manifested similar weaknesses at the school. He will almost certainly have had more than one field work placement, so that two or more evaluation reports will be available and significant similarities or differences can be taken into account and also assessed in relation to his total performance at the school. (For further discussion of field work evaluation see pp. 275-276).

Criteria for the total assessment

If the qualifying award is made on the result of an overall assessment of examinations, essays, a thesis or dissertation, class participation and general performance at the school as well as on field work reports, there is likely to be a sufficient range of material available, showing the student's abilities and development over a period of time, for a reasonably reliable assessment to be made on the basis of knowledge by a sufficient number of people to counteract individual bias. In any event it is assumed that the final decision will be made after thorough discussion on marginal cases at an examiners' meeting. The majority of students should make the grade without question. A few will also fail without question. The real problem is where to fix the standard in relation to marginal students. This is where the responsibilities referred to earlier arise in their most acute form and where it is of the greatest moment to evolve criteria for assessment which are as reliable as is possible in the circumstances. In the last resort it is the student's educational attainment, the degree to which he is able to make helpful relationships with people, and the extent of his rigidity or capacity for growth and change which are being assessed. Mistakes will be

⁹ N. B. The term "case" refers to work with individuals, groups or communities.

made both in passing and failing these marginal students. This is a strong reason to follow them up in their after careers to try to gain more light on the causes of success or failure. Some will also be passed without serious question whose after careers will show that it would have been better if they had not entered the profession. Others whose school record was doubtful may find themselves in situations where latent growth processes are released because they have the kind of experience which minimizes their weaknesses and gives them the opportunity to make good use of their abilities.

PROPOSALS FOR FURTHER ACTION

PROPOSALS FOR FURTHER ACTION

In the light of the relevant consultations in the field and the findings embodied in the present study, the following proposals are made with a view to progressively raising the level of training for social work.

A. MEASURES PROPOSED FOR NATIONAL ACTION

Governments, schools of social work, voluntary social agencies and relevant professional and other associations may wish to consider taking the following action:

(1) Undertaking through collaboration between schools of social work and relevant social agencies a review of the major functions which social workers are or might be called upon to perform, in order to relate training and functions to each other. These studies might also include the deployment of social workers, supply and demand, and issues of employment, salaries, status and promotion prospects, in so far as these affect recruitment and the content of training.

(2) Exploring the measures necessary to attract a sufficient number of appropriately qualified men and women candidates for social work training.

(3) Undertaking studies of methods of student selection and evaluation of performance during and after training. These studies might suitably be related to the evaluation of courses and to the means provided for curriculum review and revision.

(4) Making arrangements for co-ordinating machinery to review the content of training for social work outlined in this Survey. The purpose of such study would be to determine the desirable content and level of training in the country concerned, together with the necessary steps to be taken in order to integrate theory and practice.

(5) Reviewing the resources which are available, or which require to be made available, to schools of social work in the light of curriculum requirements. This would involve not only curriculum analysis but also inquiry to determine the optimum size of schools in relation to overhead costs, staffing, library facilities, range of optional courses, research, field work, staff study leave, and other essential components of the structure, staffing and activities of schools of social work.

(6) Strengthening a working partnership between governmental agencies concerned with social welfare at all levels, schools of social work and appropriate voluntary social agencies, in order to extend and improve the facilities for field work. The steps to be taken by such joint action would be to raise the level of agency practice and of supervision (field teaching) as well as continuously to seek means to bring about a better integration between theory and practice.

(7) Extending the provision made in schools of social work for teaching the social processes of work with communities, including such processes in community development.

(8) Promoting joint discussions between social work teachers and teachers of other related subjects in order to identify the essential content of these subjects in relation to social work theory and method. This would include opportunities for social work teachers to keep abreast of relevant material, for example, in the social and behavioural sciences, in the health field, in social legislation, administration and experimentation.

(9) Considering the availability of teaching materials in order:

(a) To improve the library facilities available to schools of social work;

(b) To undertake and publish studies designed to relate social work theory and practice to local situations;

(c) To collect, edit and make available other material of various kinds for teaching purposes.

(10) Exploring the possible need of opportunities for advanced study in social work, supervision, teaching, research, administration and social planning for experienced social workers, with a view to determining ways in which these needs might be realistically met.

B. MEASURES PROPOSED FOR INTERNATIONAL ACTION

In order to consolidate and expand the gains achieved since the adoption by the Economic and Social Council of resolution 43 (IV) in 1946, and resolution 390 B (XIII) in 1951, consideration should be given by the international organizations concerned to the following proposals:

(1) A high priority should continue to be given to assisting countries:

(a) To assess the extent of their present and future need for trained welfare personnel, and

(b) To establish, evaluate, co-ordinate and improve their facilities for training for social work at both professional and auxiliary levels.

(2) In order to promote the successful operation of new schools of social work, or training programmes, and to improve existing schools and programmes, an international review should be undertaken on a selective basis by means of expert evaluation teams and other appropriate action in order to:

(a) Assess the experience so far gained in establishing and operating such schools or programmes.

(b) Identify the steps to be taken and the principles involved in starting new schools or programmes.

(c) Determine the most effective planning and content of courses in different circumstances and at different stages in the development of training for social work.

(3) A study or studies should be made in order to determine what types of teaching materials are required for use in both professional and auxiliary training programmes and how such materials are being or might be produced and made available. On the basis of such study, the assistance indicated should be made available, nationally or regionally.

(4) Study should be initiated to determine what are or should be the common elements in training for social work and in training of workers in the allied fields of health, education, nutrition, home economics and community development.

(5) Priority should be given to providing regional seminars and study tours designed particularly for faculty members of schools of social work; and also consultant services to help schools with curriculum review and revision, and to improve the quality of teaching both as regards content and educational method. This action should be initiated in relation to other efforts aimed at improved teaching of the social sciences in schools of social work. Possibilities should be explored of facilitating an exchange of teachers between schools of social work in different countries.