INSERVICE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION;

AN ANALYSIS OF POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES

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ABSTRACT.

The research project involved an analysis of social work education and training policies and programmes within a statuatory welfare agency in New Zealand (the Department of Social Welfare).

A functionalist epistemology and methodology was used to examine the Department's inservice social work training policies and programmes. It is argued that there are four central elements to address in social work education and training: the theoretical base, the knowledge base, skills training, and personal development. It is also argued that social work education and training should be informed by empirical study of the nature of social work practice.

The thesis states that an analysis of inservice social work education and training policies and programmes would reveal that social work training within the Department of Social Welfare is: reactive to issues of the day; comprised of a 'patchwork' of unco-ordinated elements; and is centred on meeting the needs of the agency, rather than systematically preparing social workers for practice.

It was found that inservice social work training policies and programmes within the Department of Social Welfare were not based on an explicit theoretical perspective, nor were they grounded in empirical study of the nature of social work practice. Further, the analysis indicated that the four elements of social work education were unevenly covered on training courses and that theory and practice were not integrated. These findings largely support the thesis.

I dedicate this thesis
with my love
to my father
Kenneth H. Swain.
1917 - 1983

PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.

This thesis is about social work education and social work educators. More specifically it is about inservice social work education within a large welfare agency: The Department of Social Welfare. The research examines in-service social work education and training policy and programmes, mounted by the Department, and analyses the social work practice these policies and programmes are intended to prepare social workers for. This thesis is about the integration of theory and practice within social work education and training.

Criticisms are made of current practices, not to score academic points, but to inform a discussion that may lead to improved practices. This present research grew out of my dissatisfaction with my own work as a social work educator and my desire to improve the quality of the training courses I offer. It is my intention to use the knowledge, skills and personal development that I have gained whilst working on this thesis to contribute in some modest way to social work education, and practice, in New Zealand.

Social work is an applied area of study which draws upon many sources for its theory and research methods. This study of inservice social work education and training draws upon Sociological theory, social scientific methods, and curriculum development models, from the discipline of Education, as well as social work theory. As such, it has an interdisciplinary flavour.

This thesis was completed only with the help of a number of people whom I acknowledge here. I recognise and appreciate the contributions of my supervisors, Professor Graeme Fraser and Ian Shirley, who enabled me to focus my thinking, refine my writing style, and helped me to complete this thesis in time. I also acknowledge the

detailed comments and help from Bruce Asher. My work with Professor Brad. Sheafor in 1982 on the Job Analysis Survey led directly into this thesis and I would like to thank Brad for sharing his project and for his enthusiasim. Thanks are also due to Merv. Hancock who supported my master's application, helped me through the first year, and believed that I could complete it. I would also like to record my debt to the Department of Social Welfare for providing a study award and making documents available. Particular thanks to Mr J. Grant, Mr Brian Manchester, Mr Raoul Ketko, and Mr Colin Haynes who have supported me. Further, thanks to the Directors of the Department's training centres, Graham Harbutt, John Groom and Warwick Jory, and the Trainers, for their help and support. Thanks to Natalie Moess for her careful and accurate typing. Finally, thanks, and love to Julie, Simon, Christopher and Maire who lived through 'the thesis' with me.

Although all the above people contributed in some way to this thesis, I take full responsibility for the work, and opinions expressed therein.

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INTRODUCTION.

The aim of this thesis is to study a neglected facet of social work education: inservice training. In New Zealand this education occurs in two major settings: tertiary educational institutions, and welfare agencies. Whereas the role of the universities in social work education has been studied in some depth (Crockett 1977, Daniels 1980, University Grants Committee 1981), the nature of social work training within welfare agencies has remained largely unexamined. This thesis sets out to analyse social work education and training with New Zealand's largest welfare agency, the Department of Social Welfare.

Inservice social work training has been an important feature in the preparation, and continuing education, of social workers in both the statutory and voluntary sectors. A small, though increasing, percentage of social workers in New Zealand have a professional social work qualification (less than 20%, reported by Rochford and Robb, 1981), but the majority rely on inservice training to meet their educational needs. This training has traditionally been the responsibility of welfare agencies, particularly the Department of Social Welfare which has a statutory responsibility to,

> "Provide for training of such persons as the Minister may direct (whether employed by agencies of the Crown or by other organisations) to undertake social welfare activities."
> (Department of Social Welfare Act, 1971)

In analysing social work education a series of issues or themes are evident. The first is the integration of theory and practice. It is argued that social work training policies and programmes should be structured by a theoretical framework. Without an adequate epistemological base policy and programmes simply become reactive

to issues of the day. This is particularly true in relation to curriculum development. Consequently, I have drawn on the work of Parsons, Siporin and Teare to provide an epistemological foundation for this thesis. It can be classified therefore as exemplifying the functionalist tradition.

A second concern of this study is based on the belief that curriculum development and evaluation should be grounded in an empirical study of social work practice. Without this grounding, training policies and programmes are likely to be irrelevant to practitioners, and subject to transient fads and fashions. Alternatively, where social work training policies and programmes are based on theory and grounded in practice they are more likely to be relevant, co-ordinated, and systematically applicable to practice.

A significant component of the present research is the use of an empirical study of social work practice (a Job Analysis) as a means of informing curriculum planning decisions for social work education and training. This thesis is therefore grounded in social work practice through empirical investigation.

Other themes and questions that are explored include: what knowledge, skills and values to be emphasised in developing training programmes? The place, if any, of personal development activities in training courses; professionalism in social work; the accreditation of social workers; what teaching methods, materials and media should be employed in training social workers? And the question of whether the preparation of social workers for practice should be a matter of 'education', 'training' or should include aspects of both these learning processes. The ideologies of various approaches to social work education are also briefly explored.

Chapters One and Two examine the epistemological foundations of this thesis. In Chapter One the basic elements of functionalism are laid out; and the work of Talcott Parsons is developed in some detail. The influence of functionalist theory on social work practice theory, particularly through the work of Siporin, is also examined. Finally the relationship between functionalism and the Job Analysis methodology is outlined.

The central elements of social work education are discussed in Chapter Two. The arguements for 'training' and for 'education' as preparation for social work practice are briefly discussed, and the major models of curriculum development, that may be used in developing social work education and training programmes, are considered.

Chapter Three outlines the methodological issues involved in analysing social work training within the Department of Social Welfare. This chapter reports an analysis of social work training policy statements, on inservice training, from the Department and other agencies. Chapter Four analyses social work training programmes mounted by the Department of Social Welfare.

In Chapter Five the nature of social work practice within the Department is examined. This examination takes the form of a Job Analysis study using a functionalist theoretical orientation. The methodology and findings of the Job Analysis are discussed in detail.

In the final chapter the thesis is recapitulated, and an alternative model for developing inservice social work training policy and programmes is outlined.

CHAPTER 1. FUNCTIONALISM AND SOCIAL WORK THEORY.

Functionalism(1) is one of the most significant social theories to be advanced whenever curriculum development in social work education is discussed. Its origins go back to before Sociology was established as a discipline. Early thinkers believed society was like (or indeed was) an organism whose parts were biologically interrelated. This tradition runs from Plato through to some of the recognised founders of modern Sociology: Compte, Spencer, and Durkheim. (Wells 1978:8) This thesis commences with a discussion of functionalism and its relationship to social work theory.

Functionalism is based on several assumptions about the nature of society. The central focus of the functionalist perspective is culture - the organised values, norms, and beliefs that pattern all of social life. For any society culture is seen as relatively permanent. It gives society its order. Traditionally, functionalism has investigated how the parts of a society function for the total society - that is, what their purpose (function) is in the overall system.

The functionalist view is that each individual role, group and institution has a set task and position (their function) in society, and that we are all interdependent in the running of society. There is no simple assumption that if a thing exists it is good for society. Some functions are harmful (dysfunctions) others merely unintended or hard to perceive (latent functions). Society is seen as held together by common values which are institutionalised and controlled through the influence of education.

Strasser (1981:190) has summarised the basic principles of functionalism as:

"1. Societies are seen as systems of interdependent parts.

2. A system is assumed to be self-maintaining and self-regulating, thus fundamentally in a state of equilibrium.

   a. The different social forces are viewed as parts of a more or less integrated whole and hence explained in relation to the integration of the system, that is, as more or less contributing to it.

   b. Social integration is achieved through value consensus, that is, through goals and principles which most members of a given social system agree on; this consensus is implemented through the mechanisms of institutionalization, socialization, and social control.

3. Accordingly, dysfunctions, strains and conflicts do exist, but they tend to resolve 'themselves' or become 'institutionalized' in the long run.

4. Social change is generally conceived as occurring in a gradual and adjustive manner through differentiation and adaption to extra-systemic pressures."

These principles are exemplified in the work of Talcott Parsons.

Parsons.

Talcott Parsons[2] (1951, 1956, 1966) has been a prolific and influential writer who has had a major impact on social work theory and education. His main task has been in developing an abstract conceptual scheme that applies to all societies and their evolution. His comprehensive theory has been referred to as a 'total'[3] theory. As the term is used here total theory denotes complex, comprehensive, wide ranging theories which provide a comprehensive approach to all aspects of society. Marxism is another classic example of such a theory. Total theory contrasts with more specific theories that deal with particular situations or problems. Such partial (or middle range) theories are developed to explain limited aspects of society. Parsons, though, was interested in theorising on the 'grand scale'.

He saw human action as anagologous to a biological system. Social action is the means through which a social system functions and maintains itself. He identified four 'levels' or systems of action, which are interlinked but which can be studied separately: the biological system, the personality system, the social system and the cultural system. Each system is provided by the other systems with an 'environment' within which it operates.

Of particular interest to Parsons was how these systems maintained themselves and how they resolved the contradictions that threatened their survival. He looked very closely at the social system, in which individuals face a series of choices about how to respond in different situations. In any situation, he found the choices are generally the same, and they provide a sort of 'pattern' to which the individual has to respond. Parsons called them 'pattern variables', and they provide a foundation

for his sociological theories. There are four pattern variables:

"1. Universalism/particularism: the individual has to decide whether to treat a situation as a general one, or as a very special one.
2. Performance/quality: the individual treats a situation either in terms of what it does or achieves; or in terms of its own importance independent of its benefits to him.
3. Affective neutrality/affinity: the individual either sets his feelings aside, or involves his affections in the situation.
4. Specificity/diffuseness: the individual may have very precise relationships with people; or he may have more of a total relationship, and be involved as a whole person."

(New Society, 1981:iii)

Alongside these pattern variables, Parsons identified four 'functional prerequisites'. Any social system (whether a family, a large welfare organisation, or society at large) is seen as having two types of needs: it must maintain itself within its environment, and it must maintain its own internal form. If these needs are to be met the social system must carry out four functions (functional prerequisites) which are:

"1. Adaption: the system has to adapt to the other systems in its environment: it does this by exchanging things it produces for those things it needs from the other systems.
2. Goal-Attainment: the system has to have certain goals and objectives which it must strive to achieve.
3. Pattern-maintenance: all systems must have an energy base, or reservoir of motivation, which powers the system and channels it towards specific actions.

4. Integration: all systems have to guard against the imbalance which can occur in their constituent parts and avoid serious disturbances." (New Society, 1981:iii)

Parsons added a further dimension to his functionalist paradigm. He suggested the systems of action were structured by four 'structural categories': values, norms, collectivities, and roles. Values were seen as the primary connecting element between the social and cultural systems. Norms are primarily social, and regulate social processes and relationships. The collectivity is the category of intra-social structure. And role is concerned with the individual members' boundary between the social system and their personality system.

These four structural categories were further related to the general functional paradigm:

> "Values take primacy in the pattern maintenance functioning of a social system. Norms are primarily integrative; they regulate the great variety of processes that contribute to the implementation of patterned value commitments. The primary functioning of the collectivity concerns actual goal attainment on behalf of the social system. Where individuals perform societally important functions, it is in their capacity as collectivity members. Finally, the primary function of the role in the social system is adaptive. This is particularly clear in the category of service, as the capacity to fulfill valued role-performances is the most basic generalised adaptive resource of any society, though it must be co-ordinated with cultural, organic and physical resources." (Parsons 1966:29)

The final section of this quotation is particularly relevant to this thesis as social work falls into the category of 'service'. Using the Parsonian framework, social work tasks and activities (manifest by individual workers' role-performances), can be seen as maintaining the equilibrium of society. This equilibrium is maintained through the functions of Pattern Maintenance, Integration, Goal Attainment, and particularly Adaption for the personality and social systems of clients, whether individuals, groups or communities.

Functionalism and Social Work Practice Theory.

Numerous social work theorists (eg: Smalley 1967, Siporin 1975, Sheafor 1980, Teare 1981) have adopted functionalist theory and used the central concerns of functionalism as part of their organising frameworks for middle range practice theory. Social work tasks and activities are seen as maintaining the equilibrium of society. Social Welfare and Social Work are societies' efforts to enhance social functioning, of groups and individuals, and to resolve social problems. Social problems can be seen as maladaptive or dysfunctional. They are expressed as difficulties in social functioning of individuals and groups that are of serious concern to many members of society. Social functioning can be seen as adaptive, and is defined as the way individuals and groups behave in order to carry out life tasks and meet their needs.(4)

The work of Siporin provides a clear link between Parsons' Functionalism and Social Work Practice theory.(5) The Social Welfare system is referred to by Siporin as a 'Meta System', that is, a large social system that subsumes many 'subsystems'. He identified some of the subsystems of Social Welfare as: Social Services, Social Welfare Administration, Income Maintenance, Social Welfare Policy and Planning etc. Each subsystem has its own elements. Social Services for example contains: Access Services (information, referral, advocacy), Therapeutic Services (Care, protection, control), and Developmental and Socialisation Services (day care, education and training). This analysis of Social Welfare as a series of interlocking systems is highly compatible with Parsons' functionalist perspective.

Siporin suggests that the primary function of social work is to strengthen and maintain the Social Welfare system to meet basic human needs. Compare this with Parsons' notion, that any social system is seen as having two needs: to maintain itself within its environment, and to maintain its own internal form. The influence of Parsons on Siporin is obvious.

Siporin (1975:34) developed a Task-Role Intervention model for social work practice that is a middle range theory based on the Parsonian functionalist perspective. This model is summarised in Figure 1.1 (over). Here it can be seen that social workers, individually and collectively, work within social institutions, in the dual capacity as agents of stability and agents of change. Their diverse tasks and roles help individuals and groups within the social system (society) to meet their social needs.

In Siporin's model, Parsons' functional prerequisites are renamed 'system task functions'. Each of these system task functions result in specific outcomes, as for example with Adaption which results in viability, maturation and competence if the function is carried out successfully. Siporin links helping processes to these functions and outcomes. Education for example is capable of facilitating competence. Finally specific helping roles are involved in each helping process. In this respect Education may require the roles of teacher, guide, model etc. Siporin's list of helping roles (see Figure 1.1) reads like the job description for the ideal social worker.

FIGURE 1.1. Task-Role Intervention Model for Social Work Practice with Individuals and Social Systems.

System Task Functions	Outcomes	Helping Processes	Helping Roles
1. Adaption.	Viability, Maturation Competence.	Education, socialisation, structure building.	Social parent, socialiser, teacher, guide, model, social reformer, planner, researcher.
2. Integration.	Integrity, solidarity, Interdependence	Relational: communion, inclusion, mutual aid.	Social parent, supporter, protector, mediator, advocate, community organiser, social conscience.
3. Pattern Maintenance.	Autonomy, stability, identity repair.	Rehabilitation, therapy, correction; certification.	Rehabilitator, therapist, healer, restorer, care giver, confessor, guru, social controller, regulator, certifier.
4. Goal Attainment.	Productivity, self-realisation, creativity.	Problem-solving, crisis and conflict resolution.	Counsellor, adviser, enabler, expert problem-solver, broker, referrer, resource person, co-ordinator, administrator, work manager, consultant.

Central to Siporin's model of social work practice is the concept of resources. He suggests that effective social functioning depends on a balance of resources. A resource is defined as any valuable thing that can be used to meet a need or resolve a problem. A resource may be: human or non-human, official or unofficial, internal or external. Resources are means and facilities for the accomplishment of life tasks and goals. In order to provide social work services effectively, social workers need to have knowledge about the whole area of social resources, and skill in assisting people with regard to them. Social welfare agencies can be seen as banks of essential resources needed by people in society. Further, resources are finite, and a social worker acts as a broker between the people and the resources.

Access to resources is seen as a citizens right. Helping interventions in social work may be understood as influential actions through which resources are requested, introduced, mobilised, utilised, interchanged, denied, or withdrawn. Social work is primarily dedicated to programmes to preserve and strengthen human resources, and the social worker mediates between people in need and the resources of the social systems.

According to Siporin's model, social problems arise when social conditions are such that there is difficulty in meeting human needs; a dysfunction is apparent. Social Welfare and Social Work are society's response to these dysfunctions. In this way social work is both preventative (in maintaining social functioning through developmental services and income maintenance) and rehabilitative (by working on social problems through therapeutic and access services and by social action).

Siporin has operationalised the general abstract concepts of Parsons' scheme in to a concrete middle range practice theory. He has taken Parsons' scheme step-by-step from the abstract down to the concrete, connecting abstract concepts with roles that social workers perform. He has, in fact, attempted to use theory to inform practice and to provide practitioners with an organising framework within the functionalist tradition.

Empirical Studies of Social Work Practice.

The work of Teare(6) (1981) and Sheafor(7) (1982) provide an empirical analysis of the tasks and skills involved in social work practice. These studies utilise a functionalist theoretical framework, but unlike Siporin, they have studied social work practice inductively, moving from practice to theory. These studies have been used to inform curriculum development decisions (Sheafor 1982) and to validate educational qualifications for social work positions (Teare, see N.A.S.W. 1981).

Teare has made several studies of the tasks social workers perform. His preferred methodology is a Job Analysis.

> "Basically a Job Analysis may be defined as the process wherein tasks performed by workers and employed in a particular job are identified and verified." (Finch and Crunkilton 1979:121)

There are a range of Job Analysis methods. Perhaps the simplest distinction is between analyses that generate worker-orientated information, and analyses that generate work-orientated information. The former would result in a listing of abstract worker characteristics or attributes; the latter in a description of observable tasks, duties, and activities that are performed on the job. Teare has focussed on the work-orientated Job Analysis method because it is specific with respect to job content and it is able to identify critical or important job activities. (N.A.S.W. 1981:6)

In 1968 the United States Department of Health Education and Welfare began a national study of workers in social welfare and rehabilitation. Teare was involved in this study, and subsequent studies through to 1981. His task was to field test data collection instruments and

methodology. One of the instruments developed was a distant ancestor of the Job Analysis Questionnaire (J.A.Q.) that was used to generate data for this thesis.

The first step in developing the J.A.Q. was to compile a bank of task data that would describe the work activities of social workers in a range of different practice settings. A stratified sample of 747 workers (from a total of 14,500 employees) from welfare agencies in the state of Florida was chosen. These workers were asked to compile a five day work diary about the work they performed. Respondents used a standard format to describe each task, to indicate its duration, and to specify its frequency.

This generated some 30,000 specific task statements. These statements were screened by experienced workers and statements that described the same task, despite differences in client and setting, were grouped together. These tasks were further refined and synthesised into 358 Representative Task Descriptions (R.T.D.).

The 358 tasks, which came to be called the Florida Task Bank (F.T.B.), still had to be organised in some way. Teare used a series of 'functional roles' he had developed in a previous project (Teare and McPheeters 1970) as an organising framework. This project had been undertaken under the auspices of the Southern Regional Education Board, of the State of Georgia, in Atlanta. (The S.R.E.B. Project). The S.R.E.B. Project included a series of symposia and workshops, for social service workers in the south-east. The results of this project were summaried by Teare and McPheeters as a listing of Social Welfare goals, objectives and the roles workers perform. (see over)

"Basic Social Welfare Goals

1. Promotion of positive social functioning: activities that are directed toward client systems functioning at a level of well-being. These interventions are designed to enhance self- or community-actualisation. Problem prevention is a by-product of these activities.
2. Prevention: intervention that takes place at the risk stage of problem development. It is aimed at removing obstacles or barriers to need fulfillment.
3. Treatment: activities that occur at the problem or crisis stage in which the primary objective is the elimination of the acute difficulties being experienced by the client system.
4. Maintenance: activities that are directed toward client systems no longer able to cope with problems. These interventions are usually continuous activities and are often required for long periods of time."

(Teare, 1981:15)

"Intermediate Social Welfare Objectives.

1. Detection: identification of individuals, groups or structures that are experiencing crises or are at risk, and identification of conditions in the environment that are causing problems or increasing risks.
2. Linkage: physical connection of a client system with existing sources of help or connection of elements of the service delivery system with one another.
3. Advocacy: active removal of obstacles or barriers that prevent people from exercising rights, receiving benefits, or using

needed resources.

4. Mobilisation: the assembling and energising of new or existing groups, resources, organisations, or structures to deal with problems or to prevent them from occuring.
5. Instruction: conveying information and knowledge, increasing awareness, and developing skills of others.
6. Behaviour change: bringing about modification in behaviour, attitudes, values and perceptions of various client systems.
7. Information processing: collection, classification, and analysis of data (about clients, organisations, communities) within a social welfare context.
8. Administration: planning, direction, control, and evaluation of a facility, organisation, programme or service unit.
9. Continuing care: provision of ongoing treatment and support on an extended basis. These activities can be carried out in institutional, community or home settings."

(Teare, 1981:15-16)

These goals and objectives, summarised in the quotations above, were seen as the centres of gravity of Social Welfare activity from which specific interventions and tasks could be developed. The parallels between these goals, objectives and roles and Siporin's Task-Role Intervention Model (refer to Figure 1.1) are many and obvious. For example, the movement from abstract goals to concrete roles in Teare, compares with Siporin's move from System Task Functions to Helping Roles. Further the S.R.E.B. basic Social Welfare goals appear to closely parallel Parsons' functional prerequisites.

Throughout his summary of the S.R.E.B. Project, Teare (1981:10-17) utilises functionalist terminology and concepts. For example:

> "...Domains of Living. They represent the different spheres of human existence in which individuals, groups, and social institutions attempt to function." (1981:13)

Teare's term 'domains of living' is similar to Parsons' concept of 'the human action system', comprised of the biological, personality, social and cultural systems, in which individuals and collectivities function. Another quotation from Teare reinforces the comparison and his theoretical debt to functionalism.

> "When service workers deal with social problems, they attempt to maintain or alter the state of functioning of target groups (that is, clients, groups, organisations, or communities) in one or more domains of living by dealing with or overcoming various obstacles to functioning." (1981:12)

The report of the S.R.E.B. Project indicated that the S.R.E.B. model for social work grew out of the symposia and workshops, and was crystalised by Teare and McPheeters (1970). This model is clearly in the functionalist tradition.

The S.R.E.B. model was used as an organising framework for the 358 tasks from the F.T.B. Panels of experts (Social Service workers) took each R.T.D. and assigned it to one of the eleven 'functional roles'. Within the eleven roles a number of specific sub-categories or substantive areas were identified (21 in all). (The functional roles, substantive areas and the number of tasks assigned to each is depicted in Table 1.2.) When complete the Florida Task Bank consisted of 358 carefully written task statements set into an organising framework based on a functionalist theoretical perspective.

TABLE 1.2 Content Areas of the Florida Task Bank.

Role.	Substantive Area.	Number of Tasks.
Broker	Arranging services	13
Consumer Advocate	Advocating for individuals	2
Activator	Developing resources and support	6
Systems Advocate	Generating support for change	1
Counselor	Guiding/advising consumers	17
	Coaching/training consumers	26
Consultant	Training staff/lay persons	15
	Exchanging knowledge with collegues	4
Rehabilitator	Providing behaviour treatment	10
Care Giver	Regulating activities	12
	Providing physical/ medical assist.	10
	Providing daily living care	33
Client Programmer	Collecting/recording consumer information	23
	Planning/organising services	15
	Evaluating/processing consumer information	14
Systems Researcher	Collecting/organising/ reporting operational information	15
Administrator	Co-ordinating	27
	Planning	11
	Managing personnel	33
	Monitoring procedures	27
	Carrying out support activities	44
	Total	358

Note. Material has been paraphrased and abbreviated to facilitate presentation.

This framework was based on a logical organisation of content, and lacked the empirical rigour that was to come from Teare's ongoing work. Teare developed the first version of the Job Analysis Questionnaire (J.A.Q.) by drawing heavily on the task descriptions he had researched for the F.T.B. This first version was used to collect data about social work practice for the Alabama Department of Pensions and Security (D.P.S.). After this study Teare set about refining the J.A.Q.

To do this Teare used an hierarchical grouping procedure (Ward and Hook, 1963) to group 77 tasks into 12 task clusters. A profile of each task statement was constructed, using the standard scores of the 661 respondents to the D.P.S. survey. The profiles were then compared with each other using the error criterion procedure (Teare 1981:36-37) and the tasks were recombined into homogeneous clusters. Each cluster consisted of items that were highly correlated across the sample of workers.

> "Since these clusters were composites of a number of tasks, they were much more stable than any single task and thus a better vehicle for describing the similarities and differences among resnonents and their jobs."
>
> (1981:37)

A series of revisions of the J.A.Q. were made by Teare, and the early instrument was refined and enlarged to comprise 136 tasks organised into 23 task clusters. It was this form of the J.A.Q. that was used by the National Association of Social Workers for its National Classification Validation project (N.A.S.W., 1981).

Professor Bradford Sheafor, Colorado State University, was a Curriculum Consultant to the N.A.S.W. project. In 1982 he was a Fulbright Visiting Professor to the Social Work Unit, Sociology Department, Massey University. During his visit Professor Sheafor conducted a curriculum development exercise utilising the methodology developed

by the N.A.S.W. for its National Classification Validation project. This involved a Job Analysis and a Curriculum Analysis. It is the Job Analysis, which used the J.A.Q., that is of particular interest to this thesis and is reported in detail in Chapter 5.

NOTES.

1. Functionalism is also referred to as Structural-Functionalism or Systems Theory by some writers (Wells 1978:10). The terms Consensus theory or Equilibrium theory are also used. The functionalist tradition encompasses a range of 'schools', Wells (1978:7 -45) provides a good introduction. Parsons (1951, 1956, 1966) is the dominant theorist. Other significant figures include Merton (1957), and more recently the 'systems' theorists, especially Buckley (1967). Major critics of functionalism include: Homans (1964), Cohen (1968), and Gouldner (1970). Their major criticism of functionalism (especially of Parsons) is about its conservatism. Particular points they raise are: the lack of attention paid to conflict and change; the almost complete lack of reference to Freud and Marx; and functionalisms remoteness from the real world of action. Despite these criticisms, functionalism is still a major force in Sociology, and a potent influence on Social Work theory and practice.

2. The Social System (1951), was Parsons' first major attempt to spell out a functionalist theoretical framework. An introduction to Parsons can be found in Wells A. (Ed.),(1978).

3. See also: 'Talcott Parsons 1902-1979.' New Society (1981).

4. Summarised from Siporin M., (1975) pp. 30-38.

5. Practice theory represents the models of intervention that have been created by social workers for their own use, they are unique to social work practice and represent the disciplines own theoretical growth. Theory for practice represents the

wide range of theory that social work practitioners use which are derived from the physical, psychological and social-sciences. Specific concepts are drawn from their primary disciplines of Sociology, Psychology, Philosophy, Political Science etc. and are then translated for application in typical Social Work situations. (Baker 1980) There is a constant interplay between theory for practice and practice theory.

6. Teare has written in detail about the development of Job Analysis as a methodology for investigating social work practice. The major reference is: Teare , R., Social Work Practice in a Public Welfare Setting: An Empirical Analysis, (1981). The major application of this methodology is reported in: Teare, R., Gauthier, T., and Field, H., The National Classification Validation Project, N.A.S.W., (1981). A 'draft' copy of the final report of this project was given to me by Prof. Sheafor. This is the only copy in New Zealand. I have drawn on this, and Teare's book in particular throughout this chapter.

7. Sheafor B., Social Work Practice in New Zealand: An Analysis For Education and Training Curriculum Development, Massey 1982. This is the major written report by Prof. Sheafor of his work in New Zealand. An article reporting on this study is forthcoming in the Journal of Education for Social Work.

CHAPTER 2. SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION AND TRAINING.

The goal of social work education and training, from a functionalist viewpoint, is to prepare social workers to perform their tasks and roles effectively within a welfare agency. Through the performance of these tasks and roles they will enhance the social functioning of their clients and help to resolve social problems. What then are the central elements of social work education and training?

Smalley (1967:303) suggests that there are four central elements: firstly, social work education needs to have a consistent theoretical base underlying it, grounded in practice and based on principles derived from practice; secondly, a knowledge base, appropriate to established method(s) of social work practice is required; thirdly, there should be skills practice in the use of social work practice methods, through the application of principles of practice; fourthly, there should be opportunities for personal development that allows workers to use their own uniqueness as part of an agency staff or operational 'whole'.

The Theoretical Base.

There are a range of middle range practice theories, in the functionalist tradition, evident in the social work literature (Smalley 1967, Siporin 1975, Middleman and Goldberg 1978, Sheafor and Morales 1981). But it appears that few social work educators and trainers, and even fewer practitioners, are trying to use practice theories. Bartlett (1970) suggested that some social workers are fearful that theoretical models are too controlling, but she also identified the positive aspects.

> "Perspectives and frames of reference are positive devices for more effective thinking.

> They give professions their distinctiveness; they identify what is characteristic and thus give the practitioner security; they describe what is common so that thinking can converge; they are essential for effective communication which requires that people be in the same universe of discourse; they are essential for cumulative thinking and theory building."
>
> (1970:206)

Other social workers condem 'theories' as having little relevance to everyday problems, and do not experience themselves as working according to a theory. However that they are without any theoretical guidelines in their work is subject to doubt. It is highly probable that most social workers have implicit theoretical notions of which they may not be aware. A careful examination of social workers' behaviour and work will often reveal the assumptions behind it. As Stefflre (1965) noted:

> "The real question then is not whether we shall operate from theory, since we have no choice in the matter, but rather what theories we shall use and how we should use theories."
>
> (1965:3)

Implicit in this statement is the assumption that it is desirable for social workers to be aware of their theoretical points of view.

A theory, like any scientific tool, has little intrinsic value. The value can only be assessed by the use the theory can be put to. If a social worker finds no practical assistance from a theory then it is of no value. On the other hand, a worker who understands how to put a theory to a constructive use has a tool that will provide practical assistance and benefits both for the worker and to the clients they serve.

A theory can help the worker to understand the behaviour of clients (whether individuals, groups, families or communities), by describing, interpreting, and predicting behaviour. It also provides a base for the organisation of knowledge. From this understanding possible goals and changes can be made, based on the proposed direction of work and on the understandings of the client or client group. With these perspectives the worker is in a better position to judge the possible impact of selected interventions. The appropriateness of interventions can be assessed against an hypothesis derived from the workers' theoretical orientation. Hence a theory is used to suggest possible objectives, and how those objectives may be achieved. Further, outcomes can be evaluated and understood in a systematic way on the basis of theory.

A theory is a useful tool for the worker to understand the broader social, economic and political issues that surround, and at times may engulf, both the worker and client. Feelings of uncertainty, confusion and powerlessness can be reduced by the worker who has a framework to explore, "What would I do if ....?" questions to experiences not yet met.

Another constructive use of a theory is action research. This research can be based on the workers' own observations, grounded in their theoretical perspective, and can add to the knowledge base of social work. As workers continue to integrate experiences into the theoretical orientation they adopt, alternative strategies for new situations can be tested, adapted, integrated, or rejected. This process can increase a sense of competence and reduce anxiety over the ambiguity and unexpectedness that is part of the nature of social work.

It would be naive to assume that a theory will always be used constructively. Theories do not act; workers do, and they can readily misuse the same tool that yields the benefits noted above. Some of the possible misuses of a theory will now be briefly examined.

Firstly, there is the problem of reification. A worker can become a 'slave' to a theory, accepting notions from it as truth. This pushes a theory beyond its limitations, a theory is a guide to understanding not a fact. A worker who uncritically accepts a theory becomes at least ineffective, at worst destructive.

A second misuse is when a worker uses a theory to understand a client but then formulates the direction the client 'should' proceed according to 'theory'. This misuse may be compounded when the client does not respond as predicted, and the worker continues dogmatically 'according to theory', not according to the reality of the client. A rigid theoretical position may result in a failure to understand the uniqueness of individuals.

A third misuse, is when the worker discovers a theory, treats it as 'the way', and then attempts to convince collegues of its 'truth'. Such prostelizing is seldom helpful. The realisation that other theories have their own validity is a step towards mature theorising. Though workers may share an identical theoretical orientation, it is suggested that each workers' application of theory is a personal statement reflecting unique experiences.

The choice and use of a theoretical base for social work practice, education, and training is seen as critical, for it is from this base that decisions about knowledge, skills and other curriculum issues are made.

The Knowledge Base.

The knowledge base underpinning social work education and training is derived from social works own developing practice theory and selected key concepts reformulated for use in typical social work situations.

Smalley (1967:288) identified four areas of knowledge that social work education and training will necessarily be concerned with. The first area was the 'terrain', or context within which social work is practiced; that is, the welfare programmes and operations, social legislation and policy, and the relationship of each of these to the socio-economic scene within which social work operates. This would translate, in functionalist terms, to an understanding of the social systems, and sub-systems, and the environment of social work.

The second area Smalley identified was human growth, human behaviour, and the way individuals use and are affected by the environment and social provesses, and in turn effect that environment and those processes. This area of knowledge again refers to the social system but it also encompasses an understanding of the personalities of individuals in the social system.

The third area includes an understanding of the processes of scientific enquiry that allow workers to examine and work on social problems, welfare organisation, and social work practice in an informed manner.

The fourth area is that of the basic principles of social work methods, their similarities and differences.

Social work knowledge is knowledge about the human action systems, how they work and how they change. The social worker is particularly interested in the social systems and the personality system of their client or client

groups. In order to provide social work services effectively, social workers need to have knowledge about resources, and skill in assisting people with regard to them. The social worker needs to know how to go about providing material resources (eg. social welfare benefits); how to facilitate the development of inner resources (eg. the development of self esteem within a client); and how to develop community resources (eg. the development of a community action programme). This knowledge may not necessarily be the preserve of each social worker but may be shared among an agency 'team'. The resource of knowledge should, in the functionalist view, be freely available to all individuals and groups in society.

The 'terrain', or context, of social work activity changes as the issues and problems in society change. Social work knowledge needs to adapt to these changes. Toffler (1970, 1980) and other social commentators have raised the issue of accelerated change and the vast increase of information. Brennen (1978:26), in response to the 'knowledge explosion', suggests social work curriculum materials should be chosen for their relevance, flexibility, and durability.

The functionalist position, on social work knowledge, favours understanding the social and personality systems of client and client groups; the processes of scientific enquiry; and the basic principles of social work methods. These broad understandings enable the social worker to come to terms with the rapidly changing context of social work practice.

The Skill Base.

Traditionally the functionalist approach to social work skills has led to a 'methods' approach to social work practice. Smalley (1967:177-268) originated the methods approach, and gave a detailed account of how social work

methods could be applied to casework, group work, and community organisation. She was the leader of the methods approach which has recently come under criticism. Baker (1980:31) has warned of the danger of social work methods becoming ends in themselves, resulting in 'method fetishism'. He also suggested the method approach led to specialisation, and fragmentation within social work and the compartmentalisation of problems.

Despite the criticisms of the methods approach, which is characterised by the application of principles of practice, skill is still a central concern for social work education and training. Social work educators have moved on from Smalley. Middleman and Goldberg (1974), Siporin (1975), and Baker (1980), have argued that there is a common base of skills for social workers, and that these skills can be applied to different settings.

Middleman and Goldberg (1974:45) identified thirty-six discrete skills which they organised into six groups based on the time phases or work. Particular skills were linked to specific phases of an interview, for example at the beginning of an interview, the worker would aim to 'set the stage' by arranging the physical setting and positioning him or herself to help communication with the client.

Baker (1980:30) suggested that the common skills for social workers were: listening, observing, interacting, assessing, planning, focussed intervening, recording, and re-evaluating. Siporin (1975:163) developed a similar scheme based on the skills of: engagement, intake, assessment, planning, intervention, evaluation and termination.

Though each of these attempts to organise the skills of social work practice have resulted in a slightly different listing of skills, they have a common characteristic in that they systematically organise social work

tasks and activities into a series of skills that can be taught, practiced, performed and assessed. Skills training, based on the principles of practice and informed by current knowledge, is characteristic of the functionalist approach to social work education and training.(1)

Personal Development.

Social work is by its very nature a highly personal activity. Indeed, Brandon (1976:48) argues that,

"Compassion lies at the heart of all helping."

How can education and training help a trainee become the kind of person capable of functioning effectively as a social worker? Does a welfare agency have a role in promoting personal development?

The issue of personal development has presented great problems for social work educators. Some have resolved the problem by ignoring it, or by saying that it is a 'personal' matter. Others have provided 'growth' or encounter experiences as part of their social work training programmes.

The functionalist position on this issue is an active one. Workers are encouraged to become creative within a pattern, to achieve and continue their own development as a unique person, but discipline themselves to use their uniqueness within an institutionalised profession. This requires them to learn to function and contribute as part of an agency staff or operational 'whole'. Further it asks that each worker is to achieve what is necessary, in their own growth, in order that they may consistently, compassionately, and generously put themselves at the service of their clients, through the use of relationship skills and personal involvement. Within the functionalist perspective, personal development is encouraged as an integral part of social work

education, and is not divorced from the acquisition of knowledge or the development of skills.

Education v. Training, the Functionalist position.

The terms 'education' and 'training' are central to any discussion of the preparation of social workers for practice. Frequently these terms are used interchangably or inaccurately, which has led to some confusion in the literature. Education and training can be seen as two discrete learning processes. R.S. Peters (1970:34) suggests 'training' refers to learning processes which result in competence in a limited skill or mode of thinking. 'Training' involves the acquisition of skills to be learned for a specific end. 'Education' on the other hand suggests a linkage with a wide system of beliefs. In 'education' students not only acquire knowledge, skills, and ways of behaving but acquire these in a way which involves understanding and evaluating the rationale underlying the knowledge, skills, and ways of behaving. 'Education' thus involves the development of a 'critical edge' to the minds of workers.

Crockett (1977) uses the terms training and education synonymously throughout his study of social work education in New Zealand. On a professional social work course, he suggests:

> "The twin processes of education and training are seen as interwoven and, for practical purposes, indistinguishable." (1977:vi)

Pilalis (1982:25-28) suggests the processes of education and training are linked to alternative educational ideologies. Training is favoured by conservative ideologies as a preparation for social work, and education is the goal of liberal and critical-libertarian ideologies.

The functionalist position on the 'training v. education' debate is clear. The preparation of social workers for practice requires not only the acquisition of skills for a specific end but an understanding and evaluation of the wider social systems involved. Smalley's (1967)

emphasis on the four central elements of social work education (knowledge, skills, personal development, and a theory) clearly places the functionalist position in favour of a broad social work education for the preparation of social workers for practice.

It will be argued throughout this thesis that the separation of training and education is a false one, and that the preparation of social workers, whether inservice or otherwise, needs to integrate these learning processes. Learning activities may have a 'training' or 'education' emphasis but it is not consistent with the functionalist perspective to have 'training' without 'education' or 'education' without 'training'.

Curriculum Development for Social Work Education and Training.

The literature of Curriculum Development, a specialism within the discipline of Education, provides a basis for understanding and classifying the processes that may be used to develop social work training and education programmes.

Whilst there is no general theory, acceptable to all curriculum specialist, there is a consensus concerning the generic components of curriculum construction. There is agreement that, in one form or other, curriculum development includes: identification of educational goals and objectives; selection and organisation of content, learning activities, and teaching processes; and evaluation of student outcomes and the effectiveness of the design process (see Gay 1980:120-121). What approach should be taken to accomplish these tasks is open to debate.

Gay (1980) identifies four discernable models for conceptualising the curriculum planning process.

1. The Academic Model which is based on academic rationality and theoretical logic. The curriculum specialist makes unilateral decisions about curricula, and a value is placed on the 'experts' intellectual skills and objectivity to make these decisions. This approach tends to lead to discipline or subject centred instructional designs. Tyler (1949), Phenix (1962), and Parker and Rubin (1966) are exemplars of this model.
2. The Experiential Model is subjective, personalistic, heuristic, and transactional. It favours a learner-centred, activity-orientated approach to teaching and learning. A high value is placed on finding personal meaning from educational experiences. Self-directed, self-paced, unstructured and personalised instructional designs are favoured. Rogers (1954),

Bettelheim (1969), and Foshay (1975) have each contributed to this approach.

3. The Technical Model seeks to maximise educational progress, proficiency and performance through the principles of scientific management and production operating in industry. The basis for sound curriculum decision making is the logic of systems-analysis, empiricism, scientific objectivity and managerial efficiency. Typical instructional programmes would include programmed learning and competency based packages or C.R.I. (Criterion Referenced Instruction) programmes. (As used on the clerical training programmes in the Department of Social Welfare.) Theorists include: Bobbitt (1918), Thompson (1971) and Gagne (1974).
4. The Pragmatic Model perceives instructional planning as a particularistic, localised process that is specific to the socio-political milieu of the context in which it occurs. Of particular interest is the informal political negotiations, power allocations and consensus building that takes place among different interest groups. Curriculum changes are made through small incremental moves on a particular problem rather than through comprehensive reform. In many ways this model can be seen more as an implementation process rather than a design model. Exponents of the pragmatic approach include: Walker (1971), Jennings (1972) and Della-Dora (1976).

These four models form the 'mainstream' of curriculum development theory. Among other models, one in particular has implications for social work education and training. This model is based on the work of Paulo Friere (see Brigham 1977 and Shirley 1982) and is a Cultural Action model.

The Cultural Action Model is not a matter of techniques or methods but rather a whole stance, a matter of basic relationship. The approach is based on the following elements:

"1. Learners are subjects, not objects.
2. The traditional vertical teacher-student pattern needs to be changed to a horizontal dialogue about a world to be transformed, a world in which people create their own reality.
3. It is necessary to try to achieve a unity of theory and practice.
4. Education is not, cannot be neutral.
5. Content and process are and ought to be strongly related." (Brigham 1977:7)

Friere has influenced social work practice and education, particularly radical practice. Leonard (1975) argues that the Cultural Action Model of Friere,

> "...is an educational process which is designed to develop praxis, critical reflection on reality and subsequent action upon it." (Leonard 1975:54)

Social work students, following a Cultural Action Model, would live their experience with the 'oppressed' and, in dialogical action with a group, develop goals and plans of action.

> "The overall objective (of the Cultural Action Model) is to conscientize the disadvantaged sectors of society so that their dignity, liberty and freedom is enhanced. There is no rigid theoretical framework of operation because theory is constantly modified and enriched through action, but the ultimate objective is a society based on principles of equity and social justice."
>
> (Shirley 1982:7)

Gay (1980:121) suggested that any single conceptual model was rarely used to guide curriculum practice. Rather, an eclectic approach is more likely to be adopted.

> "In the act of creating curriculum, they combine bits and pieces of content and processes from different theoretical models to make their actions coherent or to develop a workable format that can turn the potential chaos of conflicting demands, needs, and interests of different constituent groups into reasonable, manageable instructional plans." (1980:121)

Despite this 'reality' there is a place for theory in curriculum practice. Taba (1962) declares that,

> "...any enterprise as complex as curriculum development requires some kind of theoretical or conceptual framework of thinking to guide it." (1962:413)

The functionalist position on curriculum development includes elements of two of the conceptual models identified above; the Academic Model and the Technical Model.

The Academic model contributes theoretical logic and rationality, which is evident in the functionalists' insistence on a consistent theoretical perspective underlying social work training policies and programmes (Smalley, 1967). The Technical model is concerned with clear links between the tasks workers undertake and the training they receive to develop competence at those tasks. The work of Teare (1981) and Sheafor (1982) is clearly in the technical tradition of curriculum development. They both use an empirical analysis of social work tasks to establish priorities for social work education and training.

It may be argued that the Experiential model for curriculum development is relevant to the functionalist perspective because it emphasises personal development.

However the functionalist position clearly links personal development with the welfare agency and its functioning, this would conflict with the Experiential educators' emphasis on self-directed, personalised education.

The functionalist perspective embodies a theoretical logic and rationality which it links closely to the tasks social workers undertake in their practice, and as such draws from the Academic and Technical models of curriculum development. This thesis will now examine the curriculum development processes within the Department of Social Welfare utilising the theoretical models outlined.

NOTES.

1. See Swain P., Interviewing Skills for Social Workers, Social Work Unit, Sociology Department, Massey University 1982, (Revised 1983). This is an example of how skills training, based on a functionalist theoretical orientation, can be operationalised to help prepare social work students for practice.

CHAPTER 3. SOCIAL WORK TRAINING POLICIES.

Methodology.

Functionalism has no single method of analysis, rather the functionalist employs an eclectic approach to research. Functionalist method favours empiricism and objectivity, specific research methods are employed for specific research problems. This thesis utilises three different methods: Document Analysis, Interviews, and a Job Analysis, to analyse the central elements of inservice social work education within the Department of Social Welfare.

The first step in the document analysis was to decide on the sample. It was decided to restrict the sample to documents from the five years 1979 to 1983, and to select only documents that were concerned with inservice social work training policy and programmes. The intention was to deal with current issues, rather than historical material, as the history of social work education in New Zealand has been well covered by Crockett (1977).(1)

The documents were then collected, collated and analysed. Collection and collation presented few problems as there is a paucity of policy documents on inservice social work training policy and the Annual Social Work Staff Training Programmes were readily available. The lack of policy statements however was a continuing problem. There was no definitive statement of the Department's Social Work Staff Training policy. Analysis of documents had to rely on policy statements gleaned from the Staff Training Programmes.

Two other organisations have a particular interest in inservice social work training: the New Zealand Social Work Training Council and the New Zealand Association of Social Workers. Documents were also obtained from these

two organisations, that covered the time frame 1979 to 1983, these documents were analysed. (see Appendix C.)

The policy and programme analysis focused on four central elements of social work education and training: the need for a consistent theoretical base; the requirement for an established knowledge base; the need for skills practice, in the use of social work methods; and the opportunity for personal development for workers to understand themselves, vis a vis the agency. Policy documents were scrutinised to see how they addressed these elements (if indeed they did at all), and training programmes were examined using similar criteria. This analysis is reported below.

Interviews were the second method used to collect data on the Department of Social Welfare's inservice staff training policies and programmes. The Directors of the three social work training centres run by the Department were interviewed.(2) These people have a pivotal role in implementing inservice training policy and it was thought that their understandings of policy and programmes would supplement the meagre quantity of policy statements available in documents.

Practical considerations required two separate interviews. Firstly the directors of the two field work training centres were interviewed, and then the director of the residential work training centre was interviewed, later in the same day. This may have led to some methodological problems (ie. slightly different conditions in each interview, and exchange of views). However attempts were made to reduce these problems by using a standard set of questions,(3) following up responses with clarifying questions, and preparing a transcript of the tape recorded interviews.

Discussions were also held with the Assistant Director (Social Work Training), who co-ordinates all social work training within the Department of Social Welfare, and the Secretary of the New Zealand Social Work Training Council. These interviews were intended to provide background information on inservice training policy and programmes, as such they were less structured and not tape recorded.

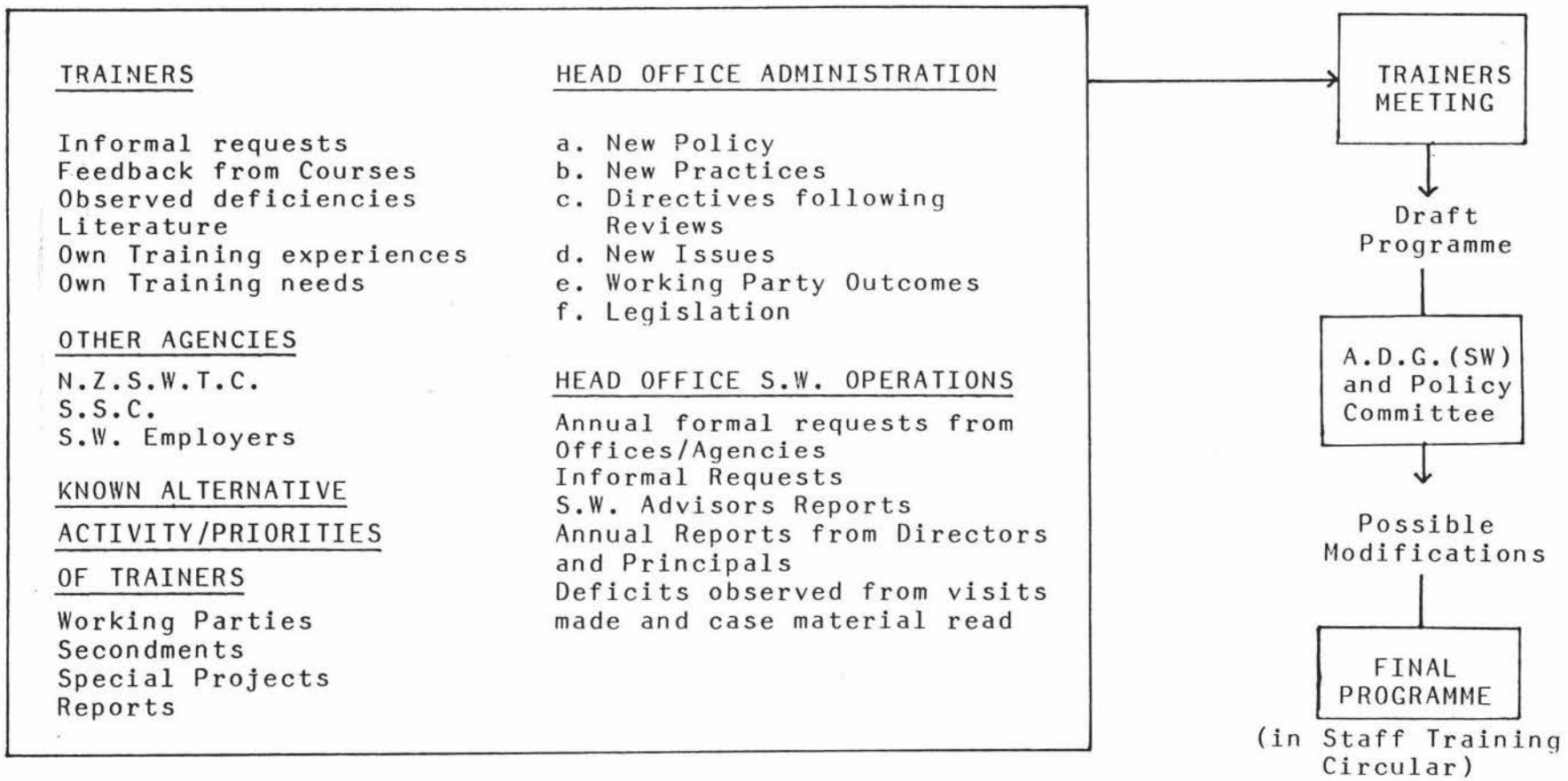
It was intended, by using two different methods to gather data, that the evidence gained would be corroborated thereby increasing the reliability of the research.

To set the scene for the analysis of inservice social work training policy and programmes, the process by which policy and programmes are developed within the Department of Social Welfare has been described and discussed. (see Figure 3.1)(4)

The process involved: information gathering, negotiation, and decision making. A series of inputs of information were prepared by training staff, head office Administration and Operations divisions, and processed at a meeting of training staff (usually in June-July). A draft programme, for the next years inservice training courses, was then prepared and submitted to senior management for approval. This draft programme could be modified on the request of the Assistant Director General (Social Work) and the Training Policy Committee before a final programme was published in the Annual Social Work Staff Training Programme (usually in October-November).

The Pragmatic Model of curriculum development comes closest to describing the process that takes place within the Department of Social Welfare which is based on a series of negotiations between the formal and informal hierarchies within and outside of the Department. The process is specific to the Department, and whilst some advice is

FIGURE 3.1 SOCIAL WORK STAFF TRAINING PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT
FLOW CHART OF THE PROCESS WITHIN THE D.S.W.



sought from outside agencies (eg. N.Z.S.W.T.C.), there is no accountability to these agencies. The process is centralised, bureaucratic, and based on the agency's need to have a trained staff for effective functioning. Further, changes in the curriculum occur through small incremental changes rather than comprehensive reform (this will become evident in Chapter Four). These points support the notion that the process of developing social work training policy and programmes within the Department of Social Welfare is based on pragmatism. The Assistant Director (Social Work Training) summed up the pragmatic nature of the process when he commented,

> "There are things we must do; things we should do; and things we would like to do: and we try to do a bit of each."

Policy Analysis.

This thesis concentrates on five elements that contribute to the Department of Social Welfare's inservice social work training policy: the legislation (ie. the Department of Social Welfare Act 1971), head office policy statements, the training centres' views, and the positions of the New Zealand Social Work Training Council, and the New Zealand Association of Social Workers.

The Legislation.

The primary statement of social work training policy can be found in the legislation that established the D.S.W. which requires the Department to:

> "Provide for training of such persons as the Minister may direct (whether employed by agencies or the Crown or by other organisations) to undertake social welfare activities." (D.S.W. Act 1971)

The Act provides no explicit theoretical guidelines for social work training policies. However it contains some implicit theoretical propositions. The use of the term 'training', rather than the term 'education', directs the preparation of social workers along narrow lines. As discussed previously, training is concerned with the acquisition of specific skills and knowledge to be used for the agency, on clients of the agency. Training, as the sole process of preparation, discourages the development of a 'critical edge' to the minds of social workers.

The training emphasis in the Act appears to flow from a Technical approach to curriculum development. This emphasis may be a reflection of the norm throughout the Public Service, where training on-the-job for-the-job is the standard practice. The Technical approach is utilised throughout the Public Service to train employees to perform specific tasks.

Should the preparation of Social Workers be any different than other Public Servants? Is 'training' sufficient? It is argued throughout this thesis that training is a necessary, but not a sufficient, preparation for social work practice. Social workers also require a theoretical framework, a knowledge base, and opportunities for personal development (that is, an education). The Act is not supportive of this broad educational stance the functionalist adopts on the preparation of social workers.

A second implication of the Act, at a theoretical level, is contained in the requirement for the Minister to provide training for social workers,

> "... employed by agencies of the Crown or by other organisations."

The purpose of this statement may have been to try and assume responsibility for the training of all social workers, and to make the best use of available resources. However this statement appears to assume that all welfare organisations share a common view of social work, utilse similar methods, and thereby have compatible training needs. In practice this has not been the case.

The example of the Department of Maori Affairs illustrates this point. In the past when Maori Welfare Officers carried out a social work function, similar to Department of Social Welfare workers, the type of training provided by the Department was appropriate for these workers, and many Maori Welfare Officers attended departmental training courses. This is no longer the case. The Maori Affairs Department has adopted the Tu Tangata(5) philosophy as its guiding theoretical framework. This approach, which is similar to the Cultural Action Model and advocates 'training' based on a dialogue between those involved, contrasts with the Department of Social Welfare's approach which emphasises the workers professional expertise. It is suggested here that the minimal attendance of Officers from the Department of Maori Affairs on recent D.S.W. training courses, is illustrative of the different theoretical perspective adopted by these Departments.

Similar examples could be given (ie. the Department of Justice, the Department of Health) to illustrate the point that not all welfare agencies share the same theoretical perspective and consequently do not have similar views on what is appropriate preparation for their workers.

The Act provides no explicit theoretical framework for inservice social work training policy, only some propositions that have implications for training policy. It may be unreasonable to expect legislation to provide theoretical guidelines for policy, but this begs the question: Whose responsibility is it? The next step was to examine the Department of Social Welfare's head office policy statements.

Head Office Policy Statements.

The only statements of the Departments inservice social work training policy were found in the Annual Staff Training Programmes. The paucity of policy statements was a continuing problem and analysis was limited to a small sample, which illustrated the low priority accorded to published statements of training policy by the Department.

Head Office policy statements clearly follow the Acts' lead in emphasising training as the preferred preparation of social workers for practice. Training is regularly linked to social work tasks with effectiveness and efficiency the objectives.

> "Our training must be made as relevant as possible to work which staff members are required to undertake... (and) effectiveness of staff in their jobs, in terms of effectiveness based on adequate training, becomes more important than ever." (D.S.W. 1978:3)

This statement is in the Technical tradition of curriculum development with its emphasis on the increase of effectiveness of job performance. The following is even more specific.

> "Training needs to be made as relevant as possible to the tasks Social Workers undertake and be directed to increasing competence." (D.S.W. 1980:2)

Training policy statements from 1979 to 1982 all had a similar emphasis. Often the previous years statement was just reworked. For example:

> "Our training must be made as relevant as possible to the work which staff members are required to undertake and our training resources must be used to the fullest extent." (D.S.W. 1978:3)

> "Our training must be made as relevant as possible to the work which staff members are required to undertake and our training resources must be used to the fullest extent." (D.S.W. 1979:3)
>
> "Our training must be made as relevant as possible to the tasks Social Workers undertake and be directed towards increasing competence in tasks." (D.S.W. 1980:2)
>
> "Training needs to be made as relevant as possible to the tasks Social Workers undertake and be directed towards increasing competence." (D.S.W. 1981:2)

It appears to be implied in these statements that social work training was a technical exercise that did not require a critical examination of society, social problems or social work interventions. Training for social workers was aimed at increasing the competence of workers and thus the efficiency and effectiveness of the Department of Social Welfare. Wider social and educational issues were not seen as coming within the ambit of social work training policy.

However in 1982 (the 1983 Programme) there was a shift in the statement of training policy. A detailed rationale was offered for inservice training programmes.

> "Crystal ball gazing is a hazardous business particularly at times of rapid change. It is important however to speculate to some degree when planning a programme of staff training to ensure that not only does the pogramme go some way to meeting present learning needs of Social Workers but also takes account of trends and expectations in service delivery." (D.S.W. 1982:2)

Several trends were then outlined as issues the training programmes attempt to meet. The trends were:

" - a greater concern with demonstrable effective
- more complex demands from client groups and consequent additional skills being required,
- a more stable work force,
- an increasing demand by supervisors for planning,
- a greater awareness of the multi-cultural nature of society and need for service delivery to reflect this,
- new specialisations that reflect community concerns,
- a stronger emphasis on community responses to emerging social issues."

(D.S.W. 1982:2)

This shift in policy statements was seen, not so much a shift away from the Technical approach of curriculum development, but a broadening of the Technical approach to take account of future trends. Effectiveness was still emphasised, and on-the-job skills highlighted (albeit additional and specialised). What was particularly significant was the identification of community responses to social issues. If this trend continues it would represent a major shift in policy from a focus on the individual client, to a focus on the wider social system.

Whilst the 1983 policy statement raised some important theoretical issues it avoided discussion of some of the major social issues of the day. Unemployment, racial conflict, and domestic violence are not addressed at all, or only obliquely (eg. "A greater awareness of the multi-cultural nature of society.") However the 1983 policy did move some way towards addressing wider social issues that had previously been ignored by the annual statements of social work training policy.

The Training Centres' View of Training Policy.

Though each training centres' policy was the result of a collaborative staff effort it was assumed, for the purposes of this thesis, that the Directors could articulate their centres' policy and represent the view point of their staff team. The directors were interviewed to determine what (if any) theoretical framework underlaid their centres' training policy. Documents were also examined to further explore this issue.

At first none of the directors could easily identify an explicit theory that they worked to, or that informed their work.

"I don't have a clear theory per se."

"God knows."

However after further discussion it became clear that each training centre had some guidelines implicit in it's policy. The frameworks they utilised included models of learning, or learning theory:

"We base our training on a Tell-Show-Do model." (R.S.T.S.)

"Adult learning models have become more apparent." (Taranaki House)

"We have skills to facilitate groups, and our models should be based on that." (Tiromoana)

Middle range practice theories were also evident:

"We base it (training) on a fairly traditional view of social work. Base it on a pragmatic, functional approach. Social workers are people who help other people, and they need to be competent." (R.S.T.S.)

"We use a meta-model, regardless of content or course title, we apply this model to casework, community work, group work. Its an Assessment/Contracting/Intervention/Termination/Evaluation model." (Tiromoana)

As were major theories for practice:

> "Systems theory has very much influenced our total thinking." (Taranaki House)
>
> "We use a systems analysis. We want workers to think and act on macro and micro-levels, to be able to analyse a problem, to see what level its at and what level of intervention to use." (Tiromoana).

Further, each of the training centres indicated they subscribed to the values espoused in the International Social Workers Code of Ethics and indicated that they used this code explicitly in their work. This illustrates the Training centres' commitment to a 'professional' social work, where workers aim at sharing a common value base and code of practice.

The three training centres would appear, from the above comments, to base their activity on some propositions about the nature of society, learning, the social work task and social work ethics. However there was no evidence of an explicit theoretical tradition that guided training policy development. Many of the elements of a comprehensive theory were present but they were not articulated in a consistent, explicit framework.

Each of the Directors indicated that the training centres play an important part in social work training policy development. They agreed they have a good deal of autonomy in developing policy.

> "I believe the training centres have had an incredible amount of autonomy in developing policy. They have been looked to for direction and lead in creating policy."
>
> (Taranaki House)

But from time to time policy decisions have been imposed from above:

> "When the Induction courses were restructured last time none of the Directors were consulted.

> The idea came, I think, from the Assistant Directors' Conference." (Tiromoana)

This situation has led to disagreement, as the Director of Tiromoana noted:

> "So there is an inherent conflict between their (Head Office) needs and our (the trainers) needs. Policy can come from either side."

He saw his role (as Director) as that of a broker, between the policy from Head Office and the personal goals, objectives and priorities of his training staff. He saw his job was to operationalise policy, taking into account the principles of adult learning, social work ethics and values, and the strengths of his tutors. The Director of Taranaki House had a similar view but added a caution:

> "But the danger is that we set ourselves up as experts - we are trying to be more collaborative."

This position was seen as a shift away from 'the trainers as expert' approach to a more collaborative approach, and is in sympathy with Shirley's plea (1982:8) for social work educators to examine alternative models of social work education.

This analysis revealed the inconsistencies between Head Office policy statements and the Training Centres viewpoint. There was little evidence to suggest that theoretical issues influenced Head Office training policy, whereas the Training Centres showed some evidence of informing their training policy and programmes with theory. However this theorising was not consistently applied and lacked rigour. Training policy, and hence programmes, from the three Training Centres, appeared to be reactive rather than guided by a consistent theoretical framework. As the Director of Taranaki House said:

> "The training centres have been able to react to expressed needs and personal interests, and from these have evolved policy for training."

The Department's social work trainers were not unaware of the lack of a consistent policy on inservice training.

> "I was not aware there was any centralised staff training policy. So, in the absence of something clear, we have done our own." (R.S.T.S.)

During their 1983 Trainers Conference (to develop the 1984 programme) the Trainers developed a policy statement which has the potential to refute some of the criticisms raised here and may go some way to unifying the Department's inservice training activities. (see Appendix C. for the policy statement)

The New Zealand Social Work Training Council.

The New Zealand Social Work Training Council (N.Z.S.W.T.C.) was established in 1973 to advise the Minister of Social Welfare, other Ministers of the Crown, and the Director General of Social Welfare on matters relating to social work training. (see Appendix C. for terms of reference). New Zealand Social Work Training Council documents (from 1979 to 1983) were analysed, and the Secretary interviewed, to determine if the Council's policy was predicated upon an explicit theoretical perspective.

Policy, decision making within the N.Z.S.W.T.C., appears to be a pragmatic process based on practical and political considerations. There was no evidence of an explicit theoretical orientation operating within the N.Z.S.W.T.C. However the N.Z.S.W.T.C. documents showed evidence of an implicit theoretical perspective operating within the N.Z.S.W.T.C. For example, in the definition of social work adopted in a recent publication, a functionalist perspective is evident.

> "Social work is concerned with helping individual people, families and other groups and communities to achieve a more effective degree of social functioning. It aims to promote social development and relieve social distress."
>
> (N.Z.S.W.T.C. 1982-83:1)

(Compare this with Siporin's functionalist definition of social work on p.10). The definition of social work was then followed by a discussion of: the "background of knowledge", the "approaches to problem solving and developmental change", "skills which make it possible to put these approaches into practice", and the "Workers' personal characteristics". These concerns closely parallel the central concerns for social work training and education identified as being in the functionalist tradition. (see Smalley 1967:303 and Chapter 2)

N.Z.S.W.T.C. has made clear its policy on inservice training and education.(6) The Council adopts a supportive stance and takes an interest in inservice training; though its decision to opt for pre-entry and basic professional training as its main focus has left this area relatively neglected. The Council acknowledges that there is a place for inservice training and sees the responsibility for the provision of inservice training rests primarily with the employing agencies.

The Council keeps informed of developments in inservice training within Government departments and other agencies, and acts in a consultative capacity. Its position paper on inservice training notes:

> "The large number of courses, their wide variety and breadth, would make it difficult for the Council to give more attention to this area, in light of its other priorities." (N.Z.S.W.T.C. 1978:2)

It is clear from the above statements that the N.Z.S.W.T.C. views inservice training as an agency function, this stance is consistent with its advisory brief. The effect of this policy on the Department of Social Welfare is to reduce the potential contribution to inservice training policy from independent sources.

The title 'Training' Council appears to be somewhat of a misnomer. The N.Z.S.W.T.C. has demonstrated it is primarily concerned with tertiary education, as a preferred preparation of social workers for practice. This policy has contributed, to a split between 'education' and 'training' which is not consistent with the functionalist tradition that appears to be espoused in N.Z.S.W.T.C. policy documents. For example,

> "The education and training provided for social workers involves:
> - acquiring a background of knowledge drawn from a wide range of social sciences focusing on

forms of social organisation and human behaviour;

- relating this information to approaches to problem solving and developmental change for individuals, groups, communities and organisations;
- devloping skills which make it possible to put these approaches into practice using the resources of the social worker, his/her employing agency and the community at large.

Successful social work is also based on the workers' personal characteristics, including their experience and attitude to other people and some social issues."

(N.Z.S.W.T.C. 1982-83:2)

The N.Z.S.W.T.C. may be seen to be supporting the Department of Social Welfare's stance on inservice training by up-holding the Department's right to determine its own training policy. However the Council has recently (1983:5) given a high priority to in-post training, this may represent a shift from its passive stance to an active policy on inservice social work training.

"The highest priority which emerged (from a recent poll of members) was the in-post training need, and one of the Council's committees is considering a range of options including part time training through which access to social work training for in-post social workers can be increased." (N.Z.S.W.T.C. 1982:5)

New Zealand Association of Social Workers.

The New Zealand Association of Social Workers (N.Z.A.S.W.) attempts to influence social work education and training policy within welfare agencies by raising the professional awareness of members about current issues through conferences, journals and position papers. The Association has raised a number of issues that challenge traditional models of social work education and training. A recent position paper(7) summarises the central issues, provides background information, and lists the remits passed at the 1982 Annual General Meeting to reinforce the Association's stance.

The Association takes the view that social workers have an important role in,

> "highlighting the structural causes of the issues which face their clients and of proposing means to engender change."
>
> (N.Z.A.S.W. 1983:1)

It also argues that agency based training does not address these social work roles.

> "Indeed it could be argued that often agency based training actively discourages any activity apart from immediate service delivery in a manner regarded as acceptable and efficient by the agency." (N.Z.A.S.W. 1983:2)

The Association recognises that skills specific to an agency can be taught in an agency but it favours placing social work education and training in the context of an overall educational experience which includes social work values and ethics. The N.Z.A.S.W. advocates a professional education independent of the agencies, and the following quotation outlines the reasons for this stance.

> "Social workers need a sense of identity with and commitment to a sense of values, ethics and standards. Social work education should socialise individuals with the sense of pur-

> pose and the controls that are necessary in the interests of the client. Without the experience of this socialisation process, social workers are likely to be influenced primarily by their own personal values and the controls of their agencies and not look beyond questions of immediate service delivery. Furthermore social workers without the appropriate educational experience, are less likely to question their agency's goals or the goals of others with whom they work. Social conditions change constantly and both service delivery and general policies need to change with them." (N.Z.A.S.W. 1983:2)

Though the Association outlines alternative models for social work training and education in its position paper (N.Z.A.S.W. 1983), the three guiding principles, and the remits adopted at the 1982 Annual General Meeting reflect an essentially "radical approach"(N.Z.A.S.W. 1983:6) adopted by the association.(7) The N.Z.A.S.W. has a stated commitment to social justice and equity; and the guiding principles for social work education and training reflect that commitment. The guiding principles are:

1. More dialogical educational experiences.
2. More radical educational content.
3. More accessibility to training and education opportunities." (N.Z.A.S.W. 1983:5)

The N.Z.A.S.W. has recently given a good deal of consideration to theoretical aspects of social work education and training. Though the N.Z.A.S.W. has shown some commitment to a radical approach, it has provided a forum to discuss divergent theoretical viewpoints.

The Association's position contrasts with the Department of Social Welfare's training policy in that it adopts a strong 'educational' emphasis and underlines the importance of socialisation; whereas the Department emphasises 'training' for the job. Furthermore the Association sees social workers have a role in bringing about structural changes, whilst Department of Social Welfare policy encourages workers to maintain existing structures and services efficiently and effectively.

This analysis of inservice social work training policy has found that there are a range of approaches operating within the Department of Social Welfare, and that these approaches are in conflict.

On the one hand, the approach taken in Head Office policy statements appears to embody aspects of both the Pragmatic and the Technical approaches to curriculum development. However neither of these approaches are consistently or fully applied. Rather, a loose 'Pragmatic-Technical' approach would seem to be operating within Head Office.

On the other hand, the three social work training centres have developed their own approaches to inservice training policy, based on their understandings of social work theory, practice, and their experiences as adult educators. The training centres' approach could be best described as 'eclectic'.

A further factor in policy development, is the influences of the N.Z.S.W.T.C. and the N.Z.A.S.W. These two agencies contribute to the debate; The Association reflecting its members viewpoint (currently a predominately Critical-Radical approach); and the Council supporting the Departments perogative to determine its own inservice policy.

The ensuing inservice training policy is not based on one explicit approach, but is the result of the conflicting demands of a number of approaches. It is argued that this conflict has led to some of the divisions and inconsistancies highlighted in the policy analysis.

It may be suggested that these divisions can be accounted for by the different roles and functions of each organisation. However, it is argued in this thesis that the lack of a consistent theoretical framework for inservice social work training policy is a central factor contributing to the current confused situation.

NOTES.

1. For details about the history of social work education and training see: Crockett, J., (1977) Further historical information may be researched through: Daniels, K., (1982)
   One earlier document was analysed. This was The Department of Social Welfare Act (1971). This Act established the Department and gave it a training brief. The inclusion of this document was seen as important to provide a start for the discussion on social work training policy, and place this research within its legislative context.
2. On August 25th 1983 the three directors of the Department of Social Welfare social work training centres were interviewed. The directors were: John Groom (Tiromoana), Graham Harbutt (Taranaki House) and Warwick Jory (Residential Staff Training School).
3. The questions were:
   1. What part does your Training Centre have in developing social work training policy within the Department of Social Welfare?
   2. How do you go about that?
   3. What do you base your social work training on? (the following questions were used for Chapter 4).
   4. What is the knowledge base for your programmes?
   5. What is the skills base for your programmes?
   6. Is there a place for personal development opportunities in social work training programmes?

   Clarifying and supplementary questions were used when needed.
4. This summary was provided by Colin Haynes the Assistant Director (social work training) in a personal communication.
5. See The Department of Maori Affairs, Annual Reports 1980, 1981, 1982.
6. N.Z.S.W.T.C. Position Paper 2.4, Inservice Training, March 1978, see Appendix C.

7. N.Z.A.S.W. Position Statement on Education and Training 1983, for the remits, see Appendix C.
8. The N.Z.A.S.W. position reflects the influence of Friere's Cultural Action Model of curriculum development. The position paper explicitly draws upon: Richards, M. and Righton, P. (Eds). Social Work Education in Conflict, (1979)

CHAPTER 4. SOCIAL WORK TRAINING PROGRAMMES.

The Document Analysis.

Two quantitive analyses were undertaken in an attempt to identify what trends were evident in the courses offered by the Department of Social Welfare training centres for the five years to 1983. All courses that were advertised in the Department of Social Welfare's annual staff training programmes which were open to social work staff both within and outside of the Department were included. (see Table 7.8, Appendix C.)(1) Courses offered on a regional basis, to selected groups, were excluded from this analysis.

A total of one hundred and eighteen courses were included in the analysis. Forty-four different course titles appeared. Courses with similar titles were grouped together (eg. Group Work Methods and Group Work in Social Work). There were several courses, with similar content, that were offered by different training centres (eg. Loss and Separation, Group Work, and the Induction Training Courses) which were also grouped together.

Table 4.1 (over) summarises the courses offered by identifying how many courses each centre offered each year. Also noted is the number of new courses offered each year, that figure is expressed as a percentage of the total courses that were offered each year. The number of courses offered in 1983 is lower than for the other years. This is due to the Residential Staff Training School staff being involved in developing a modular training package (D.S.W., 1983), and running a series of regional courses for specific groups that do not show up in this analysis. The other two training centres have also been involved in similar projects (particularly to implement a recent review of the Social Work Division of the Department of Social Welfare (D.S.W., 1982)) and conse-

quently the number of courses they offered for 1983 are slightly down too. Each training centre would offer, on average, thirty weeks of courses each year in the national programme. Some courses are longer (Induction Training) than the average two week course.

The high percentage of new courses offered each year was noted, and this fact was examined further. Table 4.2 notes how many years each course was offered. The most obvious feature arising from this table was the high percentage of courses that were offered for one year only. Of the forty-four courses, thirty (68.2%) were offered for one year only. Only three (6.8%) were offered for the full five years surveyed. These findings illustrate the wide range of courses offered by the Department of Social Welfare training centres, and the short term tenure of most courses.

Table 4.1. Social Work Training Courses 1979-83 Summary.

Year	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	
R.S.T.S.	9	6	10	5	4	
Tiromoana	10	13	7	9	6	
Taranaki House	10	8	8	8	5	
Total Courses	29	27	25	22	15	118
New Courses	7	9	5	3	6	
Percentage	24.1	33.3	20.0	13.6	40.0	

Table 4.2 Number of Years Courses Offered, (1979-83).

1 Year	2 Years	3 Years	4 Years	5 Years	Total
30	4	2	5	3	44
68.2%	9.1%	4.5%	11.4%	6.8%	100%

The second quantitative analysis utilised a functionalist framework based on Smalley's (1967:303) central elements for social work education and training.(2) Table 4.3 contains the Departmental training courses, 1979 to 1983, grouped according to this functionalist framework.

There are several trends that emerge from an examination of this data. First, over half the courses (55.8%) had a focus on social work methods. However, when these findings were further examined, and the methods courses were grouped into the years they were offered, a trend away from methods courses was uncovered. This trend is illustrated in Table 4.4. In 1979 82.7% of training courses were identified as 'methods' courses; by 1981 this number had fallen to 32%. Though a slight upwards trend is evident, less than half the courses offered in 1983 focus on social work methods.

The course objectives make it clear that the methods courses were aimed specifically at two groups of workers: firstly, newly appointed or untrained workers to provide a 'generic' base for their social work practice; and secondly, newly promoted supervisors or those workers with a specialised interest. Generic methods courses were aimed at workers without a pre-entry, or professional social work qualification, and attempted to provide a comprehensive training in the core elements of social work practice for both field and residential workers (ie. Induction Training).

The Induction Training Courses were an attempt to provide some training for social workers as a stop gap measure whilst the number of professionally trained workers built up. Started in 1974, the Induction courses were a temporary measure. Manchester, in a report to the New Zealand Social Work Training Council described Induction Training as,

> "... an interim programme of short-term courses

TABLE 4.3 D.S.W. Training Courses, Content Analysis.

	Course Titles Offered		Total Number of Courses.	
1. Understanding/Intervening in Social systems or subsystems		%		%
Levels: a. Communities	2	4.5	4	3.4
b. Groups	4	9.0	11	9.4
c. Families	5	11.4	10	8.5
d. Individual Total	10	22.8	20	17.0
2. Knowledge of Human Growth	21	47.7	45	38.3
Development, Behaviour and Dysfunctions.	3	6.9	7	5.9
3. The processes of Scientific Inquiry.	-		-	
4. Social Work Methods, Principles Skills, etc.				
a. Generic	7	15.9	34	28.9
b. Specialised Total	13	29.5	32	26.9
Grand Total	44	100.0	118	100.0

TABLE 4.4 Social Work Methods Courses 1979 to 1983.

Course/Year	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	Total
Generic.	14	9	3	5	3	34
Specialised.	10	10	5	3	4	32
Total.	24	19	8	8	7	66
All Courses.	29	27	25	22	15	118
% Methods Courses.	82.7%	70.3%	32.0%	36.4%	46.6%	

TABLE 4.5 Social Systems Courses 1979 to 1983.

Level/Year.	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	Total
Community.	-	-	3	-	1	4
Group	1	2	3	3	2	11
Family	2	2	3	2	1	10
Individual	2	3	7	6	2	20
Total	5	7	16	11	6	45
All Courses	29	27	25	22	15	
% Systems Courses.	17.2%	25.9%	64.0%	50.0%	40.0%	

> providing induction training in the theory and practice of Social Work for newly appointed social workers, without social work qualifications, these courses to be continued until the longer term courses can be developed and brought into effect."
>
> (Manchester, 1976:7)

The trend over the last five years has, as demonstrated, been away from generic courses. This trend has been accelerated by the increasing number of professionally qualified workers (see Rochford and Robb 1981, and Sheafor 1982), a reduction in staff vacancies due to a tightening economic situation, and a trend towards a more specialised social work practice orientation.

The Department's social work training policy did not prescribe this trend away from methods courses. In 1983 the training policy statement (D.S.W. 1983:2) simply confirmed the existing trend.

> "the programme... takes account of trends and expectations in service delivery."

Training policy within the Department would seem to be legitimising current trends, on a post hoc basis, rather than prescribing practice.

Twenty (58.8%) of the methods courses were aimed specifically at the Social Work Supervisor and Manager. This represents a large proportion of the social work training effort over the last five years. In 1979 the training of Supervisors and Managers was identified as a priority area and training courses have reflected this priority. This emphasis has been supplemented with organisational development initiatives in regional offices and institutions.

The content of Supervision and Management courses is a mixture of the methods of these tasks and bureaucratic procedure. A Management By Objectives (M.B.O.)(3)

approach has been favoured, and attempts have been made to adapt this approach to social work situations. The fit is not always comfortable. The M.B.O. approach was derived from North American business management practices and is task orientated, aims at increased effectiveness and efficiency, and is supposedly 'value free' and objective. It is understood that social work is a value laden activity, frequently affectively orientated, and often subjective. It is not surprising that the techniques of modern management do not sit comfortably alongside (or on top of) social work practice.

Forty-five (38.3%) of the total courses surveyed were aimed at an understanding of, or intervention with, a particular aspect of the human action system (see 4.5). The bulk (20, 44.4%) of these courses were focused on working with individuals. However Families (10, 22.2%) and Groups (11, 24.4%) were groups that received the least attention with few courses mounted that reflected a community orientation. The only course that examined Community Development practices was offered in 1983. However this may be a new trend initiated by Departmental policy, for the 1983 policy statement predicted,

> "a stronger emphasis on community responses to emerging social issues." (D.S.W. 1983:2)

and, "new specialisms that reflect community concerns." (D.S.W. 1983:2)

are future trends.

Courses that focused on understanding of, and intervening with, social systems or sub-systems typically had an emphasis on skills development and practice. The knowledge base of these courses was eclectic, and personal development was seen as a product of training. An examination of course objectives makes clear the major therapeutic and sounseling orientation of these courses. Whilst the introductory courses (eg. Basic Helping Skills) emphasised communication, and problem solving skills; the

more advanced coursed (eg. Advanced Helping Skills) aimed at developing competence in Gestalt techniques, Psychodrama and Neuro Linguistic Programming. The influence of the psycho-therapeutic movement, Humanistic Psychology, and the work of Milton Erickson (1976) are particularly evident. These courses also utilised assertion training, behavioural approaches, group, and family therapy techniques.

The skills taught to social workers on training courses come from a variety of sources and appear to lack a consistent theoretical base. For example, there are elements of: Developmental Counselling (Carkhuff 1969, 1971) in Helping Skills; Gestalt Psychology (Perls 1973) in Group Work courses; Systems Theory (Buckley, 1967), (Bateson, 1979) in Family Work; Communication Theory (Bandler and Grinder,1975) in Neuro Linguistic Programming (N.L.P.) Skills; and 'Popular' Psychology (Butler, 1976) in Assertion Skills training. Consequently, it is suggested that these courses are subject to fashions of the day rather than grounded in social work practice.

Informing skills training courses with an empirical study of the skills social workers use in practice, and basing the programme on a consistent theoretical framework may overcome some of these criticisms of the current approach to skills training.

There is also a trend towards courses that focus on understanding of, and intervening with, a particular aspect of the context of social work. Table 4.5 illustrates this trend. The courses that focus on a particular 'system' have increased from less than twenty percent of all courses offered in 1979, to sixty-four percent in 1981, and remains high. When Tables 4.4 and 4.5 are considered together, the swing away from 'methods' courses towards 'systems' courses is obvious.

There were few courses (7, 5.9%) that focused on knowledge of human growth and development. This is obviously regarded as a low priority area. However each of the training centres have a library for course members and a policy of issuing reading lists to course members. For example the programme for the 1983 Social Work Induction Course at Taranaki House noted,

> "The following areas will not be formally covered. We have an expectation that course members will have knowledge in these areas or will make a commitment to acquire that knowledge during their twelve months induction period.
>
> - A knowledge of the physical, social and psychological development and behaviour of children, adolescents and adults.
> - An understanding of the structures and processes of organisations, with a particular knowledge of your own agency and it's structure and practices.
> - A knowledge relating to the elements of law relating to social work practice."
>
> (Taranaki House 1983:2)

It also emerged that there was a total lack of any courses that examined the processes of scientific enquiry. Research into practice was either seen as the role of specialist researchers or simply disregarded by the Departments' social work training programmes. This gap in the training effort is seen as disturbing. Social workers that lack social scientific skills and understanding have to rely on subjective evaluations and assessments to determine the effectiveness and efficiency of their practice. A grounding in some simple social scientific skills in research and evaluation would appear to be a first step towards the objective assessment of practice and would enhance the Department's, and the profession's move towards greater accountability.

Programmes, The Training Centres' Views.

The concerns Smalley (1967:303) identified, as central to social work education and training were utilised to provide a framework for interviews with the directors of the three Department of Social Welfare social work training centres. The questions (see Notes, Chapter 3) were centred around the knowledge base, skills development, and personal development issues in social work training programmes. The responses are outlined and discussed below.

The Knowledge Base.

The three directors each acknowledged that their programmes drew knowledge from a variety of sources.

> "We reflect the social work profession in that we don't have a single source of knowledge - we are eclectic." (Tiromoana)
> "We are very much eclectic." (Taranaki House)
> "A variety of sources form our knowledge base." (R.S.T.S.)

These responses give a clear indication of the eclectic knowledge base of each of the training centres' programmes. Further questions elicited some specific sources of knowledge.

> "We use knowledge from the research into helping skills. Books by experts in the field: Carkhuff Egan, the Gestalt people, T.A., Behaviourists." (R.S.T.S.)
> "More towards the technologies (N.L.P. etc), but also personal values - a whole range." (R.S.T.S.)
> "We are dogmatic about skills approaches and the knowledge given fits in with the skills approach." (R.S.T.S.)

Of the three training centres, the R.S.T.S. is the most committed to a skills approach. They take the position that,

"in the time we have, we are better off training in skills."

They provide reading lists for course members to explore the knowledge base, to their skills approach, in their own time. Much of the skills training material used by the R.S.T.S. originates from the United States of America, however it has been adapted by training staff for local use.(4)

The Director of Tiromoana suggested that there were static generic elements of social work knowledge that the training centres addressed.

"All the training centres tend to reflect basic knowledge in social work. Traditional case work."

But he also noted that the training centres responded to current trends.

"The skills orientation is a reflection of the direction of training generally."

And, he suggested,

"We are often brokers and facilitators for courses on specific issues (eg. Incest, sexual issues) and we don't necessarily have the specific knowledge."

What is suggested here is that part of the knowledge base of social work training is the knowledge of process: how to facilitate groups to address issues of the day. Here the principles of adult learning were seen as important. As with the R.S.T.S., specific knowledge was seen by Tiromoana as course members' responsibility, with the trainers providing direction and reading lists.

For their social work training programmes, Taranaki House drew knowledge from similar generic sources to Tiromoana.

"Content is eclectic - taken from a variety of sources."

"We used the N.Z.S.W.T.C. position paper on middle management and supervision for our

own supervision and management courses."

However for social issues of the day Taranaki House programmes draw on indigenous material.

> "Social issues that are present, racism and sexism, are an integral part of content, we get this from locally generated material."

Whilst Taranaki House programmes demonstrated a generic orientation to knowledge, they emphasised the importance of current social issues and locally generated training material.

The Skill Base.

The work of Robert Carkhuff(5) (1969, 1971, 1979) has been a major influence on skills training in each of the three training centres' programmes.

> "The base is Carkhuff." (R.S.T.S.)
>
> "Our skills base is eclectic, Carkhuff has been one of our major frameworks." (Taranaki House)
>
> "Carkhuff still has an influence." (Tiromoana)

The influence of Carkhuff is seen mostly in the introductory courses (induction, basic helping skills), more advanced courses build on the basic skills.

> "The base is Carkhuff. From there the specialist therapies/models are added." (R.S.T.S.)
>
> "We bring in T.A., Gestalt, and behavioural approaches." (Taranaki House)
>
> "Carkhuff is still an influence, but we use that New Zealand book (Munro, Manthei, and Small), and then we draw on group work approaches from Peiffer and Jones, and most recently management theory and Systems theory." (Tiromoana)

Each of the centres indicated they attempt some form of sequencing of skills training. Starting with basic comm-

unication and counselling skills (listening and responding) before moving onto more sophisticated skills of intervention or analysis. There appears to be agreement on the basic skills, and only a small variation on approaches between the training centres. There is less agreement on the appropriate advanced skills of intervention and analysis. The R.S.T.S. favours a 'helping technology' approach, whilst Tiromoana and Taranaki House lean more towards systems analysis and the skills of casework, family work, and community action.

Personal Development.

For some years the topic of personal development has been debated within the Department's training staff. Crockett notes that Manchester (1976:7),

> "... criticised an orientation towards sensitivity and encounter group-type training." (Crockett 1977:63)

Crockett supported the view that a social workers,

> "sensitization may properly be regarded as a primary goal within a restricted training period." (1977:63)

However Head Office policy has continued to support the view, expressed by Manchester, that appropriate training was,

> "to prepare the beginning social worker for effective involvement in an office or an agency." (1976:7)

This begs the question: can there be effective social work training without personal development? Each of the directors agreed that effective social work training requires opportunities for the personal development of social workers.

> "The question for all of us has always been when and how." (Tiromoana)

The means used to achieve the goal of personal development varied between traing centres:

"We don't make an explicit goal of personal development, but I believe it happens from the feedback we get."
"By taking a skills approach there is personal growth and change that comes as a by product."
"Personal development is adding skills they did not have before."
"We see a place for values clarification and clarification of beliefs."

These comments illustrate the approach taken at the R.S.T.S. where personal development is seen as an integral part of social work training, and not sought as an end in itself.

Taranaki House takes a similar approach:

"Personal development is a result of the process rather than an explicitly set objective."
"It is part and parcel of the training of a social worker."
"A great deal of personal growth goes on during skills training because we ask them to use personal issues."
"I am committed to, and believe that, personal growth needs to, and must be, part of the course work."

Tiromoana takes a similar position, on the place of personal development opportunities, in their programmes.

"Personal growth has a very valid place as one of four or five approaches."
"I analyse the level of need (in course members) and I may put in a personal growth activity because I diagnose the problem as at an intra-personal level."

There are slight variations evident in approach but each training centre agrees that effective social work prac-

tice requires social workers that are aware of their personal development. The final quote, from the Director of Tiromoana, provides a good summary of the training centres' position on personal development in social work training.

> "The immediate out come (of personal development) may be to free up this human being, who happens to be a social worker. The justification for me doing that is that I have a professional belief that they will be more effective as a consequence. The ultimate justification is that some client will benefit because their social worker will be less rigid or less hung up."

To summarise: personal development is seen by each training centre as an integral part of social work training programmes; opportunities for personal development may form an explicit, or implicit, part of training programmes; personal development activities are justified on the basis of their contribution to more effective social work practice.

The common, essential features of the three Departmental Social Work Training Centres' programmes are: they draw upon an eclectic knowledge base; the sources of course content is varied and there is no one established knowledge base; and that skills training is a feature. Basic skills are drawn from the Counselling literature, rather than the Social Work literature. More advanced skills have a predominantly therapeutic orientation. However some skills are taught for the analysis of social issues from a social systems perspective, but there is little evidence of any training in theoretical, ideological or policital analysis. Further, personal development opportunities are seen as an integral part of social work training programmes by all three directors.

In this chapter inservice social work training programmes have been examined in some detail. The focus has been on the knowledge base of programmes, skills practice, and the place of personal development. A search has continued for a theoretical framework supporting social work training programmes. A number of methods have been employed: documents have been analysed, statistics have been compiled, and those involved have been interviewed. Each of these methods have their strengths and weaknesses but together they support the following findings.

A high percentage of Department of Social Welfare social work training courses are only offered for one year. There is a demonstrable trend away from social work methods courses with a traditional generic orientation. There is a trend towards skills based courses that focus on intervention with, and understanding of, one subsystem of the human action system, typically these courses have a therapeutic or counselling orientation. There is no established knowledge base for training courses, as eclecticism is favoured. There is some conflict evident between the management 'ethic' and the social work 'ethic', in supervision and management training courses. There is

Some movement towards a community development orientation. Personal development is seen as an integral part of the social work training process. Finally, whilst there is some evidence of some quasi-theoretical propositions underlying inservice training programmes, there is little evidence to suggest that there is an explicit theoretical orientation linking social work training programmes within the Department of Social Welfare.

This final point is central to this thesis. The evidence demonstrates the uneven approach to inservice social work training policy and programmes taken within the Department over the last five years. The recent training activities appear to have aimed at producing agency effectiveness and efficiency (ie. meeting bureaucratic needs) rather than achieving social welfare goals.

Inservice social work training within the Department may be seen to be reacting to demands from within the agency, rather than reacting to the social needs expressed in the wider society. The 'patchwork' of frequently changing courses, offered by the training centres, lack a coherent pattern. Some pattern would be evident if training was informed by a consistent theory rather than based on a reaction to issues of the day and agency demands.

NOTES.

1. The annual social work training programmes from 1979 to 1983 were examined. These programmes are published annually in a Staff Training Circular, usually in November each year. Circulars are made available to all Departmental social work staff and are freely circulated to other agencies and voluntary organisations. Relevant Staff Training Circulars are listed in the Bibliography.

2. Smalley identified four areas of knowledge that social work will be necessarily concerned with: the 'terrain', or context, of social work; human growth and development; the process of scientific enquiry; and social work methods. These concerns were used as the basis for an organising framework in which the training courses were placed. It soon became clear that the four categories would be of limited use by themselves and these were subsequently expanded to include some sub-categories (see Table 4.3).

   In the first category was grouped all courses that had a major focus on understanding or intervening in a social system. These courses often included skills and knowledge of that social system (or sub-system) and perhaps examined the workers own experiences (eg. of their own Family System). Four levels, representing sub-systems of the human action system, were used as the basis of four sub-categories, ie: Communities, Groups, Families, and Individuals.

   In the second category were grouped all those courses that had a major focus on human growth, development and behaviour. Also included were courses with a focus on dysfunction. These courses were typically knowledge based, but some course time would be spent on examining personal experiences and appropriate

CHAPTER 5. SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE: A JOB ANALYSIS.

It is argued in this thesis that an empirical study of the nature of social work practice has the potential to inform social work training policy and programme development, and provide an objective basis for decision making. Further, it was suspected that some of the assumptions the Department's inservice training is based upon would be challenged if an empirical study of social work practice was made and used to examine recent training pratices. To explore these propositions further a job analysis was undertaken.

The Job Analysis.

Introduction.

During the latter half of 1982 a study of social work practice in New Zealand was conducted by the Social Work Unit at Massey University under the direction of Professor, Bradford W. Sheafor.(1) The primary purpose was to gather data about the practice of social work in New Zealand in order to inform a curriculum review at Massey University. The goal was to examine the fit between social work practice and the Massey curriculum. Sheafor also suggested that,

> "The job analysis has the potential
> a. to inform curriculum development in other social work education programmes;
> b. to facilitate the planning of staff training in social service agencies;
> c. to identify common features in the various forms and settings of social work practice; and
> d. to identify unique features of social work practice in the various social service agencies, job classifications, practice roles, and community sizes."
>
> (Sheafor 1982:1)

This thesis attempts to realise some of that potential by using the data generated by Sheafors' study to examine the nature of social work practice within the Department of Social Welfare and inform this research into social work training policies and programmes.

The Instrument.(1)

The development and theoretical underpinnings of the Job Analysis Questionnaire (J.A.Q.), used to generate data for this study, has been discussed in detail in Chapter one. The methodology is discussed in finer detail here.

Sheafor (1982:3), and a panel of seven local practitioners, adapted the J.A.Q. to fit the New Zealand context. Modifications were made to the language and examples used in the questionnaire, and one further task cluster was added (ie. Formal Therapeutic Intervention with Families) to reflect the difference between the New Zealand setting and the United States of America where the J.A.Q. was developed

The J.A.Q. is a self-report instrument,

> "The key to this methodology is for respondents to serve as experts about the content of their own jobs. They are asked to rate each of 136 tasks in relation to how they perceive their current positions. Using this approach the respondents do not report what should be done if adequate time, talent, and resources were available and does not provide comment on tasks that he or she does not perform. The respondents, then, were asked to rate each of the tasks contained in the 136 statements on four five-point scales."
>
> (Sheafor 1982:3)

The scales (see Questionnaire Appendix A) relate to the: frequency workers perform each task; how critical the worker views each task to the well being of their clients; the importance of each task for newly hired workers; and the extent to which successful performance of the task relates to overall successful performance of the job.

> "With a score of "1" assigned to the low end of the scale reflecting non-performance of the task and "5" assigned to the high end of the continuum, it is then possible to depict the importance of each task on the four scales." (Sheafor 1982:4)

Task Index Scores (T.I.S.) for each task statement were computed by multiplying the four ratings for each statement (range 1 to 626) and finding the mean ($\bar{x}$) for all respondents. The scores were then combined into the

twenty-four clusters, and a Cluster Index Score (C.I.S.) that reflected the mean of the cluster was computed (see also Chapter 1 for the rationale for the clusters).

Respondents were also asked to respond to a range of personal information questions in the J.A.Q. Frequency distributions, and a range of descriptive statistics were computed for each 'personal information' variable. The personal information is not central to this thesis and the findings for the Department of Social Welfare respondents to the J.A.Q. are contained in Appendix B.

Statistics were computed on the Massey University Computer, printouts were made of the Department of Social Welfare's respondents to the J.A.Q., these were analysed and the findings are discussed below.(3) The results of the total responses to the survey was also used to make comparisons.

The Sample.

> "Factors of time, costs, distance, and access to respondents required that a sample of New Zealand social workers be approached to complete the J.A.Q. The complexity of data on New Zealand social workers and its uneveness made it virtually impossible to construct a national sample. Therefore the lower one-half of the North Island (an area roughly bounded by Gisborne, New Plymouth, and Wellington) was selected with the goal to complete a census of social workers in that region."
>
> (Sheafor 1982:4)

The Head Office of the Department sanctioned the study, and a memorandum was circulated to Directors and Principals supporting the project and encouraging staff to participate.

An estimated return rate of 61.3% was achieved overall. With Department of Social Welfare respondents returning an estimated 69.4% of questionnaires from eligible respondents. (A summary of returns is contained in Table 5.2 below). The 159 Department of Social Welfare respoondents represented 44.4% of the total 358 usable returns. The current positions (4) reported by Department of Social Welfare respondents were as follows; (table 5.1)

TABLE 5.1 Current Positions D.S.W. Respondents.

Field Social Workers	77	48.4%
Residential Workers	41	25.8%
Community Workers	4	2.5%
Administrators	33	20.8%
Others	4	2.5%
Total	159	100.0%

The sample included a major metropolitan area (Wellington), smaller cities (eg. Palmerston North), many towns, and a large rural area which provided a cross section of New Zealand. The sample of residential workers was skewed towards institutions for long term training, as four major boys' homes are located in the area (Kohitere, Hokio, Holdsworth, and Beck House). Interpretation of findings should bear this in mind.

Table 5.3 summarises Department of Social Welfare returns according to geographic region. The Department of Social Welfare return closely follows the distribution of the total population of the study. Exceptions occur where there are major residential institutions (ie. Wanganui and Horowhenua), or where Hospital Board activity is centralised (ie. Manawatu). Wellington also has a high number of Department of Social Welfare staff due to the location of Head Office plus the Wellington regional office.

TABLE 5.2 Distribution of Total Respondents, by Agencies.

Type of Agency	N.	%	Estimated Return Rate %
Hospital Board	103	28.7	73.6
Local/Regional Government	7	2.0	46.7
Justice Dept.	25	7.0	38.5
Social Welfare Dept.	159	44.4	69.4
Maori Affairs Dept.	6	1.7	14.3
Other Statutory Agencies	3	0.8	60.0
Voluntary Religious Agencies	15	4.2	26.3
Voluntary Secular Agencies	40	11.2	78.4
Total	358	100.0	61.3

TABLE 5.3 Distribution of D.S.W. Respondents, by Region.

Region	N.	%	Total Sample %
Hawke Bay	22	13.9	12.3
Horowhenua	25	15.8	8.7
Manawatu	14	8.9	12.0
Poverty Bay	6	3.8	5.6
Taranaki	5	3.1	5.6
Wairarapa	16	10.1	5.3
Wanganui	22	13.8	9.2
Wellington	40	25.2	38.1
National	8	5.0	3.2
Total	159	100.0	100.0

Sheafor (1982:4) suggested the sample favoured workers with greater amounts of formal education and professional social work qualifications than those represented in Rochford and Robb's study, who reported 12% of paid workers had a Certificate Qualification in Social Work (C.Q.S.W.) (N.Z.S.W.T.C. 1981). However their data was collected over a national sample, and two years prior to Sheafor. The Sheafor sample may reflect a regional difference, or an increasing number of better educated and qualified workers in-post.(5)

Administration.

The J.A.Q. was administered by Dr. Sheafor, and his trained assistants to groups of social workers throughout the lower part of the North Island. Several staff were trained by Dr. Sheafor to help administer the J.A.Q. to Departmental social work staff, this helped ensure a high return rate. The J.A.Q. was designed for group administration (see Teare 1981:29) and took about one hour to complete. In areas not covered by group administrations, questionnaires were sent to workers with detailed instructions with requests for the completed questionnaires to be returned by mail. When the questionnaires were returned they were coded, keypunched and programmed into the Massey University computer for processing.

Findings.

The findings from the survey are presented in two sections: the Task Analysis, and the Cluster Analysis. To assist the reader the 136 task statements, and the 24 task cluster descriptions have been listed in Appendix A. Familiarisation with this material will assist in the following discussion. Other points of note here are: the task statements were arranged in a randomised order in the J.A.Q.; the respondents had no indication of which tasks belonged to which task cluster; and respondents were not party to the task cluster descriptions.

The Task Analysis Findings.

The mean scores for each of the 136 tasks were calculated for the Department of Social Welfare respondents. The highest ranked tasks can be seen as the central tasks for social work practice. (The ten highest ranked tasks are listed in Table 5.4) To gain an impression of the central tasks for the major practice areas, the tasks of Field Workers (Table 5.5), Residential Workers (Table 5.6), and for Administrators (Table 5.7) were ranked.

Examination of these tasks reveal the common areas of practice amongest field and residential workers and administrators, differences are also highlighted. Eight major points emerged from the Task Analysis.

First, there was a high priority given to tasks relating to counselling and problem solving (tasks from Cluster 2) by those workers in direct service. Five of the top ten tasks ranked by field workers were in this area of activity; with four of the top five places going to counselling problem solving tasks. Residential workers ranked these tasks four out of the top ten places, with the top two places going to counselling problem solving tasks. The Administrators showed a different pattern, with only one of the top ten placed tasks from the counselling problem solving cluster. The similarity between direct service workers (field and residential) and their differences with administrators was a theme that continued throughout this analysis.

Second, Administrators ranked highest tasks in the Practice Assessment/Worker Development cluster (23). These tasks all relate to the activities surrounding the supervision and management of direct service workers and keeping up with professional and administrative literature. Four of the top five places were from this cluster of tasks. It is noteworthy that direct service workers also ranked three of these tasks (71, 82, 126) in their top ten places,

TABLE 5.4 Highest Ranked Tasks, Total D.S.W. Respondents

Rank	T.I.S.	N.	Cluster	Task
1.	347.8	101	2	Express and demonstrate understanding of clients' points of view, feelings, and needs in order to establish open and trusting relationships.
2.	286.8	48	2	Talk with clients or relatives about problems in order to reassure, provide support, or reduce anxiety.
3.	274.9	74	2	Encourage and help clients to discuss their points of view, feelings, and needs in order to increase their insight into the motives for their decisions and actions.
4.	261.7	69	2	Discuss options with clients in order to help them understand choices and resolve a particular problem.
5.	257.6	71	23	Evaluate your actions and decisions in order to determine if your practice activities are meeting the standards, values, and ethics required for quality service provision.
6.	257.1	82	23	Meet regularly with supervisor, other superior, or collegues in order to review current workload, explore alternatives, and work on personal or professional development.
7.	254.4	126	23	Take part in discussions with co-workers, talking over events of the day, problems, or particular clients in order to learn about programme operations or share experiences in dealing with clients.
8.	240.8	27	11	Review files and records prior to an interview, home visit, meeting or other type of contact in order to be familiar with the details of the situation.
9.	234.0	127	6	Observe clients and gather information to determine the urgency of a client's situation and emotional state in order to decide if emergency services, or routine handling is needed.

TABLE 5.4 Cont.

10.	200.4	116	3	Confront clients about unacceptable behaviour in order to bring about changes or promote adjustment.

TABLE 5.5 Highest Ranked Tasks, Field Social Workers

Rank	T.I.S.	N.	Cluster	Task
1.	390.4	101	2	Express and demonstrate understanding of clients' points of view, feelings, and needs in order to establish open and trusting relationships.
2.	357.4	48	2	Talk with clients or relatives about problems in order to reassure, provide support, or reduce anxiety.
3.	311.3	69	2	Discuss options with clients in order to help them understand choices and resolve a particular problem.
4.	297.4	74	2	Encourage and help clients to discuss their points of view, feelings, and needs in order to increase their insight into the motives for their decisions and actions.
5.	278.2	82	23	Meet regularly with supervisor, other superior, or collegues in order to review current workload, explore alternatives, and work on personal or professional development.
6.	273.2	71	23	Evaluate your actions and decisions in order to determine if your practice activities are meeting the standards, values, and ethics required for quality service provision.
7.	271.2	123	4	Make home visits in order to assist families to improve their social functioning and/or solve problems.
8.	270.8	27	11	Review files and records prior to an interview, home visit, meeting or other type of contact in order to be familiar with the details of the situation.
9.	268.7	127	6	Observe clients and gather information to determine the urgency of a client's situation and emotional state in order to decide if emergency services, or routine handling is needed.

TABLE 5.5 Cont.

10.	264.6	49	2	Work with clients and their families to prepare them psychologically and socially for movement from one living arrangement to another.

TABLE 5.6 Highest Ranked Tasks, Residential Workers

Rank	T.I.S.	N.	Cluster	Task
1.	369.5	101	2	Express and demonstrate understanding of clients' points of view, feelings, and needs in order to establish open and trusting relationships.
2.	330.7	74	2	Encourage and help clients to discuss their points of view, feelings, and needs in order to increase their insight into the motives for their decisions and actions.
3.	329.8	126	23	Take part in discussions with co-workers, talking over events of the day, problems, or particular clients in order to learn about programme operattions or share experiences in dealing with clients.
4.	327.3	116	3	Confront clients about unacceptable behaviour in order to bring about changes or promote adjustment.
5.	326.2	35	8	Provide knowledge to clients about personal living skills in order to improve their independent functioning.
6.	313.1	94	2	Participate in leisure activities with clients in order to provide recreation or reduce loneliness.
7.	298.6	48	2	Talk with clients or relatives about problems in order to reassure, provide support, or reduce anxiety.
8.	289.1	93	8	Teach clients leisure time skills in order to participate in handicrafts, recreation, therapy, or other socialisation activities.
9.	281.0	127	6	Observe clients and gather information to determine the urgency of a client's situation and emotional state in order to decide if emergency services, or routine handling is needed.

TABLE 5.6 Cont.

10.	273.7	71	23	Evaluate your actions and decisions in order to determine if your practice activities are meeting the standards, values, and ethics required for quality service provision.

TABLE 5.7 Highest Ranked Tasks, Administrators

Rank	T.I.S.	N.	Cluster	Task
1.	250.1	82	23	Meet regularly with supervisor, other superior, or collegues in order to review current workload, explore alternatives, and work on personal or professional development.
2.	228.1	126	23	Take part in discussions with co-workers, talking over events of the day, problems, or particular clients in order to learn about programme operations or share experiences in dealing with clients.
3.	215.5	66	23	Read administrative literature (manuals, memos, circulars) in order to learn about or keep up with agency policies and procedures.
4.	215.2	101	2	Express and demonstrate understanding of clients' points of view, feelings, and needs in order to establish open and trusting relationships.
5.	209.8	71	23	Evaluate your actions and decisions in order to determine if your practice activities are meeting the standards, values, and ethics required for quality service provision.
6.	196.8	27	11	Review files and records prior to an interview, home visit, meeting or other type of contact in order to be familiar with the details of the situation.
7.	194.8	136	18	Discuss job performance and personal assessment with worker (subordinate) in order to promote understanding of job expectations or to work out differences of opinions.
8.	189.0	84	16	Go over activities with subordinates, clarifying and evaluating the situation, recommending methods and approaches, in order to instruct workers in dealing with various client situations.

TABLE 5.7 Cont.

9.	186.9	28	23	Read articles in professional journals, books, in order to keep up with developments related to your job responsibilities.
10.	183.9	21	18	Clarify job duties, roles, and work assignments for workers (subordinates) in order to increase individual or group effectiveness.

but with a lower priority than the Administrators.

Third, the only difference between the top ten ranked tasks of residential and field workers was that residential workers were concerned with their client's personal care and as well were involved in their leisure time activity. This commonality, of tasks undertaken by field and residential workers, is further investigated in the Cluster Analysis.

Fourth, field workers demonstrated their involvement with the families of clients, and the family as client, by ranking two family orientated tasks (49, 123) in the top ten places. Again this result was reinforced in the Cluster Analysis findings.

Fifth, residential workers gave a high priority, fourth place, to a task (116) that centred on controlling unacceptable behaviour to promote adjustment in clients. This is perhaps a reflection of the regimes within institutions which require a high level of control. However, when viewed alongside the other tasks residential workers gave priority to, this 'control' is seen to be mitigated by a high level of 'care'. This caring was evident in the priority given to counselling tasks by residential workers.

Sixth, there was a noticeable lack of priority given to the tasks relating to formal therapeutic interventions. Only one task from these clusters appeared in the top ten ranked tasks of each of the direct service workers. This point is interesting to note, in contrast to the high priority given to counselling problem solving tasks. It is suspected this finding may indicate something about the nature of interventions favoured by direct service workers, and their training (or lack of it) in formal therapeutic interventions.

Seventh, when examining the task rankings of each group of workers, there was an impression that there was a

'logical fit' between this data and a subjective understanding of the nature of social work practice. These findings appear to have a 'face validity'. For example: it was found that social workers, both in field and in residential care, were primarily concerned with 'face to face' encounters with their clients, rather than 'paper work'. This is borne out by the Task Analysis findings where client focused tasks (101, 48, 74, 69) are ranked highest.

The final point, is like the seventh, based more on a personal impression rather than an empirical interpretation of responses. The highest ranked tasks (see Table 5.4) show evidence of an empathic concern for clients, a non-judgemental stance, and a priority given to considered action. These tasks appear congruent with the values of client centredness and self-determination that are seen as central to good social work practice and are espoused in The International Code of Ethics for Social Workers.

The Cluster Analysis Findings.

The Cluster Index Scores (C.I.S.) reflect the relative emphasis of the twenty-four clusters of activity in the practice of the respondents. Mean scores for the total Department of Social Welfare respondents have been graphed (see Figure 5.9), and further graphs have been drawn for the three major practice areas: Field and Residential Social Work, and Administration (see Figures 5.10 - 5.12). This data has been summarised in Figure 5.8 (over). Further the top ten ranked C.I.S. for each of these groups was tabulated (see Tables 7.3 - 7.6 in Appendix B). The cluster analysis findings have been summarised in the following figures. The other tables that contain cluster analysis findings have been placed in Appendix B, alongside of detailed tables of results from the Job Analysis Questionnaire.

Figure 5.8 Cluster Index Scores, Field and Residential Social Workers and Administrators.

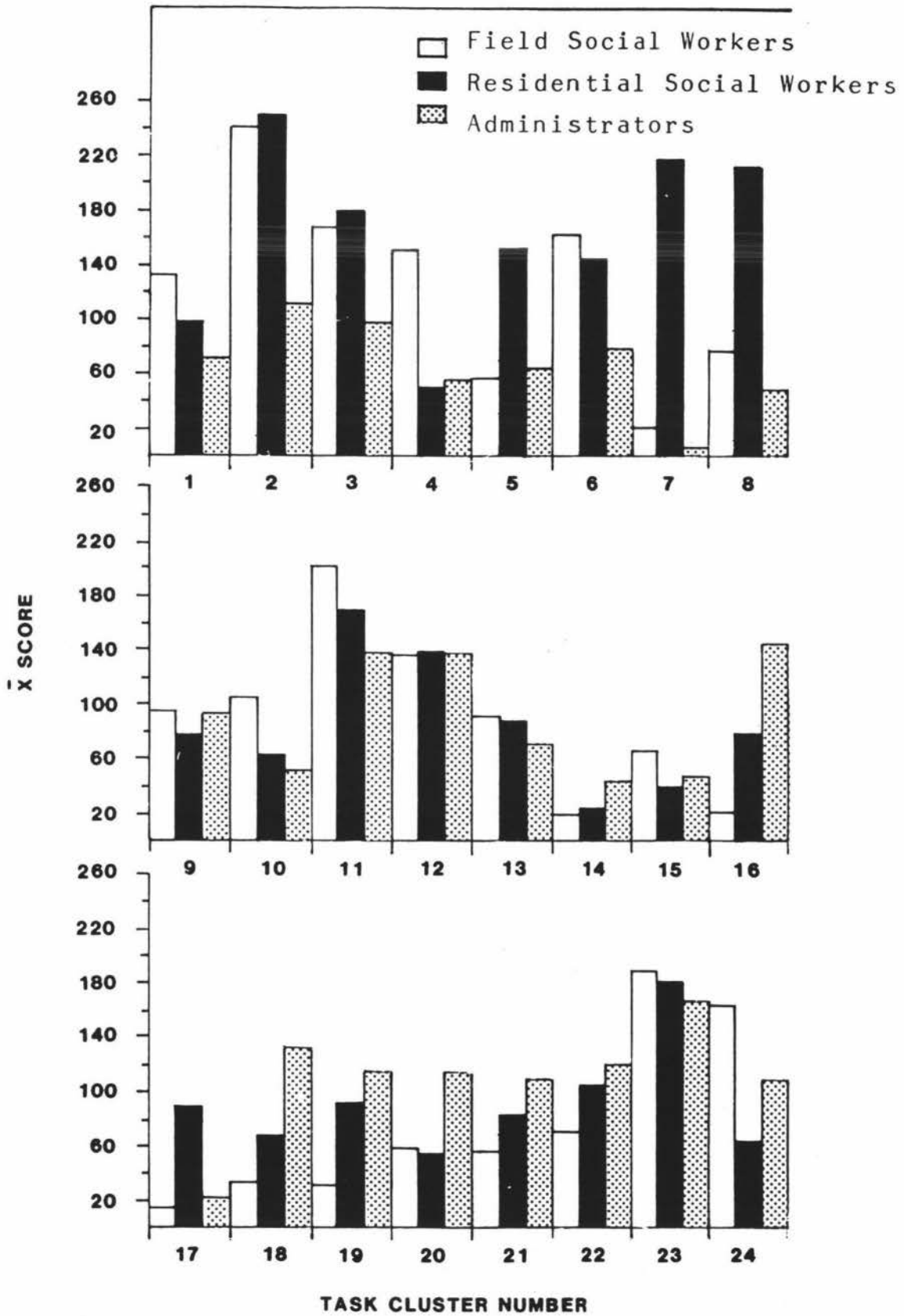


Figure 5.9 Cluster Index Scores, Total Respondents.

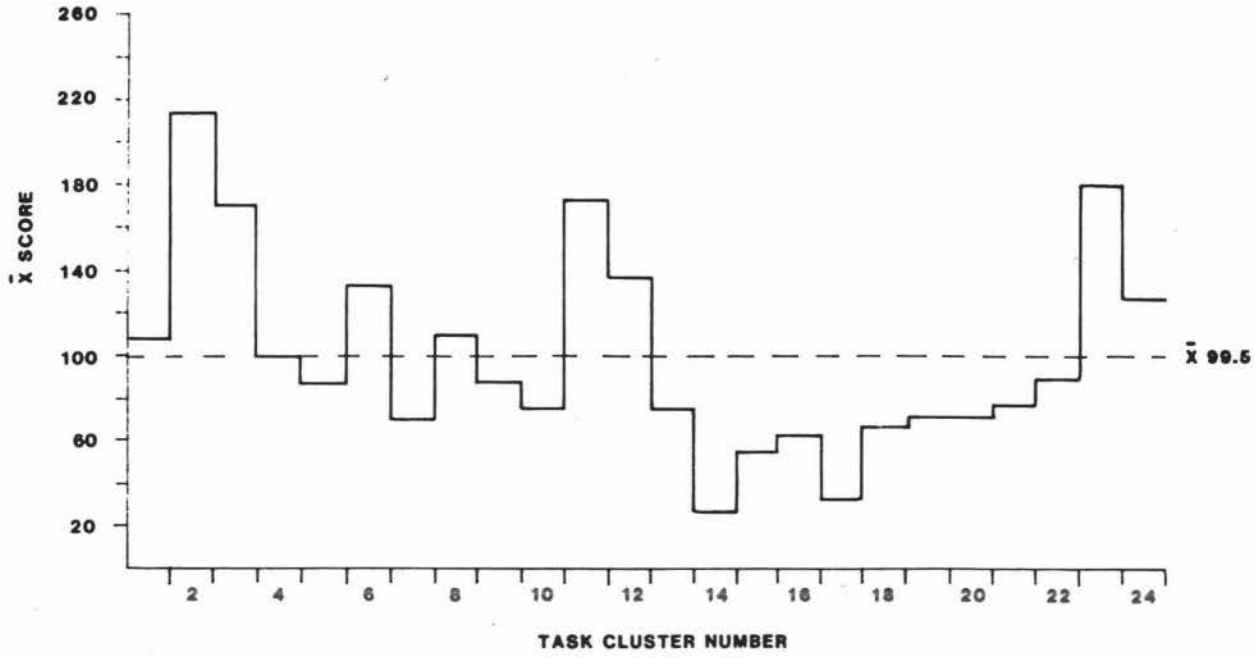


Figure 5.10 Cluster Index Scores, Field Social Workers.

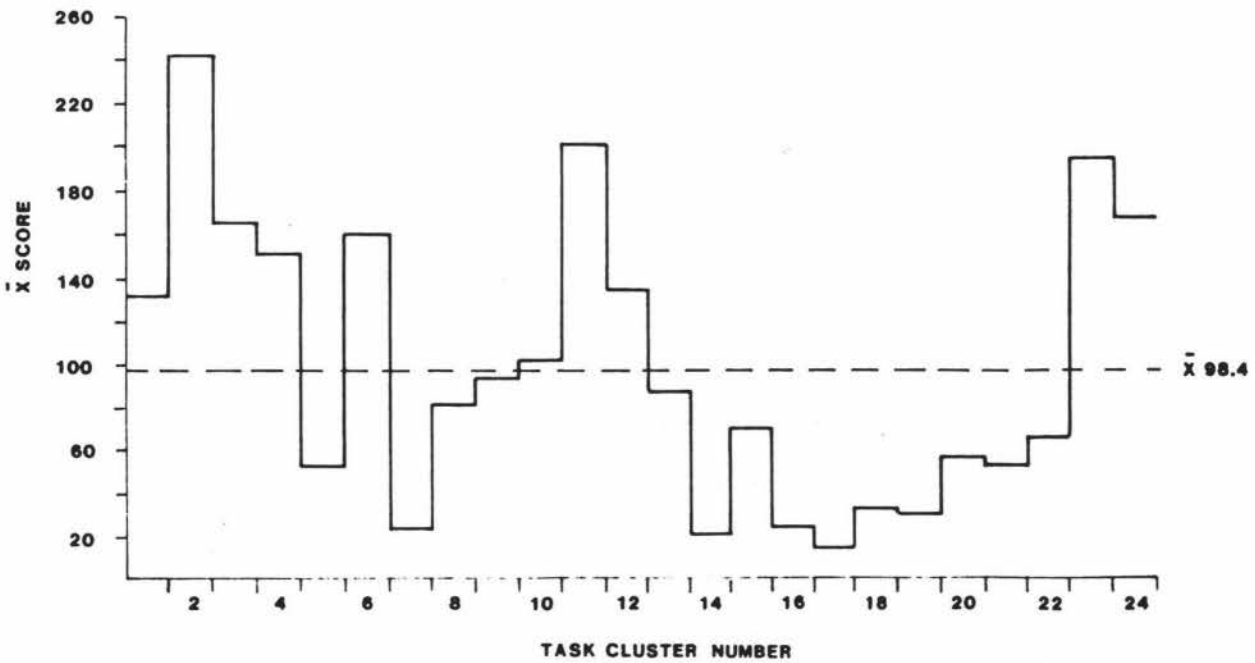


Figure 5.11 Cluster Index Scores, Residential Social Workers.

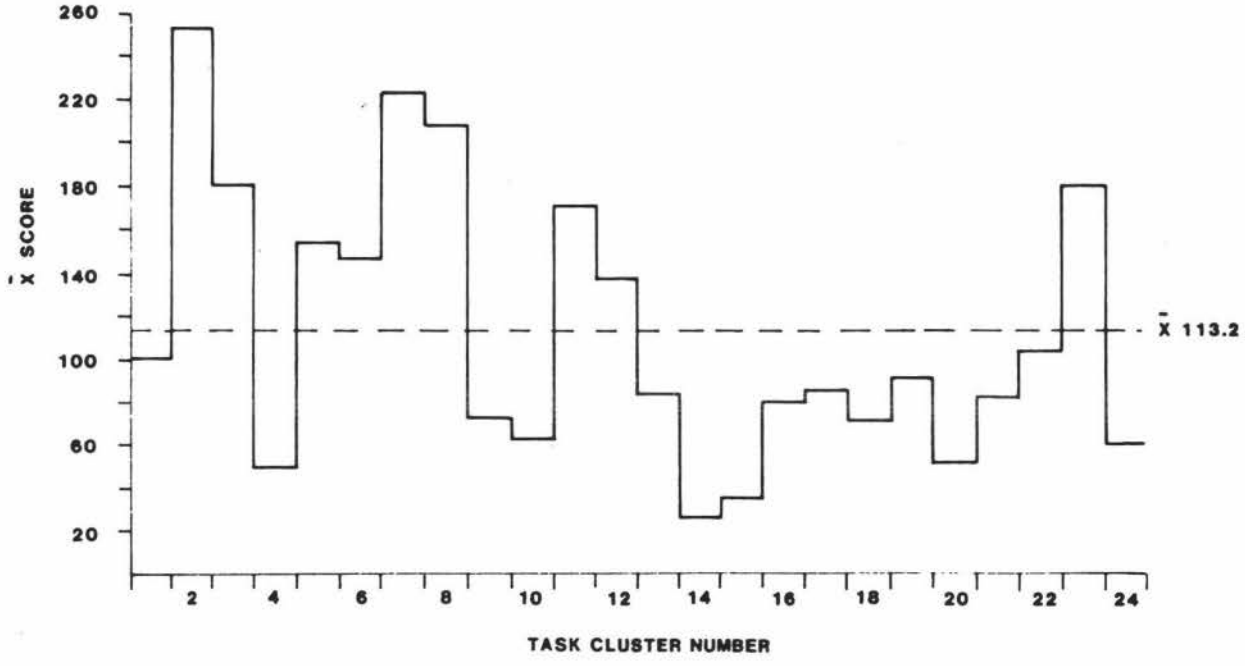
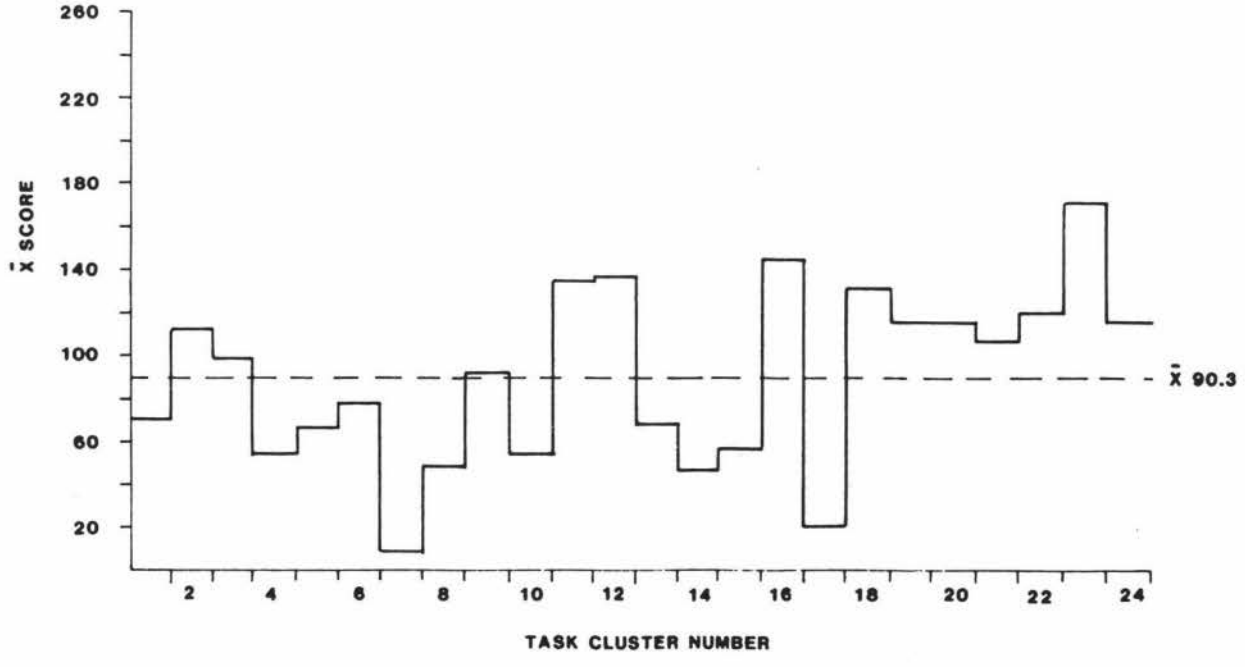


Figure 5.12 Cluster Index Scores, Administrators.



An examination of these graphical representations, and the tables of findings, highlights the commonalities and differences among these areas of social work practice within the Department of Social Welfare.

The central position of basic counselling and problem solving tasks in both Residential and Field work is obvious in the cluster analysis findings (as it was in the task analysis). The major difference between Field and Residential work was the high level of performance of personal care tasks and the teaching of social and living skills undertaken by residential workers. A lesser difference is noted in the types of therapeutic interventions undertaken. Field workers favour family based methods whilst residential workers favour group based techniques. Both groups show an equivalent high use of individual treatment strategies.

Apart from these few obvious areas of different activity, the graphed findings show a close relationship between field and residential social work tasks. To explore if there was any empirical support for this notion, the Pearson Product Moment method(6) was used to measure the correlation between the C.I.S. of Department of Social Welfare Field and Residential workers. A correlation co-efficient of plus 0.43 was obtained, which indicated a moderately strong relationship between the C.I.S. of Field and Residential workers. This result would suggest that the tasks these two groups of direct service workers undertake have much in common.

The graphed C.I.S. of the Administrators (Figure 5.12) shows little surface resemblance to the C.I.S. of the direct service groups. The relationship between Field workers and Administrators was examined, also using the Pearson Product Moment method. There was a small positive correlation (plus 0.19) found, this indicated a negligible relationship between the tasks of Administrators and Field workers.

When the Field workers' C.I.S. (Figure 5.9 and Table 7.4) were examined, a pattern of field work practice emerged. The activities of personal counselling and problem solving (task cluster 2) assume a top prioity, supported by the tasks involved with the management of service arrangements (11). Reviewing, assessing and developing the workers' own practice activity (23) as the next most fundamental aspect of field work practice. These three clusters (2, 11, 23) of activity stand clear of other tasks as the centres of activity for field work practice.

Four task clusters form a second group of activity which was seen by respondents as important for field work practice. These are more specific tasks, than the first group, and require a set of discrete skills. These task clusters were: Providing a Professional Opinion or Expertise (24), often in the form of a court report; Formal Intervention with Individuals (3), using a specific intervention strategy; Client Status Assessment (6), often a formal assessment document is compiled to facilitate a referral or treatment; and Formal Intervention with Families (4), perhaps Family therapeutic techniques would be employed or a meeting arranged with the family. These tasks form a secondary, though important, constellation of tasks that field workers perform.

The respondents reflected a view of residential social work (see Figure 5.11 and Table 7.5) where Counselling Problem Solving activity (2), the Provision of Personal and Physical Care (7), and Teaching of Living and Social Skills (8) were given a top priority. This was a more physically active form of practice than the approach taken by field workers. Both the age of the clients (children and young persons), and the setting for practice (residential centres) contribute to this activity. Task Clusters 2, 7, and 8 are the central activities of residential social work practice as reported by the responents to this job analysis survey.(7)

A second constellation of task clusters supported the Counselling Problem Solving and the Teaching of Social and Living Skills clusters. These included: Formal Intervention with Individuals (3), which may involve an individualised behavioural programme for a child in care; Practice Assessment/Worker Development (23), which would typically include team meetings, training and supervision; Case Management (11), the activities around making service arrangements; and Formal Intervention with Groups (5), involving therapeutic group activities, often recreational or educational at the same time as being therapeutic.

This second group of activities has a close similarity to the Field workers' activities. The major difference is the Residential workers' preference for group work interventions in contrast to the Field workers preference for family work. This is perhaps more a reflection of the milieu for practice rather than a value placed on the mode of intervention. Few of the boys in residential care at Kohitere or Hokio are close to their families, which makes family work interventions rather problematic.

Perhaps the most striking feature of the C.I.S. (see Figure 5.12 and Table 7.6) of the Administrators, that responded to the Job Analysis survey, was the lack of any dominant features. Though the cluster of Self Assessment/ Worker Development (23) showed out from other task clusters, a large group of other task clusters supported this activity. This group included task clusters: 11, 12, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22 and 24. This spread of activity would suggest that Administrators have a wider range of tasks, that are less focused than the direct service workers. Indeed, when viewed alongside the direct service workers, the Administrators job profile (as seen in Figure 5.8) was quite unlike the others. This finding would indicate there are few points of similarity between the tasks involved in the administration of social work services and the actual implementation of those services. The low correlation

(0.19) between Field workers' C.I.S. and the Administrators' C.I.S. would support this view.

Discussion.

When current inservice training policy and programmes are examined in the light of the Job Analysis findings then some major issues are raised. For example; social work training within the Department has been predicated on the common sense assumption that 'different jobs require different training'. Consequently separate training centres have been established for Field and Residential social workers; separate induction training courses instituted; and more recently a Certificate of Proficiency in Residential Social Work (D.S.W. 1982) has been under development. Are these policies justified? Do Field and Residential social workers undertake sufficiently different tasks to justify separate training? The findings of this Job Analysis would suggest not.

Direct Service workers (Field and Residential) were shown to share a large core of common tasks. In fact the Cluster Index Scores of the two groups had a moderately strong correlation. This finding raises many questions for inservice training policy and demonstrates clearly that the empirical study of social work practice has the potential to inform training policy development.

Further, the Job Analysis identified the tasks Field and Residential workers share and the tasks that they do not have in common. This information has the potential to form a basis for constructing training curricula with a core of shared topics of interest, and a series specialised topics dependent on the workers occupational role.

Another finding of the Job Analysis has a particular impact on current inservice training policy. Supervisors and Managers were found to undertake a range of tasks that were significantly different from those tasks per-

formed by direct service workers. This finding raises the issue of the appropriate training for Supervisors and Managers. Is a social work training centre, with social work training staff, the most effective alternative? Should there be a training centre specialising in training Supervisors and Managers?

The Job Analysis raised some quite specific issues for social work trainers to ponder. For example: What skills do particular workers require? The Residential Staff Training School has adopted a policy of 'skills' training with a particular emphasis on 'Helping Skills'. These skills were developed and adapted from the Human Relations Development model of Carkhuff (1979). It is informative to compare the skills taught and practiced on courses for Residential Social Workers with the findings of the Job Analysis that detail the tasks and activities these workers undertake.

The highest ranked tasks for both Field and Residential workers (see Figure 5.8) were from the Counselling Problem Solving Cluster (2), and these tasks are similar to the skills taught on the Basic Helping Skills courses at the Residential Staff Training School. These courses were not planned on the basis of empirical investigation but on the basis of subjective assessment of practice. In the case of Helping Skills this assessment proved accurate. A recent memorandum from the Director of the Residential Staff Training School notes that the findings of Sheafors' study,

> "... confirms our major direction." (R.S.T.S.1983:11)

However this does not bear up to more detailed analysis.

The second and third ranked task clusters on the Residential Social Workers Task Index Scores (see Table 5.8) were titled: Providing Personal and Physical Care (Cluster 7), and Teaching Social and Living Skills (Cluster 8). These are central skills in residential social work,

according to the Job Analysis, but there were few courses mounted by the Residential Staff Training School in the last five years that specifically addressed these tasks and activities. The current subjective approach to policy and programme development has led to gaps in the training effort that can be identified by empirical investigation.

Whilst an empirical study cannot answer the questions raised by policy developers it can provide objective data to base decision making on. This thesis does not attempt to provide a definitive answer to the many questions raised in training policy development, but it does suggest that policy decision making based on data from an empirical study of the nature of social work practice has merit, and that training policy not informed by empirical investigation is subject to the contradictions and vagaries of subjective decision making.

NOTES

1. See Sheafor, B., Social Work Practice in New Zealand. Massey University 1982. The two major antecedents of Sheafor's study are: Teare (1980) and N.A.S.W. (1979)

2. The Questionnaire is in Appendix A.

3. The computer printouts for the Job Analysis are held at Massey University. These are available for further analysis on request to the Social Work Unit, Sociology Department, Massey University.

4. The analysis concentrated on the three major groups, the Community Workers are a small number (4), too small to provide reliable data. However this group should not be dismissed, an identifiable trend towards more community involvement in social work activity was noted in the 1983 Staff Training Circular. As other agencies move towards a Community Work orientation the Department of Social Welfare may be required to provide a training response.

5. See Appendix B for a discussion of Department of Social Welfare workers' Personal Characteristics, including educational qualifications.

6. The detailed calculations are available on request.

7. It should be remembered that this view of Residential social work is a reflection of the geographical region the job analysis covered. In this region are two major boys' homes, Kohitere and Hokio, which are involved in the long term training of children in care. Because of the centralisation of activity in residential centres, Residential social work has a greater regional variation than Field work. One should keep this point in mind when interpreting the findings of this survey.

CHAPTER 6. TOWARDS AN ALTERNATIVE APPROACH TO SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION AND TRAINING.

The central thesis of the present research is that there are four primary elements to be addressed in social work education and training policies and programmes. First, sound social work education requires a consistent theoretical base which is rooted in practice and based on principles derived from practice. Secondly, a knowledge base, appropriate to established method(s) of social work practice, is required. Thirdly, sound training requires skills practice in the use of social work practice methods. Fourthly, there should be opportunities for personal development that encourages workers to use their own uniqueness as part of an agency staff or operational 'whole'.

It has also been argued that social work education and training needs to be informed by an empirical study of the nature of social work practice. Without this grounding in practice any curriculum development process in social work training would be just a theoretical exercise. Functionalism favours an approach to curriculum design that embodies theoretical logic and rationality. In this study considerable emphasis has been placed on linking theory to the tasks and activities that social workers undertake in their practice. This blending of theory and practice is of critical importance.

These propositions about social work education and training have provided a theoretical framework for the analysis of social work training policy and programmes within the Department of Social Welfare. It was argued that this research would reveal that inservice training tends to be reactive to the issues of the day; comprised of a 'patchwork' of unco-ordinated elements; and is centred on meeting the needs of the agency for training rather than systematically educating its social workers for practice.

The analyses, in the three previous chapters, have produced a comprehensive view of inservice social work training within the Department of Social Welfare. It was found that the Department's inservice training was not based on a consistent, explicit theoretical perspective; it unevenly covered the central elements of social work education; and was not grounded in an empirical study of the nature of social work practice. These findings support the thesis.

Functionalism is of course only one of the many approaches to social work education and training that has the potential to provide a theoretical and empirical base for policy and programme development. Whilst some critics (Leonard 1975, Righton 1979, Shirley 1982) have suggested alternative approaches, based on different theoretical perspectives, the functionalist approach has much to offer. It provides a conceptual framework through which social work practice may be analysed, it serves as a logical rational explanation of how society functions and it establishes boundaries for practice. Further, functtionalism is clearly one of the most useful conceptual models for analysing current approaches to social work education. To illustrate this point I want to close out this study by proposing an alternative model for curriculum development. This model is based on the functionalist theoretical tradition, and rooted in empiricism.

The Integrated Model of Curriculum Development for Social Work Education and Training.

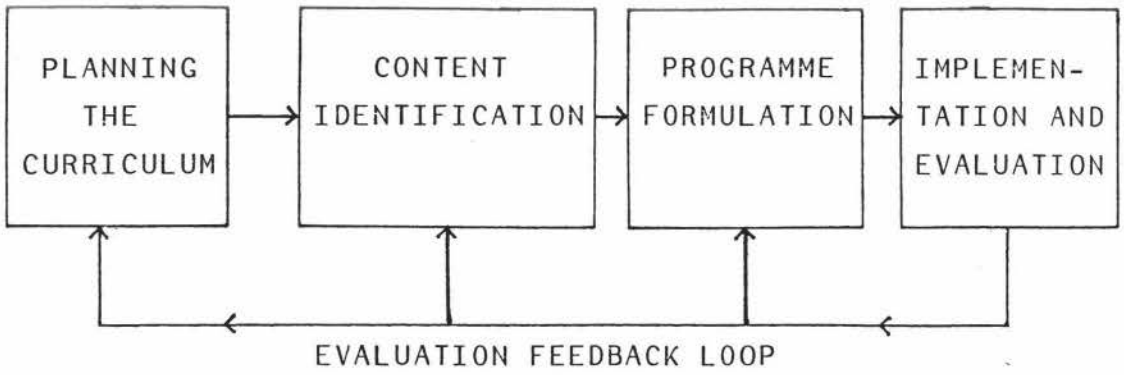
The model is rational, linear and systematic (see Figure 6.1). It incorporates a number of features from various traditions plus some innovations. It is divided into four linked sections, or steps, each step is based on a particular activity which leads onto, and slightly overlaps, the next section. The movement of this model flows from abstract policies to concrete programmes; the programmes operationalise the policies.

The integrated model is designed to be applied to a range of settings. In the first instance it has been designed with the Department of Social Welfare in mind, however it may be applied to other welfare agencies with little, if any, modification. Further, the principles espoused in this model could be applied to organisations, other than welfare agencies, that place a high priority on the training and education of their staff.

This model, when applied to an agency, would ideally be implemented by a team of management, workers, trainers, and others involved or interested in the training process. Within the Department of Social Welfare this group could include: the Assistant Director (Social Work Training) and other management staff, the social work trainers, advisory staff, a group of practitioners, and representatives of the N.Z.S.W.T.C. and the N.Z.A.S.W. This Curriculum Development Committee should have the facility to 'contract out' detailed aspects of the process. For example specific research projects (ie. a Job Analysis) could be assigned to a university or the research section of the Department of Social Welfare. The writing of training programmes could be assigned to subject experts within and outside of the Department.

Figure 6.1 (below) provides a schematic representation of the Integrated model of curriculum development for social work education and training. It is divided into four sections each based on a discrete, though linked, activity. The four activities are: Planning the Curriculum, Content Identification, Programme Formulation, and Implementation and Evaluation. An evaluation feedback loop completes the model by allowing adjustments, based on the evaluation procedures, to be made at all steps.

Figure 6.1 The Integrated Model of Curriculum Development for Social Work Education and Training.



This figure, and the one page summaries of the four steps that follow, provide an outline of the Integrated model. (Appendix D contains a detailed account of the four steps)

Step 1. Planning the Curriculum.

Goal 1: the development of a Curriculum Framework Document which includes,

a. Philosophy and aims of the institution.
b. Statutory obligations.
c. The staff the curriculum is to serve.
d. Instructional and support staff.
e. Material and financial resources.
f. Employment setting(s).
g. Curricular arrangements.
h. Content coverage.

Goal 2: the establishment of a decision-making process. In most cases a problem-solving model would be employed which would involve: analysing the problem, sorting out alternatives and their consequences, deciding upon a course of action and analysing actual consequences.

Step 2. Content Identification.

Goal: the development of curriculum goals and objectives based on objective data and an informed decision making process.

Figure 6.2 Summary of Content Identification Process.

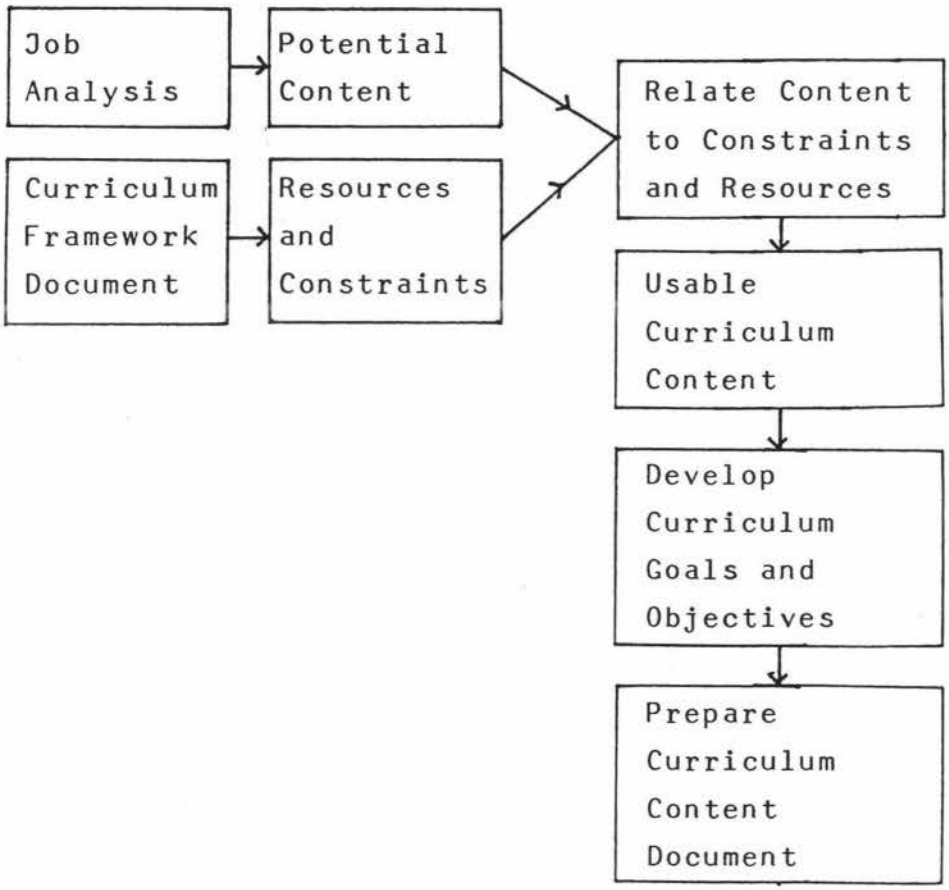
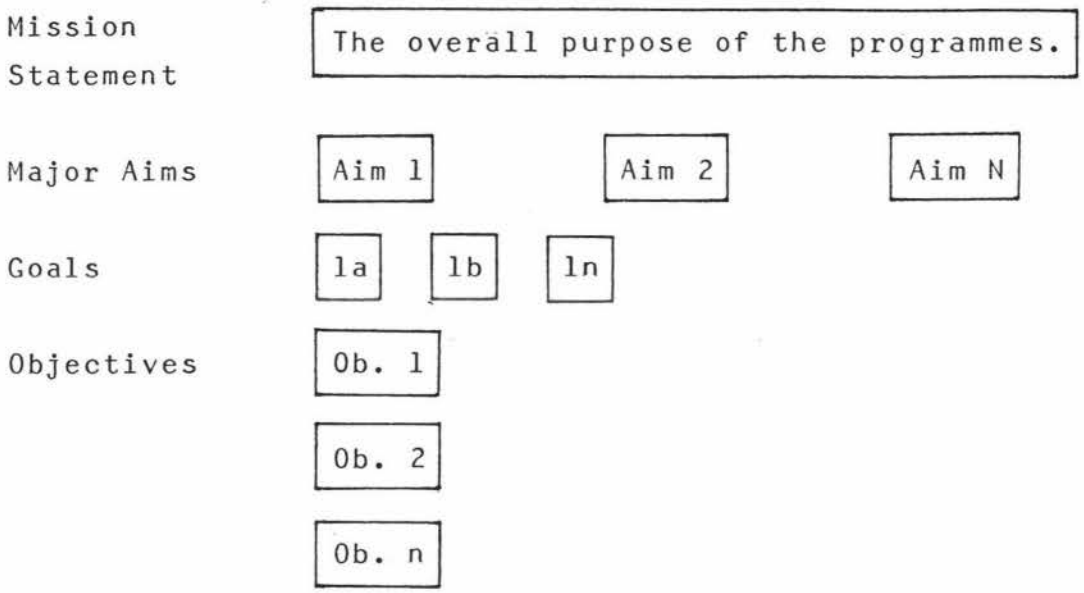


Figure 6.3 The Curriculum Content Document.
(Based on Egan, 1982)



Terms relating to the Curriculum Content Document.

Mission Statement. A generic term which indicates the overall purpose of a programme.

Aim(s). A loose statement of the expected outcome of an aspect of a programme. A programme may have several aims.

Goals. Specific statements of intended outcomes of a programme. Major aims may have several goals.

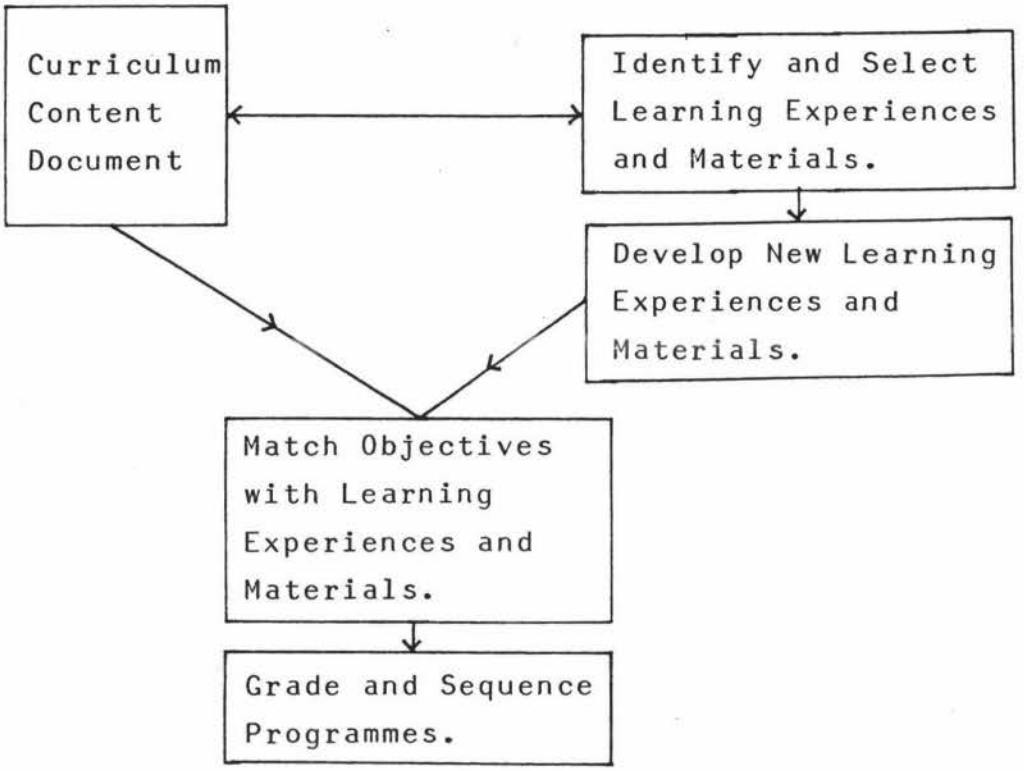
Objectives. Often confused with goals and a clear distinction between these terms is not always easy. Objectives are defined here as precise, measurable statements of particular behaviours to be exhibited by a learner under specified conditions. (Also referred to as a Behavioural Objective.)

It should be noted that these terms are listed in order of increasing specificity and that each term subsumes the term above it.

Step 3. Programme Formulation.

Goal: the development of sequenced and graded learning experiences designed to meet the curriculum goals and objectives.

Figure 6.4 Steps Involved in Programme Formulation.



Step 4. Implementation and Evaluation.

Goal: the implementation of the training programmes; and the evaluation of outcomes, the trainers' performances, the training materials and experiences, and the overall curriculum process.

1. Develop Evaluation Procedures for,
   a. Training materials.
   b. Trainers' performance.
   c. Social Workers' achievement.
   d. The curriculum development process.

2. Implement the overall programme.

3. Implement regular evaluation procedures to monitor the effectiveness and efficiency of the training programmes, making adjustments as the resources for, and constraints on, training programmes vary. The curriculum development process is constantly monitored and changed, via the feedback loops, as social conditions and social work practices change.

A range of curriculum development models provide the basis for the 'Integrated Model'. The Academic model provides the necessary theoretical logic and rationality by making explicit, and consistently applying, a theoretical framework.

The Technical model, the other major influence, provides findings from the Job Analysis as a basis for identifying and ranking the important social work tasks and activities to be taught and practiced by social workers. Some of the learning activities incorporated in training programmes, particularly those dealing with personal development, could be derived from the Experiential model of curriculum development. These activities would provide participants with opportunities for exploring their personal issues vis a vis the agency in which they work.

Attention is also given to the socio-political milieu in which these policies and programmes would be implemented: the Department of Social Welfare. This particular facet of the proposed Integrated model is enhanced by reference to the Pragmatic model, especially during the early stages of curriculum development, where competing goals and priorities need to be negotiated and resolved. This is also the point in the curriculum development process where a collaborative approach (ie. the Cultural Action model), which involves all parties interested in, and affected by the policies and programmes, may be applicable.

In the Integrated model an attempt has been made to incorporate the most fruitful elements of each approach. This is not inconsistent with functionalism which favours an integrated approach to the formulation of policies and programmes. Further, such an approach is not inconsistent with the views of Gay (1980) who suggested that:

> "Curriculum development is far from being a purely objective or scientific enterprise

> that follows a universal, predetermined planning process; curriculum development is more of an 'artistic' endeavour that is often chaotic, political and emergent. It embodies a combination of intuition, individual initiative and creativity, trial-and-error experimentation, social politics, and educated guesses." (1980:120)

The Integrated model, though developed for the Department of Social Welfare, could be applied to other agencies and organisations. It is suggested that this model may have the capacity to translate the conflicting demands, needs and interests of different groups into realistic, manageable instructional plans.

Final Comments.

The application of the Integrated model would allow for the following benefits to acrue. Social workers would be able to plan and sequence their training programmes over several years, they would also have a clearly enunciated theoretical perspective to work from, and their practice and training could be based on an objective understanding of social work practice. A theoretically informed training programme would help workers to understand the broad social, economic and political issues that surround their practice. Further, the basis would be provided for workers to evaluate their own practice through action research. Supervising social workers and managers would also benefit from an integrated approach as long term planning of training would be possible. The appointment and promotion of workers could also be systematically related to an integrated training programme.

An obvious area for further research would be the implementation and evaluation of this Integrated model. The Department of Social Welfare would appear to be a logical venue for further research, as it is the largest employer of social workers in New Zealand, and much of the initial research (ie. the Job Analysis) has already been completed.

The task of developing a theoretically based and empirically informed curriculum for inservice social work training is both complex and daunting. However it is an important task which has been noticeably absent in social work training policies and programmes in New Zealand. This thesis has advanced one approach and argued that it has merit, but this approach does not obviate the need to seek other alternatives. It is hoped that the findings from the present thesis will act as a catalyst to encourthe development and discussion of fresh approaches to social work education and training in New Zealand.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. THE JOB ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

SOCIAL

WORK

JOB

ANALYSIS

STUDY

Massey University

Social Work Unit

July/August 1982

SOCIAL WORK JOB ANALYSIS STUDY

Massey University Social Work Unit

July/August 1982

CODING INSTRUCTIONS

These instructions are to be used in completing PART II of the social work job analysis questionnaire. We are interested in the tasks you perform as you carry out your job and are interested in having you make four different ratings about a series of tasks typically performed by social workers. As you become familiar with the list of tasks you may think of some tasks you perform that are not on the list. Please add them at the end of the list and rate them on each scale.

SCALE A: "HOW OFTEN?"

This scale simply asks you to rate each of the tasks by how frequently you perform that activity in the normal course of your work. Write the number from the scale below in the space provided that best represents how often you perform that task.

A. I CARRY OUT THIS TASK: ---

①	②	③	④	⑤
Not Performed At All	Seldom	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost all of The Time

NOW COMPLETE SCALE A, FOR ALL 136 ITEMS.

BE SURE THAT YOU HAVE MADE A RATING FOR EVERY TASK.

Now go on to Scale B.

SCALE B: "HOW CRITICAL?"

This scale asks you to rate each task according to how critical the task is to the well-being of your clients.

DO NOT RATE ANY TASK YOU DO NOT PERFORM. IF YOU HAVE A "1" UNDER "HOW OFTEN?", YOU MUST PUT A "1" IN THE BOX UNDER "HOW CRITICAL?".

Now rate all of the tasks on SCALE B - including any new tasks you have written in at the end of the list.

B. IMPORTANCE OR CRITICALITY TO CLIENTS: ---

①	②	③	④	⑤
Not Performed	Somewhat Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	Critical

BE SURE THAT YOU HAVE RATED ALL TASKS ON SCALE B BEFORE GOING ON TO THE NEXT SCALE.

p.t.o.

CODING INSTRUCTIONS continued

SCALE C: "NEWLY HIRED?"

The next scale measures the importance for the newly-hired workers in a job like yours to be able to perform this task when they first begin work. Select the statement below that best describes the importance of this task for newly-hired workers and write the number associated with that statement in the space provided on the questionnaire.

RMEMBER THAT IF YOU GAVE A TASK A #1 RATING (Not Perofmred at All) ON SCALE A, YOU SHOULD ASSIGN A #1 RATING ON ALL OTHER SCALES. Complete all ratings on Scale C before going on to the final scale.

SCALE C. IMPORTANT FOR NEWLY-HIRED WORKERS TO DO:--

①	②	③	④	⑤
Not Important	Somewhat Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	Extremely Important

SCALE D: "RELATE TO SUCCESS"

The last scale measures the extent to which successful performance of this task relates to overall successful performance on the job as defined by your agency or employing organisation. Again, place the appropriate number on the questionnaire that corresponds with the following scale.

DO NOT RATE ANY TASKS IDENTIFIED AS NOT PERFORMED ON SCALE A.

SCALE D. RELATIONSHIP TO SUCCESSFUL JOB PERFORMANCE:--

①	②	③	④	⑤
Not Performed	No Relationship to success	Slight Relationship to success	Moderate relationship to success	High relationship to success

Take a few minutes to go back over the questionnaire and make sure you have answered all the questions in both Parts I and II. We know that completing this questionnaire becomes a tiresome task and thank you for devoting the time and energy to this endeavour. We think the results can help to improve the quality of social work practice and education in New Zealand and appreciate your contribution to it.

/ / / /
ID No.

CARD 1

PART I. PERSONAL AND JOB RELATED INFORMATION

The information about you and your job will be kept in strict confidence. The reporting of data collected in this questionnaire will carefully avoid releasing any information that can identify you personally. We are asking for this information to determine if we have a good representation of social workers in New Zealand in our sample and to help analyse similarities and differences in varied social work positions.

A. On today's date are you a paid employee in a permanent position who devotes at least half time each week to activities generally considered to be social work or closely related practice? (Among the activities that might be included as social work or related employment are community work, counselling, family work, group services, and administration or supervisory tasks.)

YES _____ NO _____

IF NO PLEASE DO NOT COMPLETE THE REMAINDER OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

B. From the list below, circle the number beside the type of welfare organisation that best describes your employer.

01. Hospital Board
02. Local or Regional Government
03. Private Practice or Profit-making Organisation (e.g. old people's home)

--STATUTORY GOVERNMENT AGENCY

04. Department of Justice
05. Department of Maori Affairs
06. Department of Social Welfare
07. Other Statutory Government Agency (specify) _____

--VOLUNTARY RELIGIOUS ORGANISATION

08. Anglican, Catholic, Methodist, Presbyterian Social Services
10. Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A.
11. Other Voluntary Religious Organisation (specify)

_____

--VOLUNTARY SECULAR ORGANISATION

12. Crippled Children's Society
13. Foundation for the Blind
14. Society for the Intellectually Handicapped
15. Other Secular Voluntary Organisation (specify)

_____

16. OTHER (please specify) _____

/ / /
5-6

C. Circle the number beside the category that best describes your current position:

1. Social Case Worker
2. Residential Social Worker
3. Community Worker
4. Welfare Worker
5. Administrator
6. OTHER (please specify): _____ / / 7

D. Please rank up to three items in the following list of types of work that best reflect the major activities of your job. The item ranked number one should be the primary work to which you are assigned and those ranked second and third the next most important areas.

RANK:

_____(1) Agency policy development and administration (e.g. agency management, staff supervision, staff training).

_____(2) Care and protection of people "at risk" (e.g. foster care, physical/emotional/intellectual disability, care of aging)

_____(3) Community educative activities (e.g. public information, courses and informal groups)

_____(4) Community services (e.g. community houses, self-help groups)

_____(5) Control, supervision, or training of clients (e.g. residential care, probation)

_____(6) Leisure-time services (e.g. personal development, recreation, sports)

_____(7) Problem-solving or treatment (e.g. counselling, group work, family work, therapy)

_____(8) Rights and access services (e.g. financial benefits, housing, employment)

_____(0) Support services (e.g. day care projects, volunteer programmes)

_____(9) OTHER (please specify) _____ / / 8

/ / / 9-10

E. Circle the number next to the term that best reflects the practice role in which you spend most of your time.

1. Administrator
2. Practitioner
3. Senior Practitioner
4. Supervisor
5. OTHER (please specify) _____ / / 11

K. Circle the number of the category that includes your age at your last birthday.

1. Less than 24 years
2. 25-34 years
3. 35-44 years
4. 45-54 years
5. 55 or more years

/ / 18

L. Circle the number in the list below that is next to the statement that best describes the highest general education level, or its equivalent, that you have attained.

1. Attended secondary school
2. School certificate (passed four subjects)
3. University Entrance
4. Seventh form higher leaving certificate
5. Attended university (incomplete degree, passed some papers)
6. Bachelor's degree (other than BSW). Major: _____
7. MA (other than social work option). Subject area:

_____

8. Ph.D. (other than social work)
0. OTHER (please specify) _____

/ / 19

M. Circle the number in the list below that best identifies any professional social work qualification, or its equivalent, you have completed.

1. None
2. Diploma in Social Sciences/Social Work
3. Bachelor of Social Work
4. MA or M.Phil. (Social Work Option)
5. Master of Social Work
6. Ph.D. (Social Work Option)
7. OTHER (please specify) _____

/ / 20

If you have any other pre-professional or professional qualification (e.g. community service, nursing, teaching), please list that below:

_____

N. Listed below are a series of reasons that clients of social workers use their services.* Please circle the number below that indicates how often, in a typical month, you deal with each of these issues (directly or indirectly) in carrying out your practice.

CLIENTS USE MY SERVICES IN RELATION TO:

	Almost Never	Seldom	Occas-ionally	Fre-quently	Almost all the time	
01. Abuse (physical/ sexual)	1	2	3	4	5	/___/21
02. Alcoholism/Drug Abuse	1	2	3	4	5	/___/22
03. Basic Living Skills (e.g. nutrition, self-care)	1	2	3	4	5	/___/23
04. Community Resources (e.g. public trans-port, recreation facilities)	1	2	3	4	5	/___/24
05. Family Separation/ Breakdown	1	2	3	4	5	/___/25
06. Health Related Problems	1	2	3	4	5	/___/26
07. Loneliness	1	2	3	4	5	/___/27
08. Mental Illness	1	2	3	4	5	/___/28
09. Mental Retardation	1	2	3	4	5	/___/29
10. Neglect (physical/ emotional)	1	2	3	4	5	/___/30
11. Personal Growth and Development	1	2	3	4	5	/___/31
12. Physical Disability	1	2	3	4	5	/___/32
13. Senility	1	2	3	4	5	/___/33
14. Shelter/Housing	1	2	3	4	5	/___/34
15. Status Offences (e.g. truancy, delinquency)	1	2	3	4	5	/___/35
16. Unemployment	1	2	3	4	5	/___/36

*Throughout this study the term client is used to refer to individuals, groups, families, organisations, neighbourhoods, communities, or even the more general society of New Zealand.

PART II. JOB ACTIVITY

In this part of the questionnaire, we are interested in getting detailed information about your job. Instructions for entering answers to this section can be found on the sheet of paper entitled CODING INSTRUCTIONS that was distributed with the questionnaire. It is important that you read the instructions and follow the procedures very carefully.

You will notice that you will be using four rating scales. Each one measures a different concept related to the job task described. In using the scales, you should rate all the tasks on a given scale before you move on to the next one.

Please start with SCALE A, "HOW OFTEN", rate all the tasks on that scale and proceed to SCALE B.

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	
1. Use a formal intervention technique to assist an involuntary client to make appropriate changes.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	37-40
2. Develop the basic design and goals of a programme in order to meet various needs for service.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	41-44
3. Assist clients to find and secure entitlements to social services (e.g. social security benefits, educational benefits) in order to receive benefits for which they are eligible.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	45-48
4. On a periodic basis, review reports of various personnel actions (leave, performance evaluation, staffing) in order to assure adherence to policy guidelines.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	49-52
5. Participate in group meetings (e.g. houseparents, tenants, neighbourhood groups, community decision-making groups) in order to assist in arriving at a group decision.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	53-56
6. Gather information from various sources (e.g. people, meetings, records) in order to verify or clarify statements made by clients or other individuals and groups.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	57-60
7. Prepare procedural material, such as personnel, safety, or financial guidelines (alone or with others), in order to provide standard operating procedures.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	61-64
8. Prepare and submit a detailed programme proposal or grant application to the appropriate local or national organisation, or to other funding sources, in order to secure approval and/or funding for needed services.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	65-68

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	
9. Bargain and negotiate with union or employee association officials in order to represent and protect organisational interests.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	69-72
10. Assist, supervise, and/or train clients to perform personal chores such as housekeeping, cooking, and errands in order to prepare them for daily living activities.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	73-76
11. Study and evaluate training programmes in order to determine whether or not training objectives or needs are being met.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	77-80
					CARD 02
12. Observe clients and gather information from appropriate sources in order to make preliminary judgement about the need for special counselling or mental health treatment.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	6-9
13. Review records of subordinates in order to insure that documentation (e.g. case recordings, correspondence, etc.) has been done according to proper procedures.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	10-13
14. Propose or analyse local and national social policies in order to contribute to a just and equitable social service delivery system.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	14-17
15. Review financial reports from providers of contracted services in order to assure their compliance with contract terms.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	18-21
16. Take formal action (e.g. remove child from home, call police, restrain client) in order to protect client or others in times of crisis or danger.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	22-25
17. Fill out requisitions, invoices, or vouchers in order to authorise or deny payment to vendors, suppliers, or other providers.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	26-29
18. Attend meetings, review information, make other contacts in order to keep an up-to-date knowledge of service resources and providers.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	30-33
19. Suggest or propose a plan to workers (or superiors) in order to gather needed support for a change in services, guidelines, or procedures.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	34-37
20. Inspect facility and contents (e.g. building, grounds, vehicles security posts, furniture, equipment) in order to assess security or hazards, determine deficiencies, or monitor status.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	38-41

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	
21. Clarify job duties, roles, and work assignments for workers (subordinates) in order to increase individual or group effectiveness.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	42-45
22. Use a computer, or information retrieval system, in order to gather or store data or inform practice decisions.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	46-49
23. Review subordinates' records to insure that professional standards are being met.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	50-53
24. Obtain information from various sources in order to carry out intake or determine the appropriateness of a situation for providing service.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	54-57
25. Give information to clients, relatives, or other people in order to explain and interpret agency programmes, policies, or procedures.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	58-61
26. Collect status information relating to condition of buildings and equipment in order to document need for repairs or purchasing.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	62-65
27. Review files and records prior to an interview, home visit, meeting or other type of contact in order to be familiar with the details of the situation.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	66-69
28. Read articles in professional journals, books, in order to keep up with developments related to your job responsibilities.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	70-73
29. Establish service policies and practices in order to provide standards for unit, programme, or agency services.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	74-77
					CARD 03
30. Write or supervise the writing of news releases, stories, brochures, and publications in order to inform clients and the public.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	6-9
31. Visit and inspect care facilities (e.g. day care, foster homes, residential care) periodically, in order to evaluate services provided, the suitability of the environment for the persons cared for, or to solve any problems.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	10-13
32. Design surveys (questionnaires, interviews) for specific groups of people (for example, clients, employees, community people) in order to gather their opinions.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	14-17
33. Carry out arithmetic or statistical calculations in order to determine characteristics or infer relationships about clients, workers, programmes, or facilities.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	18-21

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	
34. Calculate or record employee (including paid clients) information (e.g. attendance, leave, travel status, compensatory time) in order to prepare payrolls or summarise employees' status.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	22-25
35. Provide knowledge to clients about personal living skills (e.g. hygiene, grooming, money management, housekeeping, food preparation, personal mobility) in order to improve their independent functioning.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	26-29
36. Observe or inspect clients' homes in order to assess security or hazards, determine deficiencies, or evaluate their status.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	30-33
37. Work with clients in a small group or during a structured activity in order to teach them how to behave in group situations.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	34-37
38. Develop job classifications and descriptions drawn from established social service staffing patterns to organise personnel structure.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	38-41
39. Attend workshops, seminars, or programmes, dealing with topics of interest or need, in order to improve your job knowledge and skills.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	42-45
40. Plan or participate in organised campaigns or demonstrations in order to persuade officials or other decision-makers to establish or change laws or policies on behalf of clients.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	46-49
41. Keep track of the distribution and use of supplies, equipment, furniture, benefit forms, etc., in order to insure an adequate supply.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	50-53
42. Summarise and synthesise data about services and clients in order to determine service outcomes.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	54-57
43. Use formal change strategies with decision-making bodies (e.g. councils, agency boards and committees) to improve resources or conditions in the community.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	58-61
44. Observe clients and gather information from appropriate sources in order to establish the existence of a substance (e.g. alcohol, solvents, drugs) abuse problem.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	62-65
45. Observe clients and gather information from appropriate sources, looking for signs (e.g. withdrawal, flat effect, depression) in order to assess the possibility of sexual abuse (e.g. rape or incest) or psychological neglect or abuse in children or adults.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	66-69
46. Plan for the development, construction, renovation, or repair of a building, wing, or unit in order to provide appropriate physical plant.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	70-73

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	
47. Review records and work load information in order to assign or reassign tasks to unit or staff members.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	74-77
					CARD 04
48. Talk with clients or relatives about problems in order to reassure, provide support, or reduce anxiety.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	6-9
49. Work with clients and their families to prepare them psychologically and socially for movement from one living arrangement to another (e.g. hospital, residential care, old people's home, foster home).	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	10-13
50. Tell clients about services and/or resource locations in order to promote their use by clients.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	14-17
51. Meet with co-workers or staff in order to plan and develop the operation of a new or expanded service programme or administrative unit.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	18-21
52. Convert programme goals and concepts into specific plans, including staffing and funding, in order to start programme operation.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	22-25
53. Give routine first aid to clients in order to provide comfort or prevent more serious physical problems.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	26-29
54. Review work plan for an individual case (e.g. appointments, visits, mail, memos) in order to plan activities and set priorities for a given work period.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	30-33
55. Draft, dictate, and/or proofread correspondence to clients, workers, or others in order to answer inquiries or to request specific action or information.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	34-37
56. Testify, explain, or make recommendations in the justice system (e.g. Children's Boards, Children's Court, Family Court, District Court) in order to provide information on which legal decisions (e.g. supervision, probation, committal) can be based.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	38-41
57. Use standard reporting forms or methods (e.g. work sampling, time study, case sampling) in order to compile data for reimbursement, billing, cost analysis, or other purposes.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	42-45
58. Meet with representatives of other units or agencies in order to develop cooperative arrangements among service providers.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	46-49

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	
59. Review and discuss your personnel evaluations with your appropriate superior in order to clarify their assessment of your work.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	50-53
60. Supervise the administration of medication to clients, according to procedures, or see that medications are being taken by clients in order to promote or maintain health.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	54-57
61. Plan agenda or conduct meeting of staff in order to exchange information, gather opinions, and/or determine courses of action.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	58-61
62. Record or dictate information about clients, using prepared forms or narrative, in order to establish records, update case status, document services provided, or terminate and close the case.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	62-65
63. Deal with grievances or conflicts between workers and union or agency representatives, discussing solutions to problems in order to resolve work issues.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	66-69
64. Provide or arrange for transportation in order to get clients to service or treatment resources.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	70-73
65. Use 'action methods' (e.g. role plays, play activities, family sculpture) or other experiential exercises to help family members explore interactional aspects of the family.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	74-77
					CARD 05
66. Read administrative literature (manuals, memos, circulars) in order to learn about or keep up with agency policies and procedures.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	6-9
67. Explain service programmes and policies to lay people in public appearances of various kinds in order to inform the public.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	10-13
68. Follow-up or monitor clients' referrals in order to insure that services are being provided.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	14-17
69. Discuss options with clients in order to help them understand choices and resolve a particular problem.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	18-21
70. Help out in problem situation or dispute between clients or between clients and a service provider in order to achieve a satisfactory solution.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	22-25
71. Evaluate your actions and decisions in order to determine if your practice activities are meeting the standards, values, and ethics required for quality service provision.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	26-29

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS ?	
72. Supervise and train clients in dressing, grooming, bathing, or shaving in order to increase personal comfort or improve appearance.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	30-33
73. Develop client skills (e.g. organisational decision-making procedures, community action) in order to help them set priorities and facilitate efforts to stimulate social change in the community.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	34-37
74. Encourage and help clients to discuss their points of view, feelings, and needs in order to increase their insight into the motives for their decisions and actions.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	38-41
75. Coordinate the service plans with others (e.g. co-workers, other providers, community groups, family) in order to facilitate delivery of services.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	42-45
76. Gather and compile data about services provided to clients in order to prepare statistics for periodic reports.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	46-49
77. Visit and/or investigate potential service resources or providers in order to assess their suitability or to approve them for use by the agency.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	50-53
78. Teach (or supervise the teaching of) groups of students or workers, in the classroom or other settings, according to a training plan, in order to increase knowledge or skills of staff.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	54-57
79. Serve as a mediator or referee in an argument between clients and others (e.g. spouse, parent, child, employer, landlord, social agency, government organisation) in order to achieve a satisfactory solution.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	58-61
80. Fill out standard forms or questionnaires in order to provide data for special studies about clients or the agency (unit).	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	62-65
81. Review and analyse data about service needs and demands in order to estimate workload and staffing requirements.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	66-69
82. Meet regularly with supervisor, other superior, or colleagues in order to review current workload, explore alternatives, and work on personal or professional development.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	70-73
83. Discuss the overall situation with clients, families, or community groups, including limitations and advantages of possible approaches, in order to arrive at a plan for service.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	74-77

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	CARD 06
84. Go over activities with subordinates, clarifying and evaluating the situation, recommending methods and approaches, in order to instruct workers in dealing with various client situations.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	6-9
85. Assist community to assess resources in order to resolve problems or improve social conditions.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	10-13
86. Review service plans and procedures in order to assure that clients' human rights are protected.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	14-17
87. Use a formal intervention technique with clients in order to improve social functioning and/or solve social problems.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	18-21
88. Use a formal therapeutic method in group situation in order to improve social functioning and adjustment.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	22-25
89. Go over policies, procedures, and laws with subordinates in order to inform or advise them about new or established policies or to alert them to effects on programmes.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	26-29
90. Talk with and counsel clients and/or family members in order to prepare for the termination of services or financial assistance.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	30-33
91. Work with a family using a formal intervention technique in order to develop improved communication skills within the family.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	34-37
92. Present and/or publish findings from studies or analyses in order to share your information with appropriate audiences.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	38-41
93. Teach clients leisure time skills in order to participate in handicrafts, recreation, therapy, or other socialisation activities.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	42-45
94. Participate in leisure activities with clients in order to provide recreation or reduce loneliness.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	46-49
95. Describe community needs to decision makers (legislators, board members, community officials) in order to persuade them to initiate, maintain, or restore programmes.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	50-53
96. Review and analyse records, consult with clients and with other workers involved to evaluate progress and to alter service plans if necessary.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	54-57
97. Counsel workers about personal or job-related problems in order to strengthen job functioning.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	58-61
98. Collect information and follow up leads in order to locate missing individual (e.g. spouse, parent, offspring, absconder).	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	62-65

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	
99. Get information from community leaders, groups, officials, client groups, and other agencies in order to determine adequacy of present services or the need for new programmes.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	66-69
100. Use telephone, make home visits, or talk with clients in order to locate people who might need services or financial help.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	70-73
101. Express and demonstrate understanding of clients' points of view, feelings, and needs in order to establish open and trusting relationships.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	74-77
					CARD 07
102. Review or gather information from various sources in order to monitor programme or unit progress or impact.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	6-9
103. Review and analyse available information in order to assess the effectiveness and outcome of service provided to clients.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	10-13
104. Explain client or programme needs to people, individually or in groups, in order to encourage them to become resources (for example, volunteers, foster parents, contractors, vendors).	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	14-17
105. Recruit and/or screen job applicants (including volunteers and students) in order to fill the personnel needs of a unit or department.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	18-21
106. Prepare, supervise, and/or serve meals for clients, either individually or from centralized kitchen, in order to provide nutrition.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	22-25
107. Verify expenditures or record financial transactions in order to document expenditures and balance accounts for programmes or units.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	26-29
108. Collect and present data in narrative, graphic, or other forms about individual, group, or community situations in order to assist in the assessment and selection of intervention strategies.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	30-33
109. Review programme fiscal policy and practice, budgets and expenditures, books and financial statements in order to assure adherence to accepted accounting procedures and regulatory agency guidelines.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	34-37
110. Call public meetings to draw attention to public grievances and to assist the meeting to find a proposal to remedy the issue.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	38-41
111. Teach individual workers or volunteers how to do a job, helping with job assignments when indicated, in order to provide on-the-job training.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	42-45

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	
112. Instruct clients in job application skills, effective work habits, and various job skills in order to prepare them for employment.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	46-49
113. Participate in legislative forums or hearings as a representative of the agency in order to explain and advocate a position on pending social welfare legislation.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	50-53
114. Schedule (coordinate) working hours, vacations, etc. in order to arrange adequate staffing patterns and coverage.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	54-57
115. Inquire about and discuss job vacancies or positions with employers in order to help clients find jobs.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	58-61
116. Confront clients about unacceptable behaviour in order to bring about changes or promote adjustment.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	62-65
117. Organise and complete case materials in order to prepare it for use in court proceedings (e.g. custody hearings, suits, committals	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	66-69
118. Interview clients, or review applications and complete paperwork as required, in order to determine initial or continued eligibility.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	70-73
119. Observe clients and gather information from appropriate sources, looking for signs (bruises, burns, cuts, unusual thinness, excessive dirt) in order to assess the possibility of physical abuse or neglect in children or adults.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	74-77
					CARD 08
120. Plan training session (or programme), designing curriculum, scheduling sessions, or arranging for staff or facilities in order to improve workers' skills and knowledge.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	6-9
121. Describe and discuss safety or security regulations to staff (or clients) in order to assure safe operations.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	10-13
122. Discuss proposed actions in order to acquaint clients or client groups with their rights and to provide full information.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	14-17
123. Make home visits in order to assist families to improve their social functioning and/or solve problems.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	18-21
124. Review available information and consult with other interested parties in order to arrive at a mutual decision and a plan for termination of services and/or assistance.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	22-25
125. Estimate or analyse funding requirements to prepare or review proposed budgets and fiscal plans for existing needs or new service programmes.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	26-29

	HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	
126. Take part in discussions with co-workers, talking over events of the day, problems, or particular clients in order to learn about programme operations or share experiences in dealing with clients.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	30-33
127. Observe clients and gather information to determine the urgency of a client's situation and emotional state in order to decide if emergency services, or routine handling is needed.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	34-37
128. Discuss job expectations and agency procedures (policies) with trainees or other new workers in order to familiarise them with the situation or to plan training and orientation for them.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	38-41
129. Provide technical assistance and support to community and client organisations or groups to promote self-help efforts.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	42-45
130. Develop or modify personnel evaluation forms and procedures and instruct staff in their use in order to assure valid data on staff performance.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	46-49
131. Meet with clients or client groups to help them decide what are the alternative choices available (e.g. housing alternatives, youth projects) in a problem situation.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	50-53
132. Fill out standard forms or write letters and memos to refer clients to appropriate services.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	54-57
133. In behalf of an individual client, use a formal intervention technique with family members in order to restore and strengthen the family as a resource to individual members.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	58-61
134. Evaluate your competence, biases, possible conflicts of interest, availability, and feelings about clients, in order to decide whether another worker could better serve the clients' interests.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	62-65
135. Teach groups of clients knowledge and skills for living (e.g. parent effectiveness, marriage enrichment) in order to enhance the quality of their lives.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	66-69
136. Discuss job performance and personal assessment with worker (subordinate) in order to promote understanding of job expectations or to work out any differences of opinion.	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	70-73

		HOW OFTEN?	HOW CRITICAL?	NEWLY HIRED?	RELATE TO SUCCESS?	
	WRITE IN ADDITIONAL TASKS IN THE SPACE BELOW:					
137.	_____	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	74-77
	_____					
	_____					
						CARD 09
138.	_____	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	6-9
	_____					
	_____					
139.	_____	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	10-13
	_____					
	_____					
140.	_____	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	14-17
	_____					
	_____					
141.	_____	/___/	/___/	/___/	/___/	18-21
	_____					
	_____					

JOB ANALYSIS STUDY

MASSEY UNIVERSITY

July/August 1982

TASK CLUSTER DEFINITIONS

1. BROKERING/LINKAGE - connecting clients with existing services; making arrangements, referrals for services; following up clients to be sure services have been provided. 25, 50, 64, 68, 98, 100, 115, 132.

2. COUNSELLING/PROBLEM SOLVING - providing advice, guidance, counsel, and insight to clients and relatives. Emphasis is on problem solving, building insight, and reducing tensions. While not precluded, use of formal interventive techniques is not implied. Heavy emphasis on mediation and persuasion. 48, 49, 69, 74, 79, 90, 94, 101.

3. FORMAL INTERVENTION WITH INDIVIDUALS - using "formal" interventive techniques, typically with single clients, to modify behaviour or resolve problems. "Formal" implies an explicit frame of reference, theory, orientation or interventive model. 1. 16, 87, 116, 133.

4. FORMAL INTERVENTION WITH FAMILIES - conscious use of "formal" or standard models, or procedures to help families modify behaviour or solve problems. Draws on principles of family theory and development in a therapeutic or change context. 65, 91, 123.

5. FORMAL INTERVENTION WITH GROUPS - using "formal" interventive techniques with groups to modify behaviour or solve problems. "Formal" implies an explicit frame of reference, theory, orientation, or interventive model. 5, 37, 43, 88.

6. CLIENT STATUS ASSESSMENT - gathering information, making observations to determine the degree of need, nature of problem(s), or severity of problem(s). Includes the assessment of eligibility for services/ assistance. 12, 44, 45, 85, 108, 118, 119, 127, 131.

7. PERSONAL/PHYSICAL CARE - providing for the day-to-day necessities of life (e.g., medicine, meals) and carrying out personal services for clients. 10, 53, 60, 72, 106.

8. TEACHING SOCIAL AND LIVING SKILLS - instructing individual clients in daily living skills (e.g., many management, hygiene, homemaking) and teaching groups of clients skills that will enhance their general functioning (e.g., parent effectiveness, premarriage/marriage enrichment, groups leadership skills, promote use of leisure, community action techniques). 35, 73, 93, 112, 135.

9. ADVOCACY - taking an active position in trying to obtain improved outcomes for clients. Includes organized activity (e.g., demonstrations) as well as informal, case-specific activity. Objectives can range from legislative or system change to obtaining services denied to clients. 3, 19, 40, 70, 86, 95, 110, 113.

10. RESOURCE STATUS ASSESSMENT - gathering information, making observations to determine the adequacy of a resource (e.g., potential vendor/ provider, client's home) within the context of service provision. 31, 36, 77.

11. CASE MANAGEMENT - carrying out intake, scheduling, making logistical arrangements for service actitities. 6, 24, 27, 54, 122.

12. SERVICE PLANNING - establishing priorities, setting goals, and developing a plan of services. Deals with the technical/clinical aspects of the service. 75, 83, 96, 124.

13. PAPER FLOW - gathering, recording, and processing information about clients, employees, or work activities. Emphasis is on the use of standardised procedures, forms, or techniques used in established routines. 17, 34, 55, 57, 62, 80, 107.

14. COMPILING/SYNTHESIZING DATA - aggregating and analysing information through surveys, special studies, to describe or evaluate services, prepare reports, or make administrative decisions. 22, 32, 33, 42, 76, 81.

15. EXTERNAL/PUBLIC RELATIONS - dealing with the public-at-large in terms of programme service information, resource mobilisation, or political activity. 30, 67, 104.

16. TECHNICAL SUPERVISION - providing advice, monitoring case actions and work loads to ensure that professional standards are being met and that clients are being dealt with appropriately. 13, 23, 47, 84.

17. PROPERTY MANAGEMENT - taking care of the physical, tangible components (e.g., equipment, supplies, building) of an operation. Includes maintenance, inventory control, safety, and security. 20, 26, 41, 46.

18. PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT - supervising and managing workers. Includes preparing work schedules, evaluating employee performance, handling grievances, and dealing with employee problems. 9, 21, 63, 97, 105, 114, 130, 136.

19. STAFF AND TRAINEE DEVELOPMENT - teaching and providing information and orientation to subordinates and colleagues. Includes the planning and design of training materials. 78, 89, 111, 120, 121, 128.

20. POLICY DEVELOPMENT - establishing and formulating policy materials of various kinds to ensure progamme and unit operation. Involves service as well as administrative policy. 7, 14, 29, 58.

21. PROGRAMME PLANNING/DESIGN - planning and establishing the objectives and form of new programmes or modifying the scope of existing ones. Includes budget preparation, job construction, and the securing of funding support. 2, 8, 38, 51, 52, 61, 125.

22. PROGRAMME STATUS ASSESSMENT - gathering information to determine the adequacy of programme operations. Includes evaluating effectiveness and compliance to operating standards. 4, 11, 15, 99, 102, 103, 109.

23. SELF ASSESSMENT/DEVELOPMENT - evaluating capabilities and limitations as a worker and participation in activities designed to foster self-growth and development. 18, 28, 39, 59, 66, 71, 82, 92, 126, 134.

24. PROVIDING PROFESSIONAL OPINION OR EXPERTISE - functioning as an expert or representative of the agency or profession. Includes giving testimony in legal proceedings. 56, 117, 129.

APPENDIX B. SUPPLEMENTARY JOB ANALYSIS RESULTS.

Personal Characteristics of Department of Social Welfare Respondents to the Job Analysis Questionnaire.

The Job Analysis Questionnaire (J.A.Q.) was in two sections. The first section sought responses to a number of questions regarding respondents 'Personal Characteristics' (ie. Age, Gender, Race, Education); the second focused on the respondents perceptions of their social work tasks and activities. Section two has been reported in detail (see Chapter five), section one will be discussed below.

The methodology, administration, and sampling procedures used in the J.A.Q. have been discussed in Chapter five and will not be repeated here. (The findings are summarised in Tables 7.1 and 7.2.) Table 7.1 contains the personal characteristics of the 159 Department of Social Welfare respondents to the questionnaire and includes the data for the total population of the survey (expressed as a percentage) for comparisons. Table 7.2 breaks down these findings into the occupational groups found within the Departments' respondents (Residential and Field Social Workers, and Administrators).

21.4% of respondents had completed a social work qualification, this percentage is lower than for the total population of the survey (36.4%) but higher than reported by Rochford and Robb (12%) (1981:14). Several factors may have contributed to this result. First, a number of groups containing qualified workers are located in the area surveyed (training centres, student units, and Head Office). Whereas Rochford and Robb's sample was national. Second, a high return rate from the hospital board's workers in the sample may have distorted the overall population. Third, Rochford and Robb's finding, though published in 1981, were collected in 1979 and may be dated. These present findings may reflect a trend towards an

TABLE 7.1 Personal Characteristics of D.S.W. Respondents.

Personal Characteristic	N.	Percent	Total Sample %
Age			
less than 24 years	15	9.4	10.1
25 to 34	61	38.4	34.2
35 to 44	47	29.6	31.6
45 to 54	29	18.2	19.6
55 years or more	7	4.4	4.5
Total	159	100.0	100.0
Gender			
Male	91	57.2	43.6
Female	68	42.5	56.4
Total	159	100.0	100.0
Race			
European Decent/Pakeha	136	85.5	90.4
New Zealand Maori	20	12.6	8.2
Island Polynesian	2	1.3	1.4
Other or No Response	1	0.6	-
Total	159	100.0	100.0
General Education			
Less than University Ed.	63	39.7	40.6
Incomplete University degree	49	30.8	27.8
University Degree (other than Social Work)	36	22.6	31.6
Other or No Response	11	6.9	-
Total	159	100.0	100.0
Completed Social Work Qualification			
Yes	34	21.4	36.4
No	125	78.6	63.6
Total	159	100.0	100.0

increasing proportion of qualified workers within the Department of Social Welfare. Finally, Sheafor (1982:7) suggested the J.A.Q. was of sufficient length to dissuade some potential respondents, especially those not committed to social work education, from completing it.

Whilst only 21.4% of Departmental workers responding to the survey had completed a social work qualification, 59.4% have attended university in some capacity and 22.6% have graduated with some qualification other than a social work qualification. The Department of Social Welfare workers are in the main well educated.

When educational qualifications were analysed in relation to the workers current position (Table 7.2) a more detailed picture emerged. Only one (2.4%) of the Residential workers surveyed reported that they had a social work qualification. This contrasts with 16.9% of Field workers and 54.4% of Administrators. Fewer Residential workers had attended university, than in the other occupational groups, with 78% having no tertiary education. Residential workers are clearly the least education group of social work staff in the Department. The Administrators are the best educated and qualified group. These findings would appear to have some important implications for social work education and training policies and programmes within the Department of Social Welfare.

The Department of Social Welfare respondents included more men than the overall population of the Job Analysis Survey (57.2% to 46.3%). When the findings are broken down into occupational groupings the distribution of men and women workers is clear (see Table 7.2). There are nearly two female Field workers to every male in the field, but administrative positions are dominated by men, with nearly 80% of administrative positions filled by men. It may be suggested that these findings represent support for the notion that promotional practices within the Department are biased towards men.

TABLE 7.2 Personal Characteristics, D.S.W. Respondents by Current Position.

Personal Characteristic	Residential S.W.		Field S.W.		Administrator		Total	
	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
Gender								
Male	31	75.6	27	35.1	26	78.8	91	57.2
Female	10	24.2	50	64.9	7	21.2	68	42.8
Total							159	100.0
Race								
European	27	65.9	71	92.2	32	97.0	136	85.5
N.Z. Maori	14	43.1	5	6.5	-	-	20	12.6
Island Poly.	-	-	1	1.3	1	3.0	2	1.3
Other or N.R.							1	0.6
Total							159	100.0
Education								
Less than University Ed.	32	78.0	22	28.6	6	18.2	63	39.7
Incomplete University Ed.	5	12.2	27	35.1	14	42.4	49	30.8
Degree (other than S.W.)	3	7.3	22	28.6	9	27.3	36	22.6
Other or N.R.	1	2.4	6	7.8	4	12.1	11	6.9
Total							159	100.0
Social Work Qualification								
Yes	1	2.4	13	16.9	18	54.5	34	21.4
No	40	97.6	64	83.1	15	45.5	125	78.6
Total							159	100.0

Residential respondents showed a high proportion of male workers (75.6%), this is perhaps due to the three major boys' homes in the region surveyed, each with a predominantly male staff.

The final comments on personal characteristics of Departmental staff will be addressed to race, or ethnic identification. First, there were no Maori, and only one Island Polynesian, Administrator who responded to the survey. When this finding is linked to gender, these data would support the notion that the Department of Social Welfare, in the lower half of the North Island, is administered by white males. Second, 92.2% of Field workers who responded to this survey are of European descent. This figure is disturbing in view of the high proportion of Maori and Polynesian clients, welfare recipients, and unemployed people that Field social workers and engaged with. Third, surveys of the children in residential care (McDonald 1977), Swain 1979) report that between 70 and 80% of children in care are Maori or Island Polynesian. The racial characteristics of Residential workers do not match their clients, but do compare favourably when contrasted with Field workers. 43.1% of Residential workers that responded to the survey were Maori. This finding represents a strong Maori presence among staff in residential institutions, and perhaps a positive employment policy (towards Maoris) among Principals of institutions in the region surveyed.

To summarise the personal characteristics of social workers who responded to the J.A.Q. A typical Administrator would be a university educated white male with a professional social work qualification. Field social workers are most likely to be white females with some higher education. A Residential worker is unlikely to have any tertiary education, and is more likely to be a Maori than either Field workers or Administrators.

These personal characteristics reflect a staff where a value, and promotion, is placed upon educational qualifications, particularly social work qualifications. This phenomena could perhaps be explained by a Professional Model of social work education and training that appears to operate within the Department of Social Welfare. This model favours the development of an educated 'elite' and maintains boundaries between the 'profession' and their clients (see Shirley 1982:6). The lack of a 'match' of personal characteristics between social work staff surveyed and their clients would tend to support this notion.

TABLE 7.3 Cluster Index Score Rankings, D.S.W. Respondents.

Rank	C.I.S.	Cluster	Task
1	214.2	2	Counselling/Problem solving.
2	180.8	23	Practice assessment/Worker development.
3	174.8	11	Case Management.
4	150.8	3	Formal Intervention with Individuals.
5	137.6	12	Service Planning.
6	134.2	6	Client Status Assessment.
7	125.3	24	Providing Professional Opinion.
8	110.1	8	Teaching Social and Living Skills.
9	107.9	1	Brokering/Linkage.
10	99.4	4	Formal Intervention with Families.

TABLE 7.4 Cluster Index Score Rankings, Field Social Workers.

Rank	C.I.S.	Cluster	Task
1	241.7	2	Counselling/Problem solving.
2	201.5	11	Case Management.
3	189.8	23	Practice assessment/Worker development.
4	168.8	24	Providing Professional Opinion.
5	164.7	3	Formal Intervention with Individuals.
6	160.8	6	Client Status Assessment.
7	151.6	4	Formal Intervention with Families.
8	136.8	12	Service Planning.
9	132.7	1	Brokering/Linkage.
10	102.4	10	Resource Status Assessment.

TABLE 7.5 Cluster Index Score Rankings, Residential Social Workers.

Rank	C.I.S.	Cluster	Task
1	256.5	2	Counselling/Problem solving.
2	222.0	7	Personal/Physical Care.
3	208.2	8	Teaching Social and Living Skills.
4	180.7	3	Formal Intervention with Individuals.
5	180.3	23	Practice Assessment/Worker development.
6	171.6	11	Case Management.
7	153.8	5	Formal Intervention with Groups.
8	144.0	6	Client Status Assessment.
9	138.9	12	Service Planning.
10	102.0	22	Programme Status Assessment.

TABLE 7.6 Cluster Index Score Rankings, Administrators.

Rank	C.I.S.	Cluster	Task
1	171.3	23	Practice Assessment/Worker development.
2	143.5	16	Technical Supervision.
3	138.6	12	Service Planning.
4	137.2	11	Case Management.
5	131.1	18	Personnel Management.
6	119.2	22	Programme Status Assessment.
7	116.6	24	Providing Professional Opinion.
8	115.9	19	Staff and Trainee Development.
9	115.1	20	Policy Development.
10	112.5	2	Counselling/Problem solving.

TABLE 7.7 Cluster Index Scores, Summary Table.

Task Cluster	Field S.W.	Res. S.W.	Admin.	Total Sample.
1	132.7	99.6	72.5	107.9
2	241.7	256.5	112.5	214.2
3	164.7	180.7	98.1	150.8
4	151.6	49.2	54.4	99.4
5	56.3	153.8	64.2	86.5
6	160.8	144.0	79.4	134.2
7	22.4	222.0	8.7	69.5
8	81.4	208.2	49.0	110.1
9	94.3	73.7	92.0	87.9
10	102.4	62.9	52.3	77.9
11	201.5	171.6	137.2	174.8
12	136.8	138.9	138.6	137.6
13	86.3	82.7	67.6	78.6
14	20.8	25.1	45.7	27.2
15	69.6	38.2	54.8	57.9
16	22.9	80.2	143.5	62.8
17	14.9	84.1	20.1	33.8
18	33.3	73.7	131.1	64.4
19	31.2	91.9	115.5	70.2
20	57.2	54.6	115.1	70.2
21	55.6	82.1	107.7	77.2
22	63.6	102.0	119.2	88.9
23	189.8	180.6	171.3	180.8
24	168.8	60.0	116.5	125.3
Mean ($\bar{x}$)	98.4	113.2	90.3	99.5

APPENDIX C. POLICY STATEMENTS AND TRAINING COURSES.

The staff of the Social Work Training and Staff Development Unit believe that social work is about:

- Assessing and acting on the wide range of causes of social needs
- Supporting and developing community resources and initiatives
- Assisting and enabling people to participate in decision making and having more power over their lives
- Effecting social justice, social responsibility and equity

We are committed to improving the effectiveness of social work and welfare services to the community.

We seek to assess, enable, develop, provide and evaluate a range of social work training and staff development opportunities that meet the current and ongoing needs of social workers.

This demands the provision of a comprehensive service that encompasses effective programmes in staff development, training and organisational development, leading to the continued growth of:

- Skilled and confident staff
- Competent social work practice
- Effective social service organisations

Our training and staff development practice is based on the following beliefs that:

1. Social work clients have a right to a competent service.
2. (a) Effective social work is responsive and relevant to client needs.
   (b) Effective social work training is responsive and relevant to the social worker's needs and professional activities that enable them to meet client needs.
3. Training and staff development are career long processes that take place within the context of ongoing organisational development.
4. The training process is based on the principles of adult learning and is therefore flexible, collaborative and purposeful.
5. Full consideration of staff development and training implications are essential in the formulation and implementation of departmental policy.

NEW ZEALAND SOCIAL WORK TRAINING COUNCIL

POSITION PAPER 2.4 MARCH 1978

IN SERVICE TRAINING

This Position Paper has been prepared from an analysis of past decisions of the New Zealand Social Work Training Council in this area and is presented as a guide for future decision-making and development.

The Paper is one of a series produced by the Council and will be revised at intervals as developments require. The Council welcomes comments on matters outlined.

Copies are available from: The Secretary, Social Work Training Council, C/- Department of Social Welfare, Private Bag, Wellington.

The Council

1. Adopts a supportive stance and takes an interest in in-service training.

2. Acknowledges that there is a place for in-service training, including courses for volunteers as well as other groups.

3. Sees the provision of in-service training as primarily the responsibility of the employing agencies.

BACKGROUND

The Council has limited its activities in this field, but has kept informed of developments in Government departments and agencies. Priority has been given by the Council to pre-entry training, the long term effects of which were seen as more urgent. This has influenced the Council in not pursuing vigorously any action in the diverse field of in-service training.

THE CURRENT POSITION

This section is intended to give a brief outline of the present situation in New Zealand. It is not necessarily a comprehensive review of the total situation.

A wide variety of courses for people in service are run by both statutory and voluntary agencies. Although the tradition has been for agencies to provide courses for their own staff, there have been moves in more recent times toward more co-operation. Some agencies have been offering places on their courses to those from other agencies, and others have been combining resources to jointly offer courses for their staff. Most Department of Social Welfare courses are offered to voluntary agencies and local authorities as well as statutory services.

Recent developments have included an increase in the number of seminars and courses in technical institutes, community colleges and university extension departments. There has also been more experimentation in patterns of training for in-service personnel.

DIFFICULTIES AND CRITICISMS

The following have been identified by the Council or referred to it.

1. The Council's decision to opt for pre-entry and basic professional training as its main focus has left this area relatively neglected.

2. The large number of courses, their wide variety and breadth, would make it difficult for the Council to give more attention to this area, in the light of its other priorities.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The Council has identified the following issues or questions for futher consideration.

1. To determine which areas of training are legitimately the concern of the Council and to establish priorities between these areas.

2. To determine the Council's role in the in-service training of social workers.

RELATED POSITION PAPERS

1.2. Basic Assumptions
5.1 In Post Social Workers.

New Zealand Social Work Training Council, Terms of Reference.

(a) provide a means of encouraging co-operation and co-ordination in the field of social work training;

(b) provide a formal means of assessing the training needs of both Government and non-Government agencies;

(c) determine types of training suited to the needs of different categories of social workers;

(d) propose curriculum and training standards and means by which suitable persons may be enabled to attend appropriate courses of training for social work;

(e) negotiate with the appropriate organisations for the establishment of suitable training courses;

(f) approve courses as suitable for those engaged in or intending to engage in social work;

(g) develop suitable forms of recognition of social work training;

(h) gather either itself, or through other organisations, such information as is required to reach its decisions.

New Zealand Association of Social Workers Position Statement on Education and Training. (Extract)

"Appendix

The commitment to social justice and equity and each of the three key principles stated at the end of this paper were evident in decisions made at the AGM of NZASW in August 1982. For example, the remit passed which stated 'That NZASW instruct the Education and Training Committee to consider, and to further develop for circulation to members, the ideas contained in Murray Short's SWTC report', asked that NZASW give more attention to the development of dialogical educational experiences in social work courses, as described by Marray Short's discussion of Paulo Freire's model of education.

At the same meeting NZASW adopted the International Federation of Social Workers' definition of social work. This definition begins with the statement that 'Social work is a profession whose purpose is to bring about social changes in society in general and in its individual forms of development'.

A more radical approach to social work curricula development matches this definition of social change as the primary aim of social work.

Finally, the following remits adopted at the 1982 AGM of NZASW emphasise that we wish to move towards increased accessibility to social work education and training in New Zealand:

a) That NZASW affirms the principle that basic professional training should be readily available to all social workers (including youth and community workers) regardless of ethnic origin, sex, economic status, geographic location, or physical disability.

b) That NZASW vigorously pursues issues which preclude ready access to social work courses for all workers.

c) That social workers confront institutional racism by the use of positive discrimination in training opportunities and appointments to social work positions.

d) That NZASW is concerned at the lack of opportunity for professional social work training for social workers in voluntary agencies. We urge the Department of Social Welfare to provide bursary facilities for social workers in the voluntary sector.

e) That the National Executive of NZASW research the possibility of an Extramural Diploma in Social Work being offered to cater for the needs of unqualified workers who do not reside in university centres."

(N.Z.A.S.W., 1983:6)

TABLE 7.8 Social Work Training Courses, 1979-83.

Course Title	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	Total
Induction (Field)	6	4	2	4	2	16
Induction (Residential)	1	2	1	1	1	6
Advanced Course for S.W. Supervisors		1				1
Interpersonal Skills in Supervision		1				1
Training and Staff Devpt.		1				1
Refresher in Supervision and Management		1				1
Creative Teamwork for Supervision					1	1
Supervision and Management	4	2	1	2	1	10
Working with Families for Supervisors					1	1
Supervision for Residential Social Work.					1	1
Managing for Change in S.W.					1	1
Training for Trainers	1	2	1	1		5
Assertion for Senior Social Workers				1		1
Basic S.W. Skills		2				2
Basic Helping Skills	2	2	2	1		7
Advanced Helping Skills			1	1	1	3
Planning for Children in Care	3	2	2		1	8
New Methods in S.W.					1	1
S.W. with Mentally Ill				1	1	2
Group Work in S.W.		1	1	2	1	5
Community Development					1	1
Sexual Issues in S.W.				1	1	2
Separation and Loss			1	2		3
Effective Methods for Working with Children				1		1
Working with Families		1	3	1		5
The N.Z. Family Today				1		1
Recreation and Activities	1	1	1	1		4
Developing Adolescent Relationships			2	1		3

TABLE 7.8 Cont.

Course Title	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	Total
Working with the younger Child			1			1
Social Work and the Law			3			3
Action Methods in S.W.			1			1
Developing Self Esteem			1			1
Group Work with Adolescents			1			1
Effectiveness in S.W.		1				1
Child Abuse		1				1
Issues in S.W. Practice		1				1
Effective Counselling for Social Workers		1				1
S.W. Training Course	2					2
Res. S.W. with Children	2					2
Refresher Course for House Staff	1					1
S.W. Refresher Course	2					2
Children and Young People in Care	1					1
Involving the Volunteer	2					2
Training for Foster Care	2					2
Total	29	27	25	22	15	118

(Total Course Titles 44)

APPENDIX D. THE INTEGRATED MODEL OF SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION.

Planning the Curriculum.

The first activity in the Integrated model of curriculum development is planning the curriculum. Two goals have been identified: first, to produce a Curriculum Framework Document which encapsulates the background to the curriculum and is a statment of training policy; and second, to establish a systematic decision making process to enable the curriculum committee to resolve the many decisions they have to reach. The Curriculum Framework Document provides a theoretical and rational basis for the curriculum (cf. the Academic Model). Whilst the decision making process allows for the different groups involved in the curriculum to negotiate a curriculum acceptable to all parties (cf. the Pragmatic Model).

The Curriculum Framework Document.

The following points should be considered in detail by the curriculum committee and assembled in the Curriculum Framework Document.

1. The Philosophy and Aims of the Institution, (ie. theoretical Orientation), which may be available in a clear statement. If this is not the case a separate exercise may be required to establish the philosophical base of the institution (eg. an organisational development exercise).
2. The Establishing Legislation may provide a starting point for examing major welfare organisations. It would be important to consider if the statement of philosophy and aims are current. The theoretical position adopted by the curriculum committee is critical to the rest of this exercise and time spent here is not wasted for if the issues of first principles are not resolved then the problems that were

observed in the Department of Social Welfare would occur. The functionalist position on social work education and training that was discussed in Chapter two, especially Teare's Goals (see p. 17), is an example of a theoretical position that could be applied to a large welfare organisation such as the Department of Social Welfare. The position adopted by the organisation would need to take into account the views of the professional association of social workers, perhaps including the International Code of Ethics.

3. The staff the curriculum is designed to serve is another important consideration if instruction is to be 'pitched' at an appropriate level. Data from an empirical study of social workers, including interviews, can help to determine expressed and unexpressed training needs. The material from the Job Analysis on 'Personal Characteristics' of social workers (see Appendix B for the Department of Social Welfare respondents) provides valuable data to assist decision making. For example the level of education of workers entering or on the job is an important factor to consider.

4. The Instructional and Support Staff also need to be considered. What number of staff are available? What is their expertise? What training do they need? How many training hours can be provided? Can the staff (the trainers) provide guidance, supervision and motivation? These questions would need to be addressed by the curriculum committee. It has been my experience as a social work trainer that courses are sometimes designed around the trainers strengths rather than the learners needs. In the curriculum that is advocated here the process would be to recruit and train trainers to teach a curriculum rather than design a curriculum to suit trainers.

5. The Material and Financial Resources are often considered first when curriculum planning begins. Whilst available funds are critical for the achievement of programme quality, it is suggested that resources need not be considered at the outset. If detailed budgeting is considered, alongside other factors in the decision making process, then financial considerations will not gain undue prominence. Once training priorities are established then resources can be considered with these prioities in mind.

   Other material resources that should be considered by the curriculum development committee are: buildings and other major capital investments, audio-visual and other teaching aids, availability of publications and other written resources, established programmes in the community that can meet training needs (eg. Universities, Polytechnical Institutions etc.), visiting experts and other 'people' resources such as local cultural groups (eg. Maraes). In planning for a major welfare agency, consideration must be given to the resources both within and outside of the agency.

6. The Employment Settings the workers are involved in, are entering, or may be promoted to, must be considered in curriculum planning. Information about staffing trends is available in most large organisations, and should be analysed to provide an empirical base for decision making when possible. For example when an agency is experiencing a high 'turn over' of staff they may decide to focus their training efforts on pre-entry training. By monitoring the economic situation, it may be possible to predict changes in employment patterns. The current low 'turn over' rate of staff in the Department of Social Welfare provides important information for the curriculum planners. The monitoring of staffing trends would be a useful activity to maintain on a regular basis.

The range of social work services offered by the agency should be considered. The Job Analysis data can provide useful information to shape training policy. As has been discussed in previous chapters, Field and Residential workers have some similar and some different tasks and activities and these need to shape training policy. Likewise, Managers, Supervisors and direct-service workers have different training needs and their employment settings should be considered in developing policy.

A final consideration, under employment setting, is the national and regional characteristics of the social workers' client groups. The cultural and ethnic mix varies greatly within New Zealand and social workers need a special sensitivity for their region or community. Curriculum planning should show a similar sensitivity. To achieve this, planners need to consider these issues at an early stage and monitor the curriculum development process to ensure that it does not contribute to the problems experienced by workers and their clients alike. Along with cultural sensitivity, awareness of gender differences, and the problems of any disadvantaged group, on a national or regional basis, must be considered by the sensitive curriculum planner.

7. Curricular Arrangements to be considered include a broad range of concerns and questions that the curriculum planner needs to resolve. Eg: what time can be made available for training? Is some form of certification desirable? What standards should be met? Should these be monitored from within or outside of the agency? Are qualifications and training to be linked to salary and promotion? What money is available for training expenses? Is clerical support available? What travel and accomodation expenses are involved? Is it preferable to train on-the-job for some aspects of social work practice, or

is off-the-job training preferable? Is there need for relief staff for those on training courses? Each agency would require different arrangements and the curriculum planner would do well to examine current practices.

8. Content Coverage is the final consideration to be included in the Curriculum Framework Document. Policy decisions regarding staff selection have a bearing on content coverage. A functionalist based programme would consider the elements Smalley (1967:303) identified as important (see Chapter 2). What, and how much, content is covered in training programmes is determined in part by the amount of resources available and the constraints imposed. The level of staff education is another factor, an examination of staff abilities and needs would inform decisions about content coverage. Agencies selecting, and promoting, only professionally qualified workers can assume a particular level of education and plan inservice training to cover content not available on university courses or provide indepth coverage of topics.

When these eight factors are considered by the curriculum committee the Curriculum Framework Document can be finalised to provide a basis for training policies that will be operationalised into programmes over the next two steps (Content Identification and Programme Formulation).

Establishing a Decision Making Process.

The Curriculum Committee would need to establish a process of decision making at an early stage before the Curriculum Framework Document is developed. Curriculum developers are involved in two main types of decisions: operational and policy decisions. Operational decisions are concerned with the day-to-day activities of the curriculum and serve to move the curriculum smoothly ahead.

Policy decisions are concerned with goals, objectives, and some basic structure for achieving these goals and objectives. Policy decisions establish a curriculum, operational decisions are concerned with its management. Both of these areas have a direct influence on the success of the curriculum.

Philosophy, ideology, social and psychological factors influence decision making. The curriculum committee members need to understand, and come to some working agreement about, these factors to work effectively.

A decision making process with a high level of objectivity is in line with the functionalist tradition. However final decisions in curriculum development rest on human judgement. The level of objectivity can be enhanced by informing decision making with reliable data from empirical research into curriculum problems.

There are several models of decision making available to the curriculum planner (see Finch and Crunkilton 1979:36). A Problem Solving Model, which allows empiricism to be flavoured by pragmatism, is advocated here. Briefly the model consists of six steps:

"1. Identifying and defining the problem.
2. Analysing the problem.
3. Arriving at appropriate alternative solutions.
4. Clarifying consequences to the alternative solutions.
5. Selecting the best alternative solution to the problem.
6. Analysing actual consequences arising from the decision." (Finch and Crunkilton 1979:37)

Content Identification.

The second stage of the Integrated Curriculum Development Model involves the activity of identifying curriculum content. The goal of this phase is the development of a set of curriculum goals and objectives that are based on empirical data and filtered through an explict decision making process.

This stage is addressing the question: What do we teach social workers? Potentially anything, or everything, could be offered in programmes and no doubt would provide a well educated group of workers. However there is a finite amount of time and resources available for social work training in any agency and priorities need to be made. In this model seven steps are outlined which successively refine potential curriculum content into a set of curriculum goals and objectives, organised into a Curriculum Content Document.

1. A Job Analysis is used as the first step to determine curriculum content. Training is based on practice, in the functionalist tradition, and a Job Analysis can give a clear picture of the nature of social work practice. (The Job Analysis methodolgy has been described in detail in Chapters One and Five). It is sufficient to note that the Job Analysis was chosen as the first step in reducing potential curriculum content for the following reasons. Compared with other methods of determining curriculum content the Job Analysis has a high level of objectivity (Finch and Crunkilton 1979:121). The method has also had widespread use by vocational educators in a number of fields particularly Social Welfare (Teare 1981, N.A.S.W. 1981) and has consequently been subject to a number of refinements and gained acceptance as a useful methodology. Sheafor (1982) demonstrated the methodology can be applied to the New Zealand situation. Finally the use of a Job Analysis is consis-

tent with, and illustrative of, the functionalist theoretical orientation of the Integrated Model for Curriculum Development.

2. Potential Curriculum Content is ranked by analysing the Job Analysis findings. The tasks that are most important to each practice setting can be ranked, as can be the tasks that newly hired workers perform. (The data for the Department of Social Welfare outlined in Chapter 5 are illustrative of these points.) From this information priorities can be made, core tasks identified, and specialist activities noted by the Curriculum Committee.

3. The Curriculum Framework Document, that was developed earlier, is now brought forward and becomes, along with the Job Analysis, one of the two central sources of information for decision making. This document represents the resources and constraints on the curriculum content and is a controlling element in this model.

4. Potential content is related to resources and constraints and usable curriculum content is generated. It is at this step that the technical and the pragmatic aspects of the Integrated model interact. Priorities based on the Job Analysis findings would be established and the Curriculum Framework Document would be used by the Curriculum Committee to help organise priorities. Decisions would be taken regarding which content to include in the current programme and which material may be offered at a later date.

5. Usable Curriculum Content can be organised according to the priorities identified. An example from the Department of Social Welfare material from the Job Analysis can illustrate this point. It may be recalled that Field and Residential workers shared a

core of common tasks that were identified by the Job Analysis. These tasks could form the basis of a 'core training' programme for these workers, whilst the tasks that each group undertake that are unique to their practice role may form the basis of specialised training modules.

6. Developing Curriculum Goals and Objectives is the final stage of content identification. It is basically a mechanical step of converting the usable curriculum content into a formal goal statement. Egan (1982) suggested a goal statement, when well written, should fufill the following requirements. Goals should be:

    a. Stated as accomplishments.
    b. Clear and specific.
    c. Measurable and verifiable.
    d. Realistic and relevant.
    e. Adequate, in that they have the potential to bring about substantial change.
    f. Congruent with the clients values (in the case of social work, perhaps the ethical standards of the N.Z.A.S.W.)
    g. Have a reasonable time frame.
    h. Clearly communicated to those responsible for their achievement.

The stage of Content Identification is completed when the Curriculum Content Document is finalised. This document as illustrated (see Figure 6.2) contains a Mission statement, a list of Major Aims, details of specific Goals that subsume each major aim, and a list of precisely worded objectives designed to meet each goal.

Programme Formulation.

The third phase of the Integrated model involved the activity of programme formulation. The goal of this phase is the development of a set of sequenced and graded learning experiences, designed to meet the curriculum goals and objectives as stated in the Curriculum Content Document. This phase is concerned with addressing the question: How do we go about teaching the content that we have identified?

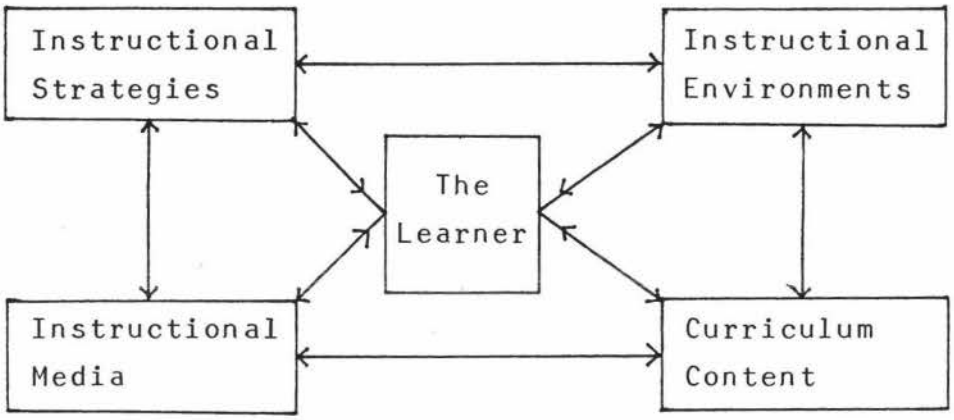
Figure 6.4 summarises the four steps laid out to meet the goal of programme formulation. These will now be considered in some detail.

1. Sorting Objectives from the Curriculum Content Document is the first activity. Policy decisions made in the early stages of curriculum development can be implemented. For example, the Job Analysis findings identified the 'core' tasks for Field and Residential workers, at this stage the objectives that relate to 'core' training may be separated from those objectives to do with 'specialised' training, if a policy decision to integrate social work training had been made by the Curriculum Committee. This step is carried out in tandem with the second activity.
2. The Identification and Selection of Learning Experiences involved matching learning experiences with the objectives from the Curriculum Framework Document. It is suggested that a pool of potential curriculum materials and learning experiences should be developed from which usable material can be selected. Much material is available, from existing programmes, that may need some revision or adaption to meet the required objectives.
3. New Learning Experiences may be Developed where there are no resources available, or where the existing resources are inadequate to meet the objectives of the

programme. There are, for example, some publications that have a particular bias towards the culture they were developed (eg. North America) in and do not fit comfortably into the New Zealand context. Minor editing can adapt these useful resources. There are also an increasing number of indigenous resources available that are suitable for social work education and training. Finch and Crunkilton (1979:196-217) provide a detailed model of developing curriculum materials for vocational education which could be utilised by social work trainers.

4. Objectives can now be Matched with Learning Experiences and Curriculum Materials. This process would typically involve those responsible for implementing the programmes along with the curriculum developers. At this stage the inter-relationships between curriculum content, instructional strategies and media, the environment where the learning is to take place, and the learner need to be considered. (Figure 7.1 illustrates these inter-relationships.) Each of these factors need to be considered separately as well as together, for changing one has an effect upon the whole system. For example, if training was to be based in training centres (Instruction Environment) that policy would influence what learners could attend (those that are free to travel), the type of teaching strategies used etc. The particular content would also influence the environment, for example a Group Work programme would require a group context if meaningful learning was to be gained.

FIGURE 7.9 Factors to Consider in Matching Content and Instruction.
(Adapted from Finch and Crunkilton 1979:223)



5. Learning Experiences are Graded and Sequenced to provide an integrated programme. Training can then follow a rational linear pattern that would allow promotion to be linked to training. With a graded and sequenced programme workers can be credited with previous training. One option is to have a 'core-training programme which can lead onto other specialised programmes or onto training for promotion. This approach would allow for career paths to be planned and the appropriate training undertaken. Another advantage is that course material would not be duplicated unnecessarily, rather each course would build on the previous course and lead onto the next course.

Implementation and Evaluation.

The implementation and evaluation of a social work training curriculum for a large welfare organisation would be a major undertaking. This final section on the Integrated model of curriculum development will be limited to some brief comments about the issues involved.

A new curriculum may be implemented over a period of time, as an old curriculum is phased out, or it may be instituted in a single comprehensive reform. The Integrated model adopts a pragmatic approach to the implementation of curricula. This approach favours the step-by-step implementation of a curriculum, which ensures that usable aspects of current programmes are not discarded unnecessarily. This has been one of the criticisms of the current practices in the Department of Social Welfare, where most programmes are offered for one year only and training programmes have become 'reactive' to fashions of-the-day. By grounding policy and programmes in empirical study of social work practice, the Integrated model attempts to avoid the excesses of fads and fashions and maintain a relevant social work training curriculum.

A comprehensive and systematic evaluation procedure would further ensure that the implementation of a new curriculum is a smooth process and improves upon the old curriculum. Evaluation would be required at four levels.

First, the overall curriculum development process would need to be monitored to ensure that each step is completed and follows in sequence. This evaluation is centred on the operational aspects of the curriculum, and would involve assessing whether the curriculum meets the objectives it sets out to achieve.

Secondly, the level of achievement of trainees would need to be assessed. This could involve testing trainees performances before and after attending courses to establish

if any changes were evident. Retention of knowledge, improvement in skill performance, understandings of wider social issues, and the workers own personal development may all be assessed as part of the evaluation of the trainee.

Thirdly, the trainers own performance should be evaluated to ensure optimal learning situations are created for the trainees. This evaluation may take the form of a simple assessment of the trainers by course members or a more complex evaluation. (see Lawton et al. 1978: 153-208 for a comprehensive study of curriculum evaluation and assessment methods and theory).

Finally, the training materials should be evaluated to establish if they are effective for the tasks they were developed to accomplish.

Evaluation procedures should be an integral part of the curriculum development process, and not added as an afterthought. The role of the evaluation feedback loops are illustrated in Figure 6.1 and their objective is to ensure the ongoing effectiveness and efficiency of the curriculum. Feedback from the evaluations can serve to: 'fine tune' curriculum materials and teaching methods; provide a basis for retaining or discarding programmes; ensure 'quality control' of the programmes; and provide a basis for the promotion and development of social workers.

Perhaps each five years a Job Analysis could be undertaken, as an extra evaluation procedure, to ensure that training programmes are kept relevant to current social work practices. Regular (annual) reviews by the Curriculum Development Committee would also ensure that training programmes are relevant to the current social issues and the social workers whom the programmes are designed to serve.

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