A study of the status and objections to the passing of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr., Social Work Reinvestment Act (H.R. 1466 & S.997) by the 113th congress

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ABSTRACT

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

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A STUDY OF THE STATUS AND OBJECTIONS TO THE PASSING OF THE
DOROTHY I. HEIGHT AND WHITNEY M. YOUNG, JR., SOCIAL
WORK REINVESTMENT ACT (H.R. 1466 & S. 997)
BY THE 113TH CONGRESS

Committee Chair: Richard Lyle, Ph.D.

Dissertation dated May 2015

This study examines the extent to which a sample of the 113th Congress is engaged in the passing of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr., Social Work Reinvestment Act (H.R.1466 & S. 997). A sample of 308 members out of 541 Members of the 113th Congress was selected in Washington, DC or state offices by email addresses. The respondents for the sample of the 113th Congress consisted of the Congressional Member or their Legislative Director/Legislative Assistant. The areas of the study were demographics on the Member of Congress and an examination of the status and objection to the passing of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act. The data were analyzed with the computerized software package for social science.
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DOROTHY I. HEIGHT AND WHITNEY M. YOUNG, JR., SOCIAL
WORK REINVESTMENT ACT (H.R. 1466 & S. 997)
BY THE 113TH CONGRESS

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF CLARK ATLANTA UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY
JUDITH D. CROCKER BILLINGSLEY

WHITNEY M. YOUNG, JR., SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

ATLANTA, GEORGIA
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Social work is one of many professions that are currently in a state of flux. In addressing the National Conference of Charities and Corrections in the early part of the twentieth century, Flexner (1915) pronounced his much quoted verdict that social work was not a profession. Moreover, he added that its prospects of attaining full-fledged professional status, comparable to that of the more established professions were slim. Since that time and perhaps earlier, social work has been preoccupied with professionalizing itself. Some authors (Epstein & Conrad, 1978; Cohen & Wagner, 1982) continue to doubt that social work has achieved a genuine professional status. Social workers, they maintain, can more accurately be described as agency personnel, bureaucrats, organizational functionaries, or skilled members of the working class than members of a profession. Others (Etzioni, 1969) view social work as a quasi profession or a semiprofession. Glazer (1974) asserts that only medicine and law are major professions; all others, including social work, are minor professionals (NASW, 1987).

Social work is defined as the applied science of helping people achieve an effective level of psychosocial functioning and effecting societal changes to enhance the well being of all people (Barker, 2003). The goal of social work is to help people
become self-sufficient by doing for people what they are unable to do for themselves (Glicken, 2011).

According to the National Association of Social Workers (NASW), “Social Work is the professional activity of helping individuals, groups, or communities enhance or restore their capacity for social functioning and creating societal conditions favorable to this goal” (NASW, 1987). The International Federation of Social Work adopted an official definition of the term at the General Meeting in Montreal, Canada in July 2000: “The social work profession promotes social change, problem solving in human relationships, and the empowerment and liberation of people to enhance well-being” (Barker, 2003).

Social work is the profession originally developed to work with a number of problems. Social work is not the only helping profession. Psychiatry, psychology, and counseling are also helping professions working with people in difficulty. The difference is that social work is concerned about the internal side of a person’s behavior (his or her emotional problems and problem-solving skills) as well as the external side of a person’s life (the quality of family life, the school the child attends, the safety of the neighborhoods, and the amount of money he or she has to live on). In a sense, social work sees people from a total perspective and works to resolve both internal and external problems. If people are hungry, social workers try to eliminate their hunger while at the same time resolving the reasons for their hunger. The goal of social work is to help people become self sufficient by only doing for people what they are unable to do for themselves (Glicken, 2011).
No one starts life wanting to be a substance abuser or to be poor. Most individuals want to be lucky, rich and successful. Part of the reason for individual success and failure has to do with good health and intelligence. The other part of it has to do with the families in which one grows up, the social and economic conditions of one’s life, and the parents, teachers, and friends who influence (Glicken, 2011).

Social workers are aware of the impact that the political arena has on practice and advocate for changes in policy and legislation to improve social conditions in order to meet human needs and promote social justice (Schneider & Lester, 2001). By creating allegiance to the agency rather than to people in need and by downplaying issues of hierarchy and class division, the professional model, according to some of its critics, depoliticizes social work and retards social workers’ ability to engage in political struggles and movements (NASW, 1987). Without the determined and constant involvement of social work advocates representing clients in legislative arenas, responsive and progressive policies may not be formulated and implemented. The NASW Code of Ethics reminds each social worker of the responsibility to advocate for legislation and policies that support social justice (Schneider & Lester, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

One problem with the public’s perception of social work as a profession is the unrestricted use of the title “social worker.” Paraprofessionals, including technicians and social service aides, whose job qualifications may derive from life experiences or from educational backgrounds in fields other than social work are often labeled as social workers along with professionally trained individuals who hold either a baccalaureate or
a graduate degree from an accredited social work educational program (Hardcastle, 1981). This indiscriminate use of the title “social worker” causes public confusion and is the principal impediment to the unequivocal recognition of social work as a profession (NASW, 1987).

Professional social workers provide and advocate for essential human services to individuals across the lifespan and have long been the workforce to guide people to critical resources, counsel them on important life decisions, and help them reach their full potential. Social workers are society’s safety net, and with the current economic challenges, this safety net has grown to include and protect a diverse group of people from all walks of life. Secondly, serious safety concerns, significant educational debt, and comparatively insufficient salaries are threatening the ability of the nation’s social workers to provide these indispensible services (Initiative, 2013).

For more than 100 years, social workers in the United States have entered the profession with a desire to serve people in need, especially the most vulnerable. Social workers have also led efforts to improve access to psychosocial services for people from all walks of life. Every day, social workers touch millions of lives through work in hospitals and clinics, schools and universities, community and government agencies, private practices and corporations, as well as prisons and the military. Thirdly, a job as one of the nation’s 650,000 professionally trained social workers can also mean serious injuries on the job, significant educational debt, and a non-competitive salary. And, fourthly, while the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics projects that an additional 100,000 social workers will be needed by 2018, the country’s 600 accredited schools and
programs of social work often struggle to recruit and graduate enough students to keep pace with the volume and complexity of social needs in communities (Caucus, 2012).

Purpose of the Study

Members of the Senate and House of Representatives proposed a Bill to be enacted by the Senate (S. 997) and House of Representatives (H.R. 1466) of the United States of America in Congress to establish the Social Work Reinvestment Commission. The Commission is to provide independent counsel to Congress and the Secretary of Health and Human Services on policy issues associated with recruitment, retention, research, and reinvestment in the profession of social work, and for other purposes. The sponsors have selected a short title that may be cited as the “Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr., Social Work Reinvestment Act.”

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which a sample of the 113th Congress is engaged in the passing of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr., Social Work Reinvestment Act (H.R. 1466 and S. 997).

The study measured factors such as familiarity with the lives and histories of Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Other factors included voting intent on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission, party affiliation, years of congressional service, and membership in Congressional Social Work Caucus.

The participants in this study were members of the 113th Congress or their assigned Legislative Directors or designed staff officials.
Research Questions

The research questions of the study are as follows:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the 113th Congressional Members and being a member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus?

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the 113th Congress and party affiliation of the members of Congress?

3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and being familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height by the 113th Congressional Members?

4. Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and being familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr., by the 113th Congressional Members?

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses of the study are as follows:

1. There is no statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the 113th Congressional Members and being a member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus.

2. There is no statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the 113th Congress and party affiliation of the members of Congress.
3. There is no statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and being familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height by the 113th Congressional Members.

4. There is no statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and being familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr., by the 113th Congressional Members.

Significance of the Study

The Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr., Social Work Reinvestment Act legislation is designed to create the foundation for a professional workforce to meet the ever-increasing demand for the essential services that social workers provide. Professional social workers have the unique expertise and experience that will enable them to help solve the social and economic challenges that our nation is facing. In an effort to address the long-term concerns facing the profession, the legislation would establish a Social Work Reinvestment Commission, which would analyze the ability of the nation's social workers to serve their clients with competence and care (Caucus, 2012).

Demonstration projects will address the immediate needs of the profession and will be established in the areas of workplace improvements (providing funding in areas such as social work supervision, in comparable salaries and high caseloads), education and training (funding the education of social workers at the BSW, MSW, and doctoral levels), research (supporting postdoctoral social workers in research), and community-based programs of excellence (providing funding to replicate successful social work
agencies and organizations so as to provide clients and communities across the country with leading edge services). Together, these components would create the foundation from which the social work profession could continue to serve as a voice for not only the most vulnerable in this country, but for individuals from all works of life in need of social work services (Caucus, 2012).

This congressional legislation seeks to educate policy makers, the media, and the public about the important work that needs to be done to reinvest in social work, a profession that has always sought to care for others. The Act will highlight the importance of advocating and standing up for the needs of social workers, in order to support and protect society's most vulnerable (Caucus, 2012).

The weakened participation of social workers in movements of social change may have less to do with the professionalization of social work per se than with: (1) the laws that govern the participation of public employees in social action; (2) the pattern and sources of organizational funding; (3) the personnel policies of employing agencies; (4) the general political climate of the country; (5) the ascendancy of particular theoretical models of social work practice; and (6) the growing middle-class mind set of social workers. Such status and the imaginative use of knowledge from carefully selected legislation can become resources for responsible social change. Such status accords social workers' public recognition for expertise that, when properly used, can enhance social workers' ability to influence major societal decisions affecting the design, delivery, and management of social services (NASW, 1987).

Principles of human rights and social justice are fundamental to social work (Barker, 2003). Like most Americans, social workers represent a range of political and
religious beliefs; come from different social, ethnic, and economic backgrounds. Social workers have differences of opinion about how best to help people (Glicken, 2011).

Jansson (1999) implores social workers to recall the legislative advocates who have significantly improved the well being of millions of Americans. The Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act is designed to explore and address challenges that limit the profession’s ability to help millions of people in the future (Caucus, 2012).

Young (1964) stated that one of the most important benefits of legislation is that it adds to the full force of laws to the support of people who want to do the right thing but never felt strong enough to risk either the real or imagined consequences. Legislators often go along with the status quo and do nothing in many cases and such action means denying services. When laws are put on the books, people are given the protection and excuse for taking positive action. In the absence of statutes, the practices of people at the community level tend to cling to the status quo or to be more influenced by the small but highly vocal minority of racists than by the large majority of people who would be indifferent or who would welcome changes. Attitudes change after the law causes behavior to be modified. Young suggested that laws should never be dependent upon attitude studies before enactment (Young, 1964).

This study is significant because it asks the members of the 113th Congress to help define the social work profession by passing the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr., Social Work Reinvestment Act. The study will also add to the social work knowledge that addresses the need to change the misperceptions of the role of social workers through legislation that serve as counsel to Congress and the Secretary of Health
and Human Services on policy issues associated with recruitment, retention, research, and reinvestment in the profession of social work.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this review of the literature is to lay a scholarly foundation in order to establish a need for the study. This chapter is a review of the current literature on social work pioneers and advocates, the Whitney M. Young, Jr., School of Social Work, the H. R. 1466 & S. 997 Social Work Reinvestment Act, the 113th United States Congress, the status of the Social Work Reinvestment Act and the objections to the passing of Social Work Reinvestment Act. Measurement instruments will be reviewed in order to establish an understanding for the data analysis from members of the 113th Congress.

History of Social Work

Social work, social problems, and the organizations were developed in an attempt to cope with problems and have a parallel history. The origins of American social welfare are found in the English Poor Laws. The Poor Laws evolved and changed between 1601 and the New Act of 1834, but unlike the old Poor Laws of 1601, the New Act of 1834 differentiated between the deserving and the undeserving poor by a simple test: “Anyone prepared to accept relief in the repellent workhouse must be lacking the moral determination to survive outside it”. The other principle of the New Act was that of “less
eligibility” or “that conditions in the workhouse should never be better than those of an independent laborer of the lowest class (Glicken, 2011).

During the 1601-1834 eras, a system was devised and rules were developed that provided relief to the poor by local authorities and depended on legal residence in a locale with provisions to help determine whether someone would stay or leave the protection of the Poor Laws administrator. Emphasis was placed on work, apprenticeships and other means to determine that one had become a contributing citizen. If character issues were noted that suggested a person was not deserving of help he or she could be removed from assistance (Glicken, 2011).

After 1834, the Poor Laws went from being a local administrative responsibility to a shared one where communities could band together to provide assistance. Workhouse rather than any assistance in kind (food, shelter, clothing, and small money grants) became the primary way of assisting the poor. After the 1834 Poor Law Amendment Act had been passed, the Poor Law Guardians had to provide accommodation for paupers. Paupers did this by building workhouses. The aim of the workhouse was to discourage people from claiming poor relief, and conditions were to be made as forbidding as possible. Residents of poor houses were segregated by age and gender. Married couples, even the elderly, were to be kept apart so that they could not breed. The old, ill, insane, slightly unbalanced, and fit were kept together. Meals were as dull, predictable and tasteless as poor cooking and no imagination could make them. Often the quality, quantity and lack of nutrition meant that workhouse inmates were on a slow starvation diet. It was not until 1930 that the Poor Laws were finally abolished (Glicken, 2011).
Although the laws changed in England and the inhumane treatment of the poor gave way to the progressive changes in the way the society viewed poverty, many of the cruel ideas about the poor continue on in both England and America today.

Social Work Pioneers

Dorothea Lynda Dix

As a social work pioneer in the history of social work, Dorothea Lynda Dix is known for her campaign for adequate services to the mentally ill after viewing horrible conditions in a hospital for the mentally ill in Cambridge, Massachusetts (Glicken, 2011). The accomplishments of Dorothea Dix were particularly noteworthy. Dix documented problems within states by counting persons with mental disorders in almhouses and describing their brutal treatment. She obtained signatures on petitions that demanded state legislatures build special mental institutions. By the time she had completed her state by state lobbying effort and evidence gathering, which included interviewing more than 10,000 persons with mental disorders in almhouses, 32 institutions had been constructed (Jansson, 1997).

Born to Joseph and Mary Dix in Hampden, Maine, on February 11, 1802, Dix is credited as a crusader for the humane treatment of the mentally ill and preparing the way for this country’s mental health movement. Dix’s childhood was greatly influenced by blessings and challenges. Her mother suffered from depression and was unable to give Dorothea the attention and love all children need. At the age of 12, Dorothea moved to Boston to live with her grandmother who meted severe punishments as a way to instill
There is very little record of Dix’s formal education. Researchers said she taught herself how to read and write while still living with her parents or she attended the Hampden. At 19, Dix opened a school in Orange Court at her grandmother’s home. Dorothea Dix taught, directed the school in Orange Court, and published several literary works until 1836, when she experienced a severe physical and emotional collapse. In 1837, while recovering from her health problems, Dorothea Dix visited England and learned about the York Retreat. The York Retreat was an asylum for those suffering from mental illness, where patients were clinically assessed and treated. The visit sparked Dix’s interest in the movement of mental health, but her crusade for reforming the entire mental health establishment would be triggered by things she saw closer to home (Jansson, 2012).

In March 1841, Dorothea Dix entered the East Cambridge, Massachusetts’ jail where she witnessed such horrible images that her life, from that point on, was changed forever. Within the confines of this jail she observed that prostitutes, drunks, criminals, retarded persons, and the mentally ill were all housed together in unheated, unfurnished, and foul-smelling quarters. When asked why the jail was in these conditions, she was told that the insane do not feel heat or cold (Glicken, 2011).

Inside she spoke to poor women who were incarcerated for no reason other than mental illness. While walking around the jail, she also noticed that the area set aside for these women was cold and lacking even the slightest hint of humanity. She learned that one of the major problems facing the mentally ill in jail was the ignorance of those in
charge. Their reference to the mentally ill as lunatics unaware of their own feelings substantiated Dix’s hypothesis. Angered by the inhumane conditions at the jail, Dorothea Dix committed the rest of her life to crusading for the humanization of treatment for the thousands of mentally ill people in America (Jansson, 2012).

Dix proceeded to visit jails and almshouses where the mentally ill were housed. She made careful and extensive notes as she visited jailers, caretakers, and townspeople. Finally, Dix compiled all these data and shaped a carefully worded document that was delivered to the Massachusetts Legislature. After a heated debate over the topic, the material won legislative support, and funds were set aside for the expansion of Worchester State Hospitals (Glicken, 2011).

Dix conducted surveys of all of the facilities housing the mentally ill and realized that the conditions at other facilities were far worse than at East Cambridge. With Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe, she sent “memorial” to the Massachusetts legislature, documenting the results of her surveys and requesting that the state legislature provide funds for the treatment of the indigent mentally ill. In 1843, her second request was approved by the Massachusetts legislature. Afterwards, she began crusading in neighboring states, including New York, Rhode Island, Connecticut and New Jersey (Jansson, 2012).

By 1848, Dorothea Dix, had taken her crusade for the mentally ill to the nation’s capital. Aided by several congressmen, she produced a bill that would have provided federal land grants to states for erecting mental health facilities. President Franklin Pierce vetoed the bill in 1854, claiming the bill was neither constitutional nor economically feasible. During the Civil War, she served as Superintendent of United States Army
Nurses, where she was responsible for recruiting nurses for the Union Army. Dix exceeded her mandate and began working on ways to improve army hospitals. By 1866, Dix left Washington, DC returning to her advocacy for the mentally ill. In July, 1887, Dorothea Lynda Dix died at Trenton Hospital, which she had fought for and won for the wellness of others (Jansson, 2012).

**Laura Jane Addams (1860-1935)**

In 1889, settlements focused on the causes of poverty and expanding jobs for the poor. They also conducted research, helped develop the juvenile court system, created widows’ pension programs, promoted legislation prohibiting child labor, and introduced public health reforms and the concept of social insurance. Unions begin to grow in America representing the rights of workers for their fair wages and better working conditions (Glicken, 2011). Jane Addams was one of the most respected and well educated and well recognized figures in the nation at the turn of the century. She leveraged her celebrity status to play significant roles in progressive campaigns. Addams was a founding figure in the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the American Civil Liberties Union, and the Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom (Hamington, 2009).

Laura Jane Addams was born on September 6, 1860, in Cedarville, Illinois, to John Huy and Sarah Weber Addams. She grew up in the shadow of the Civil War and during a time when Darwin achieved widespread influence. Her childhood reflected the material advantage she enjoyed as the daughter of a politician and mill owner (Hamington, 2009). John Huy Addams, her father, was a founding member of the
Republican Party and an Illinois state senator from 1854 to 1870. Senator Addams, an abolitionist, became a dominant force in Jane’s life, influencing her ambitions and helping to shape her political views (Jansson, 2012).

Addams is recognized around the world as a pioneer in the field of social work and is remembered as the founder of Chicago’s Hull House project and the recipient of the 1931 Nobel Peace Prize. Despite her physical ailment of tuberculosis of the spine and the challenges presented by those who opposed her efforts to effect positive social policy, Jane Addams earned a place in history as a social reformer committed to peace and the improvement of the human condition. She dropped out of the Women’s Medical College in Philadelphia in 1881. Addams then focused her interests on mission work in general. In September, 1889, Addams accompanied by her friend and confidante, Ellen Gates Starr, left the safety and comfort of her home in Cedarville and moved into the Charles Hull mansion, which later became known as the Hull House in Chicago (Jansson, 2012).

The objective of the Hull House was to introduce middle-class individuals to the life of the urban poor; the majority of people who became involved were young, middle class American women. The Hull House provided community services and served as a real world training center for several well known and respected social workers including Edith and Grace Abbott, Francis Hackett, Jessie Binford and others. Due to the success of its programs and dedicated personnel, the Hull House project under the supervision of Jane Addams, became widely recognized as a leader in the settlement house and social reform movement (Jansson, 2012).

In 1895, Jane Addams had taken her leadership skills and reform-oriented thinking from the successful Hull House project to Chicago’s City Hall. Her new
objective: municipal reforms aimed primarily at improving the working conditions faced by the city’s workers and became a labor rights activist and participated in the Pullman strike of 1894, the building strike of 1900, the anthracite strike of 1902, the Chicago Stockyrd strike of 1904 and the workers strike of 1910. During the Spanish-American War in 1898, Addams’ interest in world peace and the promotion of social justice everywhere broaden. She began delivering public lectures in 1899 and published her first book, *Democracy and Social Ethics in 1902*, which called for the reform of municipal politics and an end to war (Jansson, 2012).

By 1909, Jane Addams had achieved national recognition and was widely respected as a leader in the peace and social reform movement. She became the first woman to head the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Three years later, she campaigned for Theodore Roosevelt’s Progressive Party who, with the coming of World War I, would lose taste for her reform efforts and turn against her. Addams’ involvement with the Women’s Peace Party, her protests while at the International Congress of Women at The Hague in 1915, and her affiliation with Henry Ford’s Peace Ship placed her in the crosshairs of criticism and rebuke from interventionists (Jansson, 2012).

Her critics charged her with being a communist revolutionary and German sympathizer. Her membership in the Daughters of the American Revolution was revoked. Jane Addams did not surrender in the face of adversity. She continued to work at the Hull House for 15 more years after World War I. For her tireless devotion and commitment to advancing the social justice, Jane Addams received the Nobel Peace Prize in 1931, four years before her death in May of 1935 (Jansson, 2012).
Dorothy I. Height

Dorothy Irene Height was born on March 24, 1912, in Richmond, Va. Both of her parents were twice widowed and had five children between them when they married. Two daughters, Dorothy, and the youngest, Anthanette, were born of their union. Dorothy was preceded in death by her half-sisters and brother: Golden, Minnie, Bennie, Jessie and Josephine. When Dorothy was four years of age, her family moved to a small steel mill town in Western Pennsylvania called Rankin as part of the great migration from the South. Her father, James Height, was a self-employed building contractor and was very successful. Like many other African Americans of his generation, he was a Republican and connected in contracts to paint the traffic signs and mark the streets. Height's mother, the former Fannie Burroughs, had been a head nurse at a colored hospital in Richmond, but there was not a hospital or a registry that would take a Negro nurse in Rankin. As a little child, Height overheard her mother talking on the phone to friends about that situation (Height, 2010).

The town of Height's childhood was predominantly composed of people foreign born especially from Europe and Italy. There was a small population and two Jewish families. To serve the immigrants, the American Baptists were especially active in the community. They owned a large lot on which there was a little cabin that housed their office across the street from their residence. After school, Dorothy liked dropping by and talking to the director of what was then the Rankin Christian Center. Before long, a large new building, including a small daycare center. The only person of color in the building was the janitor. In one of her visits with Ms Adams, the director, Dorothy told
her that she thought what the children needed was someone who would teach them Psalms or Bible verses and let them act out the stories (Height, 2010).

Ms. Adams listened, and quickly told her that she could do it. Dorothy later told her biographer that she did not have the nerve to tell a child with her little pigtails 'no' despite the fact that at that point there was no policy for the admission of anyone who was not foreign born. With Ms. Adams' cordial response, Dorothy came home from school the next day and went straight to the center to start the activity with the children.

On one of the days when Dorothy was there, three women visited represented the American Baptists and observed. At age eleven, the observers stood for a long time observing the children in the activities she was conducting (Height, 2010).

At the age of thirteen (13), Height saw and met for the first time a Negro woman, Maude Coleman, who was an elected official. Height’s mother, Fannie, often dragged her to women’s church meetings. It was this environment that Dorothy gradually learned of the many issues confronting her people. When two representatives of Pittsburgh came to the Rankin Christian Center to organize a Girl’s Reserve Club, Height was the first to join. After being selected to be photographed with two white girls, Dorothy and several other girls decided to go to the Chatham Street YWCA in downtown Pittsburgh to learn how to swim. When the girls were told that Negro girls could not swim in the YWCA pool, Dorothy asked to speak to the Executive Director. Although Height was not successful in getting the woman to change the “policy”, Height never forgot the incident and later became the first Director of the YWCA’s center for Racial Justice. Today, the Dorothy I. Height Racial Justice Award is the YWCA’s highest award and through its
mission, the organization is dedicated to “eliminating racism, empowering women, and promoting peace, justice, freedom, and dignity for all” (Height, 2010).

A severe asthmatic as a child, Dr. Height was not expected to live, she later wrote, past the age of sixteen (Fox, 2010). In the steel mill town of Rankin, Height (2010) shared that the environment was terrible. Being asthmatic meant that Height did not have a lot of energy and often had to miss school. Dr. Height was very shy, and whenever she and her friends played school, Height always wanted to be the principal so that she could pretend to sit at a desk and read a book, and not have to bother with anybody. When Height did attend school she usually could not function and would sometimes put her head down on the desk and listen. Height would memorize what was written on the blackboard by the teacher. Noting not fully active in the classroom, Dr. Height never fell behind, and believes that learning how to memorize in that classroom taught skills on how to be a part of a group. The privilege of sitting with fellow students was not automatic or taken for granted so Height contributed by reading a poem or singing in the choir (Height, 2010).

When Dorothy was small, she attended integrated public schools. She began her civil rights work as a teenager, volunteering on voting rights and anti-lynching campaigns (Initiative, 2004). In high school, Dr. Height loved the sciences and wanted to be a psychiatrist. Instead of taking typing, Height took advance science courses. Height entered an oratory contest, sponsored by the Elks in 1929, on the subject of the United States Constitution. An eloquent speaker even in her youth, Height soon advanced to the national finals, and was the only black contestant. She delivered a talk on the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments; the Reconstruction Amendments intended to extend
constitutional protections to former slaves and their descendants. The jury, all white, awarded her first prize: a four-year college scholarship (Fox, 2010).

Dr. Height's brother, William Briggs recommended that she apply to Barnard College in New York because of its strong science programs. After taking the entrance exam, Height called and arranged for an interview. Height arrived at the meeting at Barnard twenty minutes late due to the train delay and apologized to the dean (Height, 2010). Dr. Height had received a scholarship for her oratory skills to attend Barnard College, but was not admitted because they had reached their quota of two African American students for that year before she arrived (Initiative, 2004).

William suggested another school called New York University. Dr. Height arrived at the last hour of registration, and based on grades and acceptance from Barnard, Height was admitted on the spot. In the goal of becoming a doctor, more disappointment was in store to include learning at registration her acceptance into the School of Education. Height decided to take courses in the sciences to be ready. In the meantime, William, the guiding light, died of tuberculosis. On the way home from the funeral, Height realized that she would not be able to go to Heidelberg, where she had been accepted in medicine. Dr. Height tried hard to get into the field and took a summer course at Columbia University's pharmacy school. At Columbia University, Height studied pharmacopoeia and measured grams and counted pills. Upon completion, Height realized that she was not interested in medicine and was more interested in helping people with medicine. As a result, Height decided to try education and social work (Height, 2010).
Height pursued studies at New York University. In her biography, Height recalled a relationship with a young journalism student at NYU. The student was from Samoa, and the two became friends. The student complained of how difficult the work was. When asked by Height if the NYU journalist student would give the assignments to Height, the journalist called the editor, Bill Merchant, and asked if he would take another student who wants to do the work. To work on Marcus Garvey’s staff at The Negro World, one got a sense of power because of influence that was everywhere even though he was not physically present. Height did not remember a day being there when Bill Merchant did not call Garvey’s name. Everyone spoke of him as if Garvey were in the next room. Long before the dawn of the age of advanced communications technology, newspapers were key, and through his own publication, Marcus Garvey found a way to get a message out at least once a week. Garvey wanted the world to know and African Americans in particular, that the first human beings were black and he wanted to awaken in African Americans the fact that Negroes had contributed and could do so again (Height D. I., 2010).

According to Height (2010), At The Negro World on 135th Street, nothing partial was good enough. Excellence was emphasized in everything. While proofreading, Height had to go through every word with a fine toothcomb. Bill Merchant believed that the world thinks the black man is backward. It was the world that is backward and the black man is ahead. As Dr. Height went through each sentence, it was Marcus Garvey was looking over her shoulder. Dr. Height received the Barnard Medal of Distinction in 1980. She did postgraduate work at Columbia University and the New York University School of Social Work (Initiative, 2004).
As Dr. Height was completing her fieldwork internship for her master’s degree at the Brownsmill Community Center, which was developed by the Brooklyn Church and Mission Association, the director, Rev. W.B. M. Scott, told her that her work she was in the area of high density delinquency and poverty in the height of the Great Depression. Rev. Scott wanted to hire Dr. Height, but the center had no money. He later returned and reported that he had a thought and had arranged for Height to appear before the board with the hope that the board might find a way to employ her. During her appearance before the board, Height described the conditions and the needs of people of high unemployment. The chair of the board, Mrs. Orrin R. Judd asked if she had been the little girl who was teaching the Hungarian children bible verses (Height, 2010).

When Dr. Height acknowledged that she was, Mrs. Judd announced that she would pay that little girl’s salary. And she did until Dr. Height was offered a job as a social investigator for the City of New York at twenty seven dollars a week. Height shared this opportunity was one that she could not refuse. This was her last experience in the labor market and from that time forward, Height shared that every job she had, had come to her. Soon after she started going to the center every day, the policy changed. Negroes were given one day a week and not too long afterward, the doors were completely open to everyone. This change became the precursor for what Height did for the rest of her life; working for human rights, equality and justice (Height, 2010).

Height (2010) wrote that the America of her early childhood was a far different place. Human beings had only recently learned how to fly airplanes. Movies were still silent, and so were the airwaves. There was neither radio nor television (which was still four decades away). Women did not have the right to vote, the institutionalized
segregation of Jim Crow was still the law of the land and the dark clouds of World War I were starting to gather. While American society was changing during her lifetime, the fundamental principles of how one could make a difference remained unchanged. Dr. Height credits Adam Clayton Powell, Jr., the charismatic pastor, early civil rights leader and later politician for teaching her early in her activist career while working on his “Don’t Buy Where You Can’t Work Campaign” in Harlem in the late 1930’s (Height, 2010).

In 1933, Dr. Height became a leader of the United Christian Youth Movement of North America in the New Deal era. It was during this period that Height’s career as a civil rights advocate began to unfold, as she worked to prevent lynching, desegregate the armed forces, reform the criminal justice system and for free access to public accommodations (Women, 2014). One of the last living links to the social activism of the New Deal era, Height had a career in civil rights that spanned nearly 80 year to the inauguration of President Obama in 2009. That the American social landscape looks as it does today owes in no small part to her work (Fox, 2010).

Dr. Height was mentored by some of the most accomplished women of the Progressive Era, including Mary McLeod Bethune and Eleanor Roosevelt. And she mentored many of the nation's most recognizable female leaders today, including Former Secretary of Labor Alexis Herman, Secretary of State Hillary Clinton, media mogul Oprah Winfrey, and poet laureate and author Dr. Maya Angelou (Waller, 2010).

After working for a time as a social worker, Dr. Height joined the staff of the Harlem Young Women’s Christian Association (YWCA) in 1937. Height soon
volunteered with the National Council of Negro Women (NCNW) and became close to McLeod (Height, 2014).

At the YWCA, Dr. Height rose rapidly through the ranks from a post with the Harlem YWCA in New York City to several staff positions of increasing responsibility in the organization. Of her years at the YWCA, Dr. Height was proudest of her efforts to direct the attention of the organization to issues of racial justice. In one of the leadership positions, Dr. Height traveled to the University of Delhi in India where she served as a visiting professor at the Delhi School of Social Work, founded by the YWCA’s of India, Burma and Ceylon. In an initiative to expand the work of the YWCA, Dr. Height conducted a study of women’s organizations in five African countries: Liberia, Ghana, Guinea, Sierra Leone and Nigeria. Height was proud of her work at the YWCA especially of her successful effort to have the organization adopt “the elimination of racism” as one of its goals (Height, 2010). During the YWCA’s 1946 convention, Dr. Height coordinated the introduction of a policy to integrate its facilities nationwide and was elected national interracial education secretary of the organization. In 1946, as a member of the Y’s national leadership, Dr. Height oversaw the desegregation of its facilities nationwide (Fox, 2010).

Height had a life-changing encounter not long after starting work when she met Mary McLeod Bethune, founder and president of the NCNW on November 7, 1937. Dr. Height met this educator when Bethune and U.S. first lady Eleanor Roosevelt came to visit her facility on this date. Dr. Height referred to this date the as the turning point of her life. Height escorted Mrs. Roosevelt into the meeting Bethune was holding (Height, 2014). Dr. Height began her lifelong affiliation with NCNW working closely with Mrs.
Bethune at first as the fourth elected president of the organization from 1957 to February 2, 1998; and as Chairperson of its Board of Directors and President Emerita since 1997 (Foundation, 2004). Height recalled that once Eleanor Roosevelt told an organization called Committee of Correspondence what happened when she went to the Philippines at a time when the country had a public health crisis with tuberculosis (Height, 2014).

This was a group of fifteen women from diverse backgrounds including women judges, public servants, and people in communications, policymakers, teachers and others. The Committee of Correspondence used the concept of sharing ideas dedicated to how one carried the message from one group to the other. Through correspondence one could build strength could get help. While in the Philippines, Mrs. Roosevelt shared with the group how she had once looked down and realized that the people were sweeping their floors had brushes with very short handles. Bending over it was clear that the people were unnecessarily inhaling a lot of dust and stressing their health. It would have been easier to have had the attitude that because these people were poor, this was the way they were supposed to dust the floors. Instead, Roosevelt observed what the people were doing and how it was affecting them. Roosevelt then had to find a way to suggest that the dusters might want to look at using longer handles (Height, 2010).

Observation was a skill Mrs. Roosevelt had developed and shared that lesson with others. Eleanor Roosevelt taught Height how to go into situations and observe and see what is happening. Listen to the people and relate but also realize that you are not hearing from all the people. What Mrs. Roosevelt taught and what Height believed was that when one observes, one gets a broader view of what is happening around. It is not just the act of looking with your eyes, but also thinking about what you are seeing.
Height highlighted Charlotte Toll, social worker’s thought that “if we would only let them, people will teach us how to teach them” (Height, 2010).

According to Height (2010), the idea to find personal satisfaction in serving others did not crystallize until Height joined the sorority Delta Sigma Theta in college. It was a time of vigorous youth movement. Giddings (1988) wrote that in June of 1940, Elise Austin, new president of the sorority called an Executive Committee in Washington, DC to discuss plans to further the National Library Project, an executive secretary and a national headquarters. Another idea for a national project was brought to the meeting by a Soror who as then executive secretary of the YWCA in Washington. Her name was Dorothy I. Height and her position had made her keenly aware of the issue of job opportunities for Black women. Height proposed that Delta undertake a job analysis program as a national project. The Executive Committee approved the idea and appointed Height as chair of the project, and plans were made to set up experimental centers in each of Delta’s six regions (Giddings, 1988).

The president of the sorority asked Height to open job opportunities for Negro women. Height had been recommended because of her work on things of shared interest. Height shared that she had taken seriously the ideals of the sorority. Height paused for a moment and realized what the president of the sorority was teaching. Height learned that joy in service and personal joy were not mutually exclusive (Height, 2010). The plan was an ambitious one that included investigations of new opportunities that were opened to women in general but still closed to Black women. The plan also included the securing of greater numbers of positions for Black women in those occupations that were available to them; and their greater representation on those boards and Social Work Reinvestment
Commissions that controlled labor policy. Finally, the study was to seek ways in which working conditions for Black women unskilled occupations, such as domestic work, could be improved. A progress report was expected by the 1941 national convention that was to take place in Detroit. As Dr. Height understood, job opportunities for women and especially Black women, was an issue whose time had come. By 1940, there were significant changes in women’s employment. By that year six out of seven married women worked. For Blacks, one in three over the age of fourteen was in the labor force (Giddings, 1988).

At the Detroit convention, Eleanor McLeod Bethune, the educator, member of Franklin D. Roosevelt’s Cabinet and founder of the NCNW was the speaker at Delta convention. Bethune spoke about Black women using their talents and abilities to serve the national interest, so they would never place themselves in a position where patriotism could be doubted. For Black women that meant they were duty-bound to become a part of every endeavor in which American women engage as Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service (WAVEs), Wives and Girlfriends (WAGs), and the Women in the Air Force (WAFs), all representing various branches of the armed forces. However the opportunity to serve in the military was not granted easily and required agitation on the part of interested groups (Giddings, 1988).

In a 1943 meeting between Lieutenant Commander McAfee of the WAVEs, Black women leaders including representatives from the NCNW and Dorothy I. Height of the YWCA, a proposed program for admitting Negro women to the WAVEs was discussed. The group was later advised that the Navy had under consideration a plan whereby a segregated unit of Negro WAVEs was to be formed and trained at one of the
Southern Negro Colleges. From Height's election as president of the sorority in 1947 to the end of her final term in 1956, the organization underwent significant and fundamental change (Giddings, 1988).

Dr. Height remains the longest serving president of Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, Inc., an international public service organization (Fox, 2010). Height carried the Sorority to a new level of organizational development, initiation eligibility and social action. Her leadership training skills, social work background and knowledge of volunteerism benefitted the sorority as it moved into a new era of activism on the national and international scene. Height remained active in Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, Inc., throughout the rest of her life and pinned mentee and friend, Alexis Herman in 1978 (Height, 2010).

Dr. Height was in the forefront of the quest and advocacy for women's rights to full and equal employment, pay and education in the United States and countries throughout the world. Dr. Height's commitment to international work in her field began in earnest in 1952 when she served as visiting professor at the University of Delhi, India (Foundation, 2004).

Originally trained as a social worker, Dr. Height was president of the National Council of Negro Women (NCNW) from 1957 to 1997, overseeing a range of programs on issues like voting rights, poverty and in later years AIDS. As the council’s president during the most urgent years of the civil rights movement, Ms. Height instituted a variety of social programs in the Deep South, including the pig bank, in which poor black families were given a pig, a prize commodity (Fox, 2010). The pig bank was one of the
most important self empowerment economic programs the NCNW has ever developed (Height, 2010).

Height recalled in the 1960’s, an African American woman named Barnes ran for public office in Washington County, Mississippi, an area with a population that was over seventy percent (70%) black. Many of the people were unemployed sharecroppers. At election time, a representative of Barnes’ white opponent offered twenty dollar bills for a vote. When Barnes lost the election, there was great concern. Fanner Lou Hamer explained that food was often used as a weapon when so many people in Mississippi were hungry. Hamer, known for her efforts with the rural poor added that if people had a garden or a pig in the backyard, they knew they would eat. The establishment of a pig bank emerged by training families on the meaning and the development of the big bank (Height, 2010).

Each family would return two piglets from each litter to keep the bank active so others could join and get started. Families had to adhere to the requirements that they could not sell their pigs but use them to combat hunger. Women and families learned how to work together cooperatively by nurturing and caring for the pigs. The agricultural worker assigned to work with this community took the learning from this experience to Swaziland, Africa to prevent the need for them to go the apartheid state of South Africa for pigs (Height, 2010). In the mid-60s, she helped institute “Wednesdays in Mississippi,” a program that flew interracial teams of Northern women to the state to meet with black and white women there (Fox, 2010).

As NCNW president, Dr. Height helped organize and coordinate the 1963 March on Washington. With Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., Roy Wilkins, Whitney Young, A.
Phillip Randolph, and others, she participated in virtually all major civil and human rights efforts in the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s (Foundation, 2004).

In 1965, she founded the Y’s Center for Racial Justice, and was named the first director which she led until 1977 (Fox, 2010). In 1970, the YWCA National Convention adopted the One Imperative to thrust our collective power towards the elimination of racism, wherever it exists by any means necessary (Foundation, 2004). With Gloria Steinem, Shirley Chisholm, Betty Friedan, and others, Height helped found the National Women’s Political Caucus in 1971. Over the decades, she advised a string of American presidents on civil rights. Dr. Height was the council’s president Emerita at her death (Fox, 2010).

Height continued her international work with her involvement in the Women's Federation of the World Council of Churches, and began her work in South Africa after accompanying Margaret Hickey, former chair of the Advisory Committee on Voluntary Foreign Aid there in 1974. Dr. Height returned to work with the Black Women's Federation of South Africa in 1977 and several times thereafter. For her tireless efforts on behalf of the less fortunate, President Ronald Reagan presented her with the Citizens' Medal Award for distinguished service in 1989. Dr. Height received many other awards during her lifetime of service, including over twenty-four honorary degrees (Foundation, 2004).

In a ceremony honoring her lifetime of achievements, held in the United States Capitol Rotunda in Washington, D.C. on March 24, 2004, Dr. Height was awarded the Congressional Gold Medal by President George W. Bush. She joined the August company of some 300 other Gold Medal recipients, among these, George Washington,
the first recipient of the Medal in 1776, Mother Teresa, Pope John Paul II, and Rosa Parks. On September 7, 2004, Dr. Height was inducted into the Democracy Hall of Fame International on the Capitol Hill Campus of the National Graduate University in Washington, D.C. The Hall of Fame for Democracy the first of its kind in the world was created by former members of Congress and others on the governing board of the National Graduate University as part of the University’s mission to strengthen the democratic freedoms that make possible the science, economic enterprise, rule of law, and encourage improvement in every sphere of life. She received the National Association of Social Workers Lifetime Achievement Award in 2009 (Foundation, 2004).

In her selfless determination and extraordinary leadership in advancing women’s rights, and her dedication to the liberation of Black America, Dr. Height fulfilled the dreams of her friend and mentor, Mary McLeod Bethune (Foundation, 2004). She exemplified democracy at its very best and is a true role model for everyone. In Living With Purpose, Height (2010) brings a century of her experiences and insights to address one of the most pressing questions we must all face.

If Dr. Height was less well known than her contemporaries in either the civil rights or women’s movement, it was perhaps because she was doubly marginalized, pushed offstage by women’s groups because of her race and by black groups because of her sex. Throughout her career, she responded quietly but firmly, working with a characteristic mix of limitless energy and steely gentility to ally the two movements in the fight for social justice (Fox, 2010). Although not on the frontline of civil rights protest, Dorothy I. Height headed an important federation of black women’s groups, the
National Council of Negro Women. She lent valuable support to efforts to achieve racial equality. Height injected an organized female presence in a movement largely dependent on women’s support, but one in which men held the most visible and influential positions (Dickerson, 1998).

If despite her laurels Ms. Height remained in the shadow of her male contemporaries, she rarely objected. After all, as she often said in interviews, the task at hand was far less about personal limelight than it was about collective struggle (Fox, 2010). The vast scope of Dr. Height’s many accomplishments has earned her repeated national recognition. In 1989, President Ronald Reagan presented her with the Citizens’ Medal Award and in 1997 President Bill Clinton awarded her the Presidential Medal of Freedom. In 2004, President George W. Bush awarded her with the Congressional Gold Medal and she was inducted into the Democracy Hall of Fame. Most recently, Dr. Height served as an advisor to President Barack Obama and First Lady Michelle Obama (Waller, 2010). For nearly half a century, Dorothy Irene Height gave leadership to the struggle for equality and human rights for all people. Her life exemplified her passionate commitment for a just society and her vision of a better world (Women, 2014).

A pioneer of the Civil Rights Movement, Dr. Height was world renowned for her dedication to social justice through her roles as an administrator, educator and social work. Dr. Height has received 36 Honorary Doctorate Degrees from prestigious universities (Initiative, 2004). A longtime executive of the YWCA, Dr. Height presided over the integration of its facilities nationwide in the 1940s (Initiative, 2004). Starting her career as a case worker with the New York City Welfare Department, she learned the value of social justice for clients and for the community. Dr. Height held many positions
in government and social service organizations, but she was best known for her leadership roles in the Young Women's Christian Association, Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, Inc., and the National Council of Negro Women.

Her tireless efforts on behalf of others exemplified the social work commitment to social justice and advocacy. In 2009, the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act was introduced into the 111th Congress by U.S. Senator Barbara Mikulski (MD) and U.S. Representative Edolphus Towns (NY). When the Social Work Reinvestment Act was introduced in Congress, Dr. Height shared that social work and social workers are taken for granted. Height suggested that social workers know firsthand what the issues are and are prepared, but need support to keep contributing. Height reported that society needs more people with skills and commitment to help deal with the nation's problems and to help move forward. The proposed Social Work Social Work Reinvestment Commission should provide a way for social workers to move forward (Waller, 2010).

Dr. Dorothy Irene Height, a leader of the African-American and women's rights movements who was considered both the grande dame of the civil rights era and its unsung heroine, died on Tuesday in Washington. She was 98 (Fox, 2010). On April 20, 2010, the nation lost one of the foremost leaders of the Civil Rights Movement and the social work profession (Waller, 2010). The death, at Howard University Hospital, was announced jointly by the hospital and the National Council of Negro Women, which Ms. Height had led for four decades (Fox, 2010). Former first lady Hillary Clinton was among the many who mourned the passing of the famed champion for equality and justice. Clinton told the Washington Post that Height "understood that women's rights
and civil rights are indivisible. She stood up for the rights of women every chance she had" (Height, 2014). Her final tribute at the Washington National Cathedral included a eulogy by President Barack Obama (Foundation, 2004).

Whitney M. Young, Jr.

Whitney Moore Young, Jr., was born on July 31, 1921, in Lincoln Ridge, Kentucky with his two sister, Arnita and Eleanor, born in 1920 and 1922. Their mother, Laura, was born in Lebanon, Kentucky, in August 1896 and their father Whitney M. Young, Sr., was born in Midway, Kentucky in November 1895 (Dickerson, 1998). Young grew up in the sheltered world measured by the 444-acre campus of Lincoln Institute, a boarding high school for blacks in rural Shelby County, Kentucky, where his father was a member of the faculty. It made no difference that Whitney’s father was an educator who held a position of respect in the community. Racism and discrimination in Kentucky may have been less virulent than in the states of the Deep South, but the more civilized tenor of race relations did not change the fact that blacks and whites lived, for the most part in separate worlds (Weiss, 1989).

As an important black Kentucky educator and leader, the career of Whitney M. Young Sr., held profound significance for his son. The relationship between father and son was especially close. Whitney M. Young Jr., a major black spokesman who mingled with powerful whites in business, government, and philanthropy, bore the imprint of his parents and other black leaders in the years preceding the civil rights movement. He was sure of his talents and goals and was unafraid to challenge major white institutions with
both caution and militancy to open opportunities to aspiring black Americans (Dickerson, 1998).

Whitney enrolled in September 1937 at Kentucky State Industrial College in Frankfurt, one of two four-year colleges open to blacks in Kentucky. His sister Arnita began as a freshman at the same time, and Eleanor followed two years later. Whitney's interest in medicine led him to follow the prescribed course of study leading to a Bachelor of Science degree with a major in natural science. Living in a sheltered environment also meant living at a distance from the racial and social concerns of the world outside the campus. On campus, students were insulated from firsthand contact with racism and discrimination. The proximities to the state capital created special complications, since the college depended on the state legislature for funding (Weiss, 1989).

Young joined Alpha Phi Alpha fraternity in the fall of his junior year and took an interest in Margaret Buckner. On Tuesday, June 10, 1941, Whitney Young graduated from Kentucky State College. On Sunday afternoon, he had listened as Benjamin E. Mays, president of Morehouse College, delivered the baccalaureate address in Hume Hall. On commencement morning, the most prominent black woman of the day, Mary McLeod Bethune, founder and president of Bethune-Cookman College, president of the National Council of Negro Women, adviser on Negro affairs in the National Youth Administration, and unofficial convener of the Black Cabinet during the New Deal, delivered the commencement address (Weiss, 1989).

Young wanted to become a physician but white medical schools did not admit blacks and Howard in Washington, DC and McHerry in Nashville, Tennessee, the
nation's only black medical schools, turned him down. He enlisted in the army reserve on July 22, 1942 and married Margaret in 1944. Whitney Young became a part of a segregated army and advanced from a private to first sergeant because he held a college degree. Young addressed racial issues among black soldiers and World War II was a watershed of encountered segregation in his life and served honorably until January 12, 1949 when he joined his bride in Minnesota. His attraction to social work grew and appeared to offer the best opportunities to do what he had accomplished during the war in getting better treatment for black soldiers in a Jim Crow army. As a social worker, he could address the societal ills that afflicted blacks in post World War II America. On March 29, 1946, Young made the decision to enroll at the University of Minnesota School of Social Work and was admitted by Dean Monica Doyle because of a recommendation from his army superior (Dickerson, 1998).

Young enrolled in standard social work courses, but concentrated on the group work curriculum. An annoyed psychiatrist who taught Young psychopathology, complained that he was bored and unenthusiastic, but had impressed the faculty with his sincerity, integrity, sound reasoning and grasp of social work principles. He was not interested in casework, but in race relations as pursued by the National Urban League. Young could have chosen among various welfare agencies including religious and secular hospitals, the state psychiatric institute, veterans' facilities, and family and children's services. His interest in race relations and social change drew him to the Minneapolis Urban League to enhance his social work training. Young's thesis proposal to write the history of the St. Paul Urban League for his thesis was approved (Dickerson, 1998).
The thesis discussed the League's, which was an interracial social work agency, philosophy of social work as applied to race relations. In August 1947 Young's thesis earned him the M.A in social work from the University of Minnesota and solidified an unexpected vacancy at the League in St. Paul. Whitney Young became aware of the challenge that lay ahead of him at and aimed his efforts at major breakthroughs in employment, and he challenged numerous Jim Crow practices. He secured assistance from board members and influential whites, developed relationships with persons and agencies in state governments while becoming committed to racial integration. In 1950, Young became the executive director of the Omaha Urban League where influential white Nebraskans opposed coercive measures to end employment, housing and social services discrimination (Dickerson, 1998).

In dealing with whites, Young profited from his ability to make people see his point of view. He helped modernize the images that whites held of blacks, including the whites on the board of the Urban League. The years in Omaha gave Whitney Young the chance to test his skills, develop his gifts as a communicator between the races, and establish some of the patterns he would return to throughout his professional life. Shortly, that identity would lead him away to a new set of challenges in the Deep South (Weiss, 1989).

In the late summer of 1953, Rufus E. Clement, president of Atlanta University, came to Omaha to talk to Young about becoming dean of the Atlanta University School of Social Work. As soon as Clement left, Young sought out his friend Art McGraw and told him about Clement's offer. The job was certainly attractive, but it paid less money than Young was making in Omaha (Weiss, 1989). Young did not choose to become a
fulltime social work educator because the ivory tower suddenly held greater attractions than the untidy world of social work practice. Young had reached a vocational dead end in a constrained League structure with limited opportunities for ambitious and restless local executives eager for promotions (Dickerson, 1998).

While Atlanta University represented an alternative, it was not necessarily the most desirable. As Young grew accustomed to his new environment, however, he became increasingly aware of a burgeoning civil rights movement throughout the South. As dean of the region's only accredited school of social work primarily for blacks, Young envisaged a pivotal role for graduates in effecting social change, and he developed an academic program to achieve that result. Moreover, as a social worker with activist credentials, Young developed into a strategist and consultant to those in the forefront of the emergent civil rights movement (Dickerson, 1998).

Young entered social work during the Truman administration, a period that one scholar has called the coming of age of civil rights as a national issue. Young knew that black grassroots activism in politics and protest had moved these difficult presidents to act. In 1953, 1955, and 1956 in Baton Rouge, Montgomery, and Tallahassee, respectively boycotts taught blacks that their economic power gave them sufficient leverage to end Jim Crow practices. Successful challenges against white institutions and practices helped to transform disparate and random efforts into a civil rights movement. In this general setting of consciousness and actions on civil rights issues, Whitney M. Young, Jr., led the School of Social Work of Atlanta University (Dickerson, 1998).

Social work faculty and graduates expressed puzzlement over his selection. Some professors noted that Young would be the only one of his five deans without a doctorate
and others scorned his lack of published scholarship. Young observed that most alumni and alumnae did not know of his teaching stints in social work at the University of Nebraska and that he supervised social work students from the University of Minnesota and Atlanta University. Young also possessed top recommendations from the key persons in the Council on Social Work Education including his former dean at the University of Minnesota. Fortunately for Young, most of Atlanta’s social work faculty already knew him. He had been a field supervisor for their students and a participant in their school’s annual institute for off campus instructors. They found their new dean more than a full generation of an entirely different management style: shared government (Dickerson, 1998).

Young inquired about faculty salaries at comparable schools of social work in the South. Young wrote to fellow deans at Tulane and Washington Universities. He increased salaries, professional travel allowance and hired new faculty and field supervisors to enhance the curriculum. His predecessor left him $22,000 from a Rosenwald Fund grant. Young used it to support psychiatric social work courses and to send a faculty member to the Menninger Clinic for further study. As Young increased the number of field supervisors to mentor his students and the range of agencies where they did their practicum, he wanted to deepen connections to the Atlanta campus. While mindful that the School of Social work played a special role in educating blacks, Young wanted it to conform to all the norms and regulations of the profession (Dickerson, 1998).

While mindful that the School of Social Work played a special role in educating blacks, Young wanted it to conform to all the norms and regulations of the profession.
Just as Young arrived at Atlanta University, the Council on Social Work Education issued a new manual on curriculum that would become the basis for future accreditation. Winning recognition and congratulations from social work educators for his work at Atlanta University had become an important goal for Young. The best barometer of Young's achievements as a university dean was the stabilization of enrollments in the School of Social Work (Dickerson, 1998).

The admission of white students was another strategy that Young used to stabilize enrollments. Even before he came to Atlanta, he and Clement discussed the potential impact of desegregation on Atlanta University and the social work program. They concluded that the opening of other social work schools in the South for black students would not threaten enrollments at the Atlanta School and added that the school could become the most attractive center for social work education in the region. Since 1950, his predecessor had presented the applications of white students to the university as "test cases". The trustees, however, demurred because they feared Georgia would withdraw their tax-exempt status if whites were admitted. The Brown decision removed that threat, and in 1956, Young admitted the first white full-time students (Dickerson, 1998).

Young's achievements at the School of Social Work resulted in numerous committee appointments. Young became a consultant to several public and private agencies, thus enhancing his influence and posture as a national expert on a wide range of social welfare issues. The Southern Regional Council (SRC), an influential interracial commission for gradual racial change, chose Young in 1955 as a paid consultant to its program on Mental Health Training and Research. Young was also a consultant with the Georgia Committee on Interracial Cooperation, which was affiliated with the SRC. Also
in 1955, Young accepted three year appointment as a consultant to the Federal Bureau of Public Assistance and Children’s Bureau Committee on Training (Dickerson, 1998).

Since coming to Atlanta University, Young was probably sensitive about his lack of a Ph.D. Nevertheless he, with a terminal M.A., had become a respected social work educator. Young was willing to leave Atlanta University to pursue employment with the United Nations by 1957. Various factors combined to keep Young in Georgia. He had arrived in Georgia a few months before the landmark Brown decision of 1954 and he remained in the South during a surge of Black activism within the region. The Montgomery boycott in 1955 and 1955 impressed Young and led him to speak with Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (Dickerson, 1998). For all Young’s personal satisfaction in the leadership of the School of Social Work and in his involvement in the civil rights movement, the years in Atlanta carried real costs to his family. Along with the frustrations of living in a segregated society, there were fears about physical safety (Weiss, 1989).

Young was in the public eye, taking controversial stands on racial issues that angered some whites through threatening letters and phone calls. In the midst of heated debate over the desegregation of the public schools, one of the Atlanta newspapers published an editorial saying that the NAACP was trying to move things too quickly. In 1958, Young began telling friends that the family’s time in Atlanta would soon be drawing to a close. He began to make applications for fellowships that might take him from Atlanta (Weiss, 1989).

Whitney Young was willing to leave Atlanta. His wife Margaret, who taught at Spelman College, detested Jim Crowed Atlanta and refused to adjust her attitudes and
behaviors as evidenced by exposing their daughters to only a few cultural amenities in a racially segregated city. Young noted the personal factors which had made it difficult for him to live in the South with his children. He continued as a scholar on desegregation and evolved into a skilled strategist and activist during Black militancy in Atlanta. These involvements cemented his commitment to remain at Atlanta University for a few more years. Young's efforts as a social work educator indicated how much he stressed the role of his profession in spearheading social change. He pushed his faculty and students to develop strategies to change conditions for blacks rather than push adjustments to unfair circumstances. Young further exhorted them to affect equality in services rendered to blacks, to analyze American society to understand how the unequal status of blacks evolved, and to integrate these perspectives into whatever phase of social work they either taught or practiced. These views were disseminated through speeches, especially to fellow professionals. Young declared to the National Social Welfare Assembly that social action, social reform, conscious efforts to promote better intergroup relations are not incidental activity for social work but that it was social work (Dickerson, 1998).

Young cited situations at national conventions when social workers ignored issues of concerns to Blacks. He was disturbed when the Democrats and the Republicans received input from the National Association of Social Workers for their 1960 platforms; the organization excluded civil rights as a major concern. Young held that social workers should be the primary troubleshooters for changes in the condition of blacks. He further challenged his social work colleagues to reflect the basic concepts in social work in services and administration and declared, "The agency that discriminates on racial basis in its admissions policies is no longer a legitimate social work agency, nor is its staff
legitimate social workers.” Young advanced the notion that social workers should effect social change, especially when the issues are related to race (Dickerson, 1998).

Young suffered burnout from his exacting positions as dean, social work educator, desegregation expert, and civil rights activist. While proud of these accomplishments, he seemed ready to leave the South. At the same time, Young never regretted coming to Atlanta during a period of great change (Dickerson, 1998). He could not have known that the most important speech he would give at the National Urban League’s annual conference in Washington in September 1959 would set in motion a train of events that would determine his course for the rest of his life (Weiss, 1989).

That December, Young made a formal application to the General Education Board for a grant to support a year’s sabbatical and was approved for a 12 month fellowship at Harvard that would begin in September 1960 and end September 1961. In early August, the Youngs left Atlanta, travelled north and later enrolled their girls in private school in Cambridge to try to compensate for some of the limitations in the education they had received in the South. With an interest in social policy, he enrolled at Harvard as a special auditor, with a home base in the Department of Social Relations. Young stayed in close touch with the acting dean at the Atlanta University School of Social Work, Frankie V. Adams. Young’s thoughts were on the future which did not include returning to the deanship in Atlanta (Weiss, 1989).

The National Urban League was one of the most important organizations for black advancement in the United States (Weiss, 1989). Founded in 1910 in New York City by middle-class blacks and wealthy and philanthropic whites, the National League of Urban Conditions among Negroes aimed to assist southern blacks new to northern
cities to find gainful employment and decent housing. The League resulted from a merger of three interracial New York City organizations: the Committee for Improving the Industrial Conditions of Negroes in New York, the National League for the Protection of Colored Women, and the Committee on Urban Conditions. After the merger, a national office stabilized with the appointment of Eugene Kinckle Jones as a full-time field secretary in 1911 and executive director from 1917 to 1941. The League authorized the founding of affiliates in several cities. In 1918, there were twenty-seven affiliates, although some of them had failed by 1935. By this date permanently established Leagues existed in Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Chicago, Newark, Cleveland, Detroit and St. Louis (Dickerson, 1998).

Funded nationally by the Rockefeller and Rosenwald philanthropies and locally by community chests, the League generally eschewed militant agitation for black political and constitutional rights, but it tended to stress to potential whites the need for broadened economic opportunities for urban blacks. The University Of Minnesota School of Social Work listed the two affiliates in Minnesota in 1935 among two dozen social agencies whose supervisors provided fieldwork instruction to social work students. Young’s interests in race relations and social change drew Young to the Minneapolis Urban League to enhance his social work training (Dickerson, 1998).

The Urban League was the best equipped to confront those obstacles. It was a social work agency, Young said, not a civil rights organization; as such, its programs properly focused on research and communication. The Urban League needed to have the facts about the situation of blacks in any given community, and it needed to communicate
those facts to the people and institutions with the power to do something about them by acquainting policy-making bodies with the needs of the constituents (Weiss, 1989).

As the main speaker at the 1959 annual conference of the National Urban League in Washington, D.C., Young spoke on “The Role of the Urban League in the Current American Scene.” In this speech, Young noted that the group had an important place in the black struggle through the judicial and legislative systems (Dickerson, 1998). That role was fundamentally the same as it had always been: improve the social and economic conditions of blacks through interracial teamwork. There was a national movement for racial advancement that focused on changing the law. Despite other civil rights groups, the National Urban League was equipped to help blacks in their social and economic aspirations. Young wanted the League to not be viewed as a civil rights or civil liberties organization, nor a political, legal, or social mass movement, and neither would its staff be race leaders through their race or religious identity. Rather, the League would be a professional social work agency with formally trained staff that would carry out a program focused on research and communication (Dickerson, 1998).

On January 29th, Young’s appointment as the executive director of the National Urban League was announced in New York (Weiss, 1989). Young had to deal with his predecessor and board members held over from the previous administration and encountered mixed results in dealing with Lester Granger’s board (Dickerson, 1998). His first tasks were to restructure the national staff and the relationships between the national and the affiliates and to look for money to keep the League afloat. Young was a racial ambassador to powerful whites for the black population and chartered new directions by making the National Urban League a voice in the formation of public policy with
activism on behalf of human rights as he made it a civil rights organization (Weiss, 1989).

Young’s easy access to the White House where he advised three successive presidential administrations had little to do with his political skills. His leadership of the National Urban League suited to address racial and urban issues enhanced his influence with Presidents Kennedy, Johnson and Nixon. In December 1960, the League sent Kennedy a document entitled “The Time Is Now.” This document dealt with urgent race relations problems. They wanted Kennedy to note crucial issues in “employment, housing, education and public welfare which are the areas in which the Urban League movement has accumulated fifty years of seasoned experience” (Dickerson, 1998).

Young used this opportunity to educate Kennedy about the League and to outline plans to retool the National Urban League with federal programs and to support voting rights legislation. Early contact with the Kennedy administration identified Young as a crucial consultant on race relations. While Dr. King, John Lewis, James Farmer and others were busy with activism through marches, freedom rides and sit in, Young engaged in methodical work of advising federal agencies about racial issues. As a result, Young became involved with the Kennedy administration (Dickerson, 1998).

In 1962, President Kennedy invited Young to serve on the Committee on Equality of Opportunity in the Armed Forces. Young served as a referee for racial complaints against the military. In a nationally televised address, President Kennedy deplored the moral injustice of racial discrimination and then sent a civil rights bill to Congress (Dickerson, 1998).
The March on Washington in August 1963 was the Urban League’s new involvement in civil rights which became a matter of public record. This was critically important both for the success of the march and for the public image of the organization. The march on Washington was a watershed for the National Urban League. Young reflected that it was no longer possible for people to think of civil rights agencies without considering the Urban League (Weiss, 1989).

In 1964, Young backed President Johnson’s on the need to enact the civil rights bill and on July 2, 1964, President Johnson signed it into law. On August 5, 1965, President Johnson signed in a televised ceremony the landmark Voting Rights Act. According to Dickerson (1998), he thought that Young’s civil rights contributions were important enough to include him on the guest list with other movement activists. Solicitor General Thurgood Marshall noted the need for a more intensive voter registration drive in the South.

President Johnson’s Great Society and its massive War on Poverty drew upon ideas and proposals that Young developed as executive director of the National Urban League. In his book, To Be Equal, Young (1964) called for an unprecedented domestic Marshall Plan to address a broad range of social and economic inequities that maintained black inequality with whites. In his ten point program to improve schools, provide job opportunities, destroy the racial ghetto, rehabilitate urban Negro families, and other efforts, Young argued that the program should be seen as an investment and it would pay off in just as the Marshall Plan paid off in Western Europe.

Young maintained political neutrality that freed him to cooperate with both Democrats and Republicans. Black clergy in the West also admired Young’s leadership.
Black businesses and professional associations ratified Young as a major spokesman. Although Martin Luther King, Jr. seldom needed Young’s advice and assistance, his successor, Ralph D. Abernathy depended on the League to rescue the South Christian Leadership Conference. Interracialism of Whitney M. Young, Jr. never precluded broad concerns for Africa (Weiss, 1989).

The African Institute, based at the United Nations, in New York City was another group that drew Young’s involvement that created dialogue between American government and corporate leaders and counterparts in Africa which called on Young to speak. The Institute drew from the United States several politicians and corporate executives. The Institute meetings ended on March 11, 1971. Young and a few others decided to skip the final reception to go to the beach to swim. Notwithstanding his swimming skills, Young was caught in heavy surf. A Nigerian pathologist performed an autopsy and concluded that Young died of a subarachnoid hemorrhage. The second autopsy in New York City produced no evidenced of brain damage, and he was pronounced dead a victim of drowning (Dickerson, 1998).

A black man who grew up in a middle class family in the segregated south, Young spent most of his life in the white world, transcending barriers of race, wealth, and social standing to advance the welfare of black Americans. His goals were to gain access for blacks to good jobs, education, housing, health care and social services; his tactics were reason, persuasion, and negotiation. He understood keenly the value to the movement of creative tension between moderates and militants, and he took good advantage of that understanding to promote his aims (Weiss, 1989). Whitney M. Young, Jr. believed that racial equality was an attainable goal when powerful and influential
whites joined with civil rights leaders to tear down social and economic barriers to black advancement. Under the leadership of Executive Director, Marc Morial, Young’s goal at the National Urban League remains today (Morial, 2014).

Whitney M. Young, Jr., School of Social Work

According to a self-published booklet by Florence Victoria Addams, affectionately referred to as “Frankie V. Adams” a former dean indicated that institutions usually had their initial organization established by a single individual. Adams pointed out that many individuals contributed to the inception of training for Negroes in social work. Adams documented that the Atlanta School of Social Work had a type of beginning which may be best described as a combination of individual initiative and group supportiveness. Social situations during the years of the decade 1910 to 1920 had given impetus to the development of several agencies designed specifically to solve problems affecting Negroes (Waymer, 2006).

The Atlanta University School of Social Work, originally known as the Atlanta School of Social Service, located in the city of Atlanta, Georgia, was organized as the result of a meeting held May 21, 1920. The meeting included a member of executive secretaries of the family Welfare Societies over the South who expressed interests and a desire to improve conditions. Credit for the founding of the Atlanta School of Social Service is given to that aforementioned group of people who were called together with the idea which was crystallized. The institution officially opened its doors to students on September 28, 1920, for the purpose of conducting a school of social and health work for colored students. The school, originally housed at Morehouse College, through the
beneficence of Dr. John Hope, president of Morehouse College, took a step toward independence and rented rooms in an office building on Auburn Avenue (Heyliger, 1943). Founded in 1920 to train black social workers, the Atlanta School of Social Work opened with fourteen students and a faculty drawn from among professors at Morehouse College and the staffs of local social service agencies (Weiss, 1989).

The members of the first Board of trustees, or Executive Committee, as the first group was called, were selected by a nominating committee, who were instructed to include themselves among the members of the executive body. These people were notified to attend a meeting on June 4, 1920 to accept their nominations and elected officers. Most of these persons were in the field of social work or education and chosen directly from the community. At the first annual meeting, it was decided to elect the entire committee because it had been self appointed (Heyliger, 1943).

Mr. Garrie Ward Moore, the first director of the Atlanta University School of Social Work, was born in Florida and received his bachelor’s degree from Morehouse College in 1912. He attended the New York School of Social York and Columbia University during 1912-1913. Mr. Moore was employed as the first colored probation officer in Atlanta from 1913-1916. At the time he was selected for the directorship of the school, Mr. Moore was working on his doctorate, and in September, 1922, the request was granted. E. Franklin Frazier, also an instructor at Morehouse was selected to take his place. Mr. Moore died March 20, 1923 (Heyliger, 1943).

Edward Franklin Frazier was born in Baltimore, Maryland, received his bachelor’s degree from Howard University in 1916 and his Master’s from Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts, in 1920. During Frazier’s administration, he wrote
several articles on the necessity of the school as a training center. Among such articles, is one entitled “Training Colored Social Workers in the South” published in Social Forces, May, 1923. Research suggests that the school became publicized during these years through such articles (Heyliger, 1943).

The sociologist E. Franklin Frazier was director from 1922 until 1927, when he was succeeded by Forrester B. Washington, executive secretary of the Armstrong association of Philadelphia, an affiliate of the National Urban League. Washington brought professionalism to the fledgling institution, broadening the curriculum, raising the requirements for admission, and lengthening the duration of the program of study (GovTrack, 2014).

Forrest B. Washington, a native of Massachusetts, received his bachelor’s degree from Tufts College, Boston, Massachusetts, attended Harvard University Graduate School from 1913 to 1914, and Columbia University 1916-1917 where he received his master’s degree. Later he received his diploma from the New York School of Social Work. His outstanding work with the school gained national recognition through the conduction of many surveys. Members of the faculty have always been well trained academically with practical experiences in the subjects which they taught (Heyliger, 1943).

The Atlanta School of Social Work was incorporated under the laws of Georgia in 1925 (Waymer, 2006). When the school moved to its Auburn Avenue address in 1925, a small room was set aside for the many gifts of books which it had received from interested organizations (Heyliger, 1943).
A year after Washington assumed the directorship, the school was accredited by the American Association of Schools of Social Work, the first school for blacks to be recognized (Weiss, 1989). Membership in the American Association of Schools of Social Work was granted in 1928, making the School the First Historically Black School of Social Work to be accredited in the world, and the first School of Social Work in the State of Georgia. The School has maintained accreditation since 1928 (Waymer, 2006).

In accordance with the school’s policy to keep the curriculum of the school fluid, the program of the school was revamped in 1934 to prepare students to deal with the victims of the economic crisis (Heyliger, 1943). The school became affiliated with Atlanta University in 1938, but maintained its own board of trustees and continued to operate as an independent organization. In 1947, it relinquished its charter and became an integral part of the university (Weiss, 1989). The Atlanta School of Social Work joined with Atlanta University in 1947 and was named the Atlanta School of Social Work (Waymer, 2006).

The school flourished under Washington’s leadership. The enrollment which was just 10 students grew to 90 in 1938-1939 and 266 in 1946-1947. The affiliation with the university brought decreased enrollments because of the university’s more rigid entrance requirements, but the quality of the students improved. Washington transformed the curriculum, introducing new courses designed to meet the specific needs of blacks and initiating a six month block fieldwork assignment to give students practical experience in social service agencies (Weiss, 1989).

In 1952, the American Association of Schools of Social Work changed its name to the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE). In addition to being accredited by the
Council on Social Work Education, the School, as a unit of the University, is also accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. Since 1952, when the Council on Social Work Education became the national accrediting body for social work, the School was designated as a charter member. The School has also maintained its accreditation in good standing since its inception, and its reaffirmation has been continued (Waymer, 2006). By the time Washington retired in 1954, Atlanta was still the only professional school of social work in the state of Georgia (Weiss, 1989).

Whitney M. Young, Jr., was one of more than a dozen candidates who competed to succeed Forrester Washington, who had headed the school since 1927. Although Washington preferred another applicant, Atlanta University president Rufus E. Clement chose Young. In 1954-1955 enrollments during the Washington-Young interregnum stood at eighty-nine students during the first semester and sixty-nine students during the second semester. During 1954, the School was re-accredited, by the then now Council on Social Work Education, and has maintained its accreditation since then. At its June 2007 meeting of the Social Work Reinvestment Commission on Accreditation (COA), the COA voted to reaffirm the School’s accreditation for another eight (8) year cycle, ending June 2014 (Waymer, 2006).

The numbers improves substantially during the 1955-56 academic year to ninety-two and eighty-six in the first and second semesters. While the previous numbers reflect combined full-time and part-time enrollments, Young’s achievements in increasing the student body is best seen in the growth from sixty-four full-time students in 1954 to ninety-two in 1958, when Young noted that applications had grown so much that the school was able to be increasingly selective in the admissions process (Dickerson, 1998).
The Atlanta University was founded in 1865 and Clark College in 1869. Clark Atlanta University was formed through the consolidation of Clark College and Atlanta University in 1988. In the beginning the School awarded certificates to students. When the School became affiliated with the Atlanta University graduate program, the school awarded Masters of Social Work (MSW) degrees. The educational concept of autonomous social work practice emerged as a social work model during the academic year 1968-1969 at Atlanta University in response to the challenge from the Council on Social Work to define and identify their own models of social work practitioners. In response to this challenge, the School participated in a Project on Integrative Teaching and Learning with eight schools of social work representing Canada, Puerto Rico and the United States in order to develop its model (Waymer, 2006).

The resultant autonomous social work practice mode included three integrative components which under grid the Master of Social Work curriculum. The three integrative components were stated as 1) Autonomous Social Work Practice; 2) Humanistic Values, and 3) the Afrocentric Perspective. In 1979, the Baccalaureate Program in Social Work was founded at Clark College and in 1983 the Doctoral Program (Ph.D.) was established. The three programs were joined under one administration when Atlanta University and Clark College were consolidated as Clark Atlanta University. The school celebrated its 80th year in 2000 and was re-named the Whitney M. Young, Jr., School of Social Work, former Dean of Clark Atlanta University School of Social Work (Waymer, 2006).
H. R. 1466 & S. 997 Social Work Reinvestment Act

The Action Network for Social Work Education and Research (ANSWER Coalition) helped to draft the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act. The Act was first introduced in the 110th Congress by Representative Edolphus Towns and Senator Barbara Mikulski. Congressman Towns and Congresswoman Mikulski also introduced the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act in the 111th and 112th Congress (Coalition, 2012).


On February 27, 2008, an event was held in the Cannon House Office Building on Capitol Hill recognizing the introduction of the Social Work Reinvestment Act (SWRA) in the 110th Congress; Rep. Towns, Rep. Shays, and Dr. Height were the featured speakers. The website SocialWorkReinvestment.org was launched to highlight federal and state investments in professional social work. The NASW and CSWE hired outside lobbying firms to promote the profession and social work education in federal legislation.
NASW launched various social media outlets, including several which highlight the Social Work Reinvestment Initiative. Grassroots documents were created to inform social workers and other stakeholders about Social Work Reinvestment Act including a fact sheet, biography sheets on Dr. Height and Whitney Young, action postcards, and a petition. Over 100,000 pieces of communication was sent from social workers to members of Congress (Coalition, 2012).

The ANSWER Coalition, along with the National Association of Social Workers (NASW), The Association of Baccalaureate Social Work Program Directors, (BPD), and the Clinical Social Work Association created videos in support of SWRA. Dr. Height personally contacted members of Congress and the Executive Branch in support of SWRA. Various schools of social work included Social Work Reinvestment information in their newsletters or alumni updates. Students focused on social work reinvestment during the virtual 2010 Student Social Work Congress. The social worker members of Congress spoke about how their education, training, and experience as social workers assisted their work in Congress at the 2010 Social Work Congress (Coalition, 2012).

The NASW submitted testimony on May 5, 2009 to the Subcommittee on Labor, Health and Human Services, Education, and Related Agencies on “The Profession of Social Work: Essential to a Healthy Society” and on May 18, 2010 to the Subcommittee on Labor, Health and Human. Services, Education, and Related Agencies regarding appropriations report language. The SWRA was included as a “bill to watch” in the Congressional Black Caucus (CBC) 2009 report “Opportunities for All Pathways Out of Poverty.” Congressman Towns spoke about SWRA at the Carl A. Scott Memorial Lecture at the 2009 Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education.
Members of Congress worked to include the Social Work Reinvestment Commission in the President's economic stimulus package in 2009 (Coalition, 2012).


Members of the ANSWER Coalition met with key members of Congress and staff regarding SWRA throughout the 110th, 111th, and 112th Congresses; letters were sent to each Senator and Representative encouraging their support of SWRA. Congressman Towns proposed that the Social Work Reinvestment Commission be included as an amendment to the “Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act.” All fifty six (56) NASW Chapters worked in support of SWRA, contacting and visiting their members of Congress in-district. The NASW and BPD collaborated on social work curriculum to accompany the documentary film “Finding Uncle Whitney: The Search for Leadership in America” based on the leadership skills of Whitney Young. Presentations were given at BPD and CSWE conferences. The NASW worked with numerous schools of social work
and policy classes including the Capitol Hill Policy Practice Forum for social work students to focus projects on SWRA. Social Work Month is continually recognized in the Congressional Record by the social work members of Congress. The SWRA was placed on the House suspension calendar in the 111th Congress. The NASW posthumously presented Dr. Height with the Lifetime Achievement Award at the 2010 Social Work Congress (Coalition, 2012).

In a consultation with Dr. Charles E. Lewis, Jr., it was reported that The Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act was named by Congressman Towns for Dr. Height's ability to possibly change the behaviors of Congressional members and for her assistance in getting legislation passed and after Whitney M. Young, Jr. for his significant contributions to the social work profession (Lewis, 2014).

The Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act is designed to address these challenges to the profession, thereby helping to ensure that millions of individuals and families throughout the nation can continue to receive competent care. This legislation will create the foundation for a professional workforce to meet the ever-increasing demand for the essential services that social workers provide (Initiative, 2013).

Re-introduced in the House of Representatives by Rep. Lee, (D-CA – 13) on 04/10/2013, Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act directs the Secretary of Health and Human Services (HHS) to establish the Social Work Reinvestment Commission to provide independent counsel to Congress on policy issues associated with the recruitment for, and retention, research, and reinvestment in,
the profession of social work. Directs the Social Work Reinvestment Commission to study and report to Congress on issues facing the social work profession, including: (1) fair market compensation, high social work educational debt, social work workforce trends, translating social work research to practice, and social work safety; and (2) state-level social work licensure policies and reciprocity agreements for providing services across state lines. Requires such study to assess the professional capacity of the social work workforce to serve and respond successfully to the increasing biopsychosocial needs of individuals, groups, and communities in certain areas, including aging and child welfare (Congress.Gov, 2013).

The Act authorizes the Secretary to award: (1) workplace improvement grants to eligible entities and individuals to address workplace concerns for the social work profession, including caseloads, compensation, social work safety, supervision, and working conditions; and (2) research grants, education and training grants, and community-based programs of excellence grants (Congress.Gov, 2013).

The Act directs the Secretary to: (1) contract with a national social work entity to serve as a coordinating center and clearinghouse for information on activities funded under the grants, and (2) develop a multi-media outreach campaign and issue public service announcements that advertise and promote the social work profession (Congress.Gov, 2013).

113th United States Congress

The United States Congress has an upper chamber called the Senate and a lower chamber called the House of Representatives (or “House” for short) which share the
responsibilities of the legislative process to create federal statutory law. Congress works in two year sessions tied to the elections. Each session is actually called a Congress and begins in the January of the year following the year of an election. The 113th Congress began on January 3, 2013 at the end of the 112th Congress on January 2, 2012 and will end on January 2, 2015 during the final years of Barack Obama’s presidency and Joe Biden’s vice presidency (GovTrack, 2014). This is the first Congress elected from Districts that were reapportioned according to the 2010 census (Representatives, 2014).

Congress is composed of 541 individuals from the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Guam, the U.S. Virgin Islands, American Samoa, the Northern Mariana Islands, and Puerto Rico (Manning, 2014). In addition, the District of Columbia and the US’s five island territories each send a non-voting delegate to the House. Puerto Rico’s delegate is called the Resident Commissioner (GovTrack, 2014).

As of August 18, 2014, in the House of Representatives, there are 233 Republicans, 205 Democrats (including the 5 Delegates and the Resident Commissioner), and 3 vacant seats (Manning, 2014). The states are divided into 435 congressional districts with a population of about 710,000 each. Each state has elected a representative to the House of Representatives for a two year term. The day to day activities of the House are controlled by the political party holding the most seats. With a count representation of 233, the Republicans represent the “majority party” and control the day to day activities in the House of Representatives. The Senate has 45 Republicans, 53 Democrats, and two Independents, who caucus with the Democrats. In the Senate, the 53 Democrats control the day to activities (GovTrack, 2014).
The U.S. Constitution requires Representatives to be at least 25 years old when they take office. The youngest Representative at the beginning of the 113th Congress was 29-year-old Patrick Murphy (D-FL), born March 30, 1983. The oldest Representative in U.S. history, as well as the oldest current Member of Congress, is Ralph Hall (R-TX), born May 3, 1923, who was 89 at the beginning of the 113th Congress. Senators must be at least 30 years old when they take office. The oldest Senator in the 113th Congress is Dianne Feinstein (D-CA), born June 22, 1933, who was 79 at the beginning of the Congress. Until his death at age 89 on June 3, 2013, Frank Lautenberg (D-NJ), born January 23, 1924, had been the oldest Senator in the 113th Congress. The youngest Senator is Christopher S. Murphy (D-CT), born August 3, 1973, who was 39. The average age of members of the House at the beginning of the 113th Congress was 57.0 years; of Senators, 62.0 years (Manning, 2014).

The overwhelming majority of members of Congress have a college education. The vast majority of members (93% of House Members and 99% of Senators) at the beginning of the 113th Congress hold bachelor’s degrees. The CQ Roll Call Member Profiles at the beginning of the 113th Congress indicate that 21 Members of the House and one Senator have no educational degree beyond a high school diploma; seven Members of the House, but no Senators, have associate’s degrees as their highest degree, and one House Member has an L.P.N. (nursing) degree; 85 members of the House and 14 Senators earned a master’s degree as their highest education degree; Law degrees are held by 169 Members of the House (38% of the House) and 57 Senators (57% of the Senate); Of the Members holding a law degree, four (three House Members and one Senator) also hold an LL.M. (Master of Laws) degree; 20 Representatives (but no
Senators) have doctoral (Ph.D. or D.Phil.) degrees; and 22 Members of the House and three Senators have a medical degree (Manning, 2014).

The dominant professions of Members are public service/politics, business, and law. A closer look at the prior occupations and previously held public offices of Members of the House and Senate at the beginning of the 113th Congress, as listed in their CQ Roll Call Member Profiles, indicates that 51 Senators have previous House service. There are 102 educators, employed as teachers, professors, instructors, school fundraisers, counselors, administrators, or coaches (90 in the House, 12 in the Senate); two physicians in the Senate, 17 physicians in the House (including one Delegate), plus two dentists, two veterinarians, and one psychiatrist; three psychologists (both in the House), an optometrist (in the Senate), and five nurses (all in the House); five ordained ministers, all in the House; 33 former mayors (24 in the House, nine in the Senate); 10 former state governors (all 10 in the Senate) and eight lieutenant governors (four in the Senate, four in the House, including two Delegates) (Manning, 2014).

Additionally, there are seven former judges (all in the House), and 32 prosecutors (eight in the Senate, and 24 in the House, including a Delegate), who have served in city, county, state, federal, or military capacities; one former Cabinet Secretary (in the Senate), and two Ambassadors (one in each chamber); 262 state or territorial legislators (219 in the House, including two Delegates, and 43 in the Senate); 13 at least 100 congressional staffers (20 in the Senate, 80 in the House), as well as eight congressional pages (four in the House and four in the Senate); five Peace Corps volunteers, all in the House; three sheriffs and one deputy sheriff, two FBI agents (all in the House), and a
firefighter in the Senate; two physicists, six engineers, and a microbiologist (all in the House, with the exception of one Senator who is an engineer).

Manning (2014) reported there are five radio talk show hosts (four House, one Senate), six radio or television broadcasters (five House, one Senate), one reporters or journalists (five in the House, two in the Senate), and a radio station manager and a public television producer (both in the House); nine accountants in the House and two in the Senate; five software company executives, all in the House; three pilots, all in the House, and one astronaut, in the Senate; a screenwriter, a comedian, and a documentary film maker, all in the Senate, and a professional football player, in the House; 29 farmers, ranchers, or cattle farm owners (25 House, four Senate); two almond orchard owners, both in the House, one cattle farm owner (a Senator), one vintner (a House Member), one fisherman (a House Member), and one fruit orchard worker (a House Member).

There are seven social workers in the House and two in the Senate; and nine current members of the military reserves (eight House, one Senate), and six current members of the National Guard (all in the House). Other occupations listed in the CQ Roll Call Member Profiles include car dealership owner, auto worker, insurance agent, rodeo announcer, union representative, stockbroker, welder, venture capitalist, funeral home owner, and software engineer. Three Representatives and one Senator in the 113th Congress are graduates of the U.S. Military Academy and one Senator and one Representative graduated from the U.S. Naval Academy. Two Senators and two Representatives were Rhodes Scholars, two Representatives were Fulbright Scholars, and two Representatives were Marshall Scholars, and one Senator and one Representative were Truman Scholars (Manning, 2014).
Most Members identify as Christians, and Protestants collectively constitute the majority religious affiliation. Roman Catholics account for the largest single religious denomination, and numerous other affiliations are represented. Ninety-eight percent (98%) of the Members of the 113th Congress cite a specific religious affiliation. Of the 98%, the vast majority are Christian. Manning (2014) noted that the statistics gathered by the Pew Forum on Religion and Public Life, which studies the religious affiliation of Members, and CQ Roll Call at the beginning of the 113th Congress showed the following:

- Fifty-six percent (56%) of the Members (247 in the House, 52 in the Senate) are Protestant, with Baptist as the most represented denomination;
- Thirty-one percent (31%) of the Members (136 in the House, 27 in the Senate) are Catholic;
- Six percent (6.2%) of the Members (22 in the House, 11 in the Senate) are Jewish;
- Two percent (2.8%) of the Members (8 in the House, 7 in the Senate) are Mormon (Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints);
- Three (3) Members (2 in the House, and one in the Senate) are Buddhist, 2 House Members are Muslim, and 1 House Member is Hindu; and
- Other religious affiliations represented include Greek Orthodox, Quaker, Unitarian Universalist and Christian Science.

The average length of service for Representatives at the beginning of the 113th Congress was 9.1 years (4.6 terms); for Senators, 10.2 years (1.7 terms). As of June 7, 2013, Representative John Dingell (D-MI), the current dean of the House, has the longest
service of any Member in history (57 years and counting). He began serving on
December 13, 1955. At the beginning of the 113th Congress, 75 of the Representatives
(17% of the total House membership) had first been elected to the House in November
2012, and 14 of the Senators (14% of the total Senate membership) had first been elected
to the Senate in November 2012, or appointed to the Senate in December 2012. At the
beginning of the 113th Congress, 157 Representatives (36% of the House Members) had
no more than two years of House experience, and 30 Senators (30% of the Senators) had
no more than two years of Senate experience (Manning, 2014).

One hundred two women (a record number) serve in the 113th Congress: 82 in
the House, including three Delegates, and 20 in the Senate. A record 102 women (18.8%
of total membership) serve in the 113th Congress as of July 2014, 10 more than at the
beginning of the 112th Congress. Eighty-two women, including three Delegates, serve in
the House and 20 in the Senate. Of the 82 women in the House, 63 are Democrats,
including the three Delegates, and 19 are Republicans. Of the 20 women in the Senate, 16
are Democrats and four are Republicans (Manning, 2014).

There are 42 African American Members of the House and two in the Senate.
This House number includes two Delegates. These 44 African American Members
(8.1% of the total membership) in the 113th Congress, the same number as at the
beginning of the 112th Congress. Forty-two serve in the House, including two Delegates,
and two serve in the Senate. This number includes one Member of the House who is of
African American and Asian ancestry and is counted in both ethnic categories in this
report. All of the 42 House Members, including two Delegates, are Democrats, and there
is a Senator of each party. Sixteen African American women, including two Delegates, serve in the House.

There are 37 Hispanic or Latino Members in the 113th Congress, 6.9% of the total membership. Thirty-three serve in the House and four in the Senate. Of the Members of the House, 26 are Democrats (including 1 Delegate and the Resident Commissioner from Puerto Rico), seven are Republicans, and nine are women. There are four male Hispanic Senators (three Republicans, one Democrat). One set of Hispanic Members, Representatives Linda Sanchez and Loretta Sanchez, are sisters. Thirteen Members of the 113th Congress (2.4% of the total membership, the same as at the beginning of the 112th Congress) are of Asian, South Asian, or Pacific Islander ancestry. Twelve of them (all Democrats) serve in the House, and one (a Democrat) serves in the Senate. Of those serving in the House, two are Delegates. Seven of the Asian Pacific American Members are female: six in the House and one in the Senate. Two American Indians (Native Americans) serve in the House (Manning, 2014).

Todd, Murray and Dann (2014) reported that June 25, 2014 was the day the 113th Congress all but closed up shop to focus on the midterms after House Speaker John Boehner announced he would introduce legislation to authorize a lawsuit against President Obama over his executive actions in office by exceeding his presidential power on issues like the healthcare, energy regulations and LGBT rights. On July 9, 2014, Bump (2014) wrote in the Washington Post that with the August recess and midterm elections soon to follow, it is assumed that Congress is done for the year and that the 113th Congress will soon officially be the least productive ever yet only about halfway through the legislation.
The Washington Post spoke by phone with Josh Tauberer, a transparency advocate who created GovTrack, a site that aggregates data on Congress and its legislation. Tauberer did not think there was much of a way that the 113th Congress could avoid seeing the lowest number of enacted laws in recent memory. Using GovTrack's data, information below illustrates where the 113th Congress stands in relation to every other Congress since 1973 (Bump, 2014).

According to Tauberer, the totals were broken into two parts: the number of bills passed in each Congress as of Tuesday, July 8, 2014 and the legislation passed during the rest of the session. Somewhat surprisingly, only half of the laws enacted during a Congress are enacted during the first three-quarters of the session. Or, more specifically, since 1973, fifty percent (50.12%) of enacted laws have come from July 8th of the second year or later. If applying that average to the existing number of enacted laws, Tauberer found that the 113th Congress is on track to enact 251 laws in total which is more than ten percent (10%) fewer bills than the last Congress which earned the distinction of enacting the least amount of legislation since 1973. For this Congress to not be the one to enact the fewest laws, it would need to pass fifty (56%) of its total legislation between now and the end of the year (Bump, 2014).

In a departure from the original schedule, Majority Leader Kevin McCarthy (R-Calif.) announced on Thursday, September 18, 2014 that the House will adjourn at the end of the day until after the midterm elections in November. Lawmakers will now have extra time to hit the campaign trail, leaving Washington until the lame duck session in November. In total, the House will have been in session for eight days since returning from the five-week August recess on September 8, 2014. The 113th Congress was set to
recess for Rosh Hashanah and was scheduled to return the week of September 29th. The House has passed a stopgap funding measure to avoid a government shutdown on October 1, 2014 (Marcos, 2014).

Social Workers in Congress

The social worker Members of Congress spoke about how their education, training and experience as social workers assisted their work in Congress at the 2010 Social Work Congress. First elected to the U.S. House of Representatives in 1976, Barbara Mikulski successfully ran for Senate in 1986, becoming the first democratic woman Senator elected in her own right. Senator Barbara Mikulski is the Dean of the Women – serving as a mentor to other women Senators when they first take office. Determined to make a difference in her community, Senator Mikulski became a social worker in Baltimore, helping at-risk children and educating seniors about the Medicare program. Senator Mikulski’s experiences as a social worker provided valuable lessons that she draws on as a United States Senator. Senator Mikulski fights to make sure Americans have access to quality education and lifesaving research, as well as improving the lives of Veterans (NASW, 2013).

In the 113th Congress, Senator Mikulski became Chair of the powerful Appropriations Committee, making her the first woman to do so. She also chairs the Children and Families Subcommittee of the Health, Education, Labor and Pensions Committee and serves on the Select Committee on Intelligence. Senator Mikulski has been the lead sponsor of many pieces of social work legislation including the Clinical Social Work Medicare Equity Act and the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr.
Social Work Reinvestment Act. Senator Mikulski received her MSW from the University of Maryland (NASW, 2013).

Senator Debbie Stabenow made history in 2000 when she became the first woman from the State of Michigan elected to the United States Senate. Senator Stabenow was first inspired to run for public office after leading a successful effort to stop the closure of a local nursing home. Senator Stabenow chairs the Agriculture Committee as well as the Social Security, Pensions and Family Policy Subcommittee of the Finance Committee. She also serves on the Budget and Energy and Natural Resources Committee and was named to the President’s Export Council by both President Bush and President Obama. In Congress, Senator Stabenow has a powerful and unique role to play in shaping our nation’s manufacturing, health care, and agricultural policies and is respected for her ability to get things done. She is also a passionate advocate for children and an expert in small business issues. Senator Stabenow is a cosponsor of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act. Senator Stabenow received her Bachelor’s degree and her MSW from Michigan State University (NASW, 2013).

Congresswoman Susan A. Davis represents California’s 53rd Congressional District in the U.S. House of Representatives. Congresswoman Davis’ interest in public affairs grew out of her experiences as a social worker, parent, youth mentor, and military spouse. In Congress, the Congresswoman has earned a reputation as a bipartisan consensus builder achieving legislative successes in education, military families and Veterans support, and health care. Davis serves as the Ranking Member of the Military Personnel Subcommittee of the Armed Services Committee as a member of the Education and the Workforce Committee. She is a member of the Congressional Social
Work Caucus and a cosponsor of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act. Born in Cambridge, Massachusetts, Congresswoman Davis grew up in Richmond, California and graduated from the University of California at Berkeley with a degree in sociology. Davis then earned a master’s degree in social work from the University of North Carolina (NASW, 2013).

Serving his eleventh term in the U.S. House, Congressman Luis V. Gutierrez has worked to establish himself as an effective legislator and energetic spokesman on behalf of his constituents in Illinois’ Fourth Congressional District. At the same time, Gutierrez’s tireless leadership championing the causes of the Latino and immigrant communities has led to greater responsibilities within the U.S. Congress and has earned him widespread acclaim throughout the country. Congressman Gutierrez serves on the Judiciary Committee and the Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence. In addition, some of the congressional caucuses in which Congressman Gutierrez is a member include the Congressional Social Work Caucus, the Congressional Hispanic Caucus, the Congressional Human Rights Caucus and the Congressional Task Force on International HIV/AIDS (NASW, 2013).

Congressman Gutierrez is a cosponsor of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act. Before the election as a member of Congress, Congressman Gutierrez graduated from Northeastern Illinois University in 1975 and worked as a teacher, social worker, community activist, city official and Alderman (NASW, 2013).

Congresswoman Barbara Lee was first elected to Congress in 1998. Lee notes that as a social worker by profession, being an advocate for people in dealing with the
federal bureaucracy has been a priority. Born in El Paso, Texas, Congresswoman Lee graduated from Mills College in Oakland and received an MSW from the University of California in Berkeley. Lee began her political career as an intern in the office of her predecessor, then-Congressman Ron Dellums, where she eventually became his Chief of Staff. Before being elected to Congress, Lee served in the California State Assembly from 1990-1996 and the California State Senate from 1996-1998 (NASW, 2013).

Congresswoman Lee has consistently been a progressive voice in Congress, dedicated to social and economic justice, international peace, and civil and human rights. Lee is committed to eradicating poverty, fostering opportunity and protecting the most vulnerable in our society. Congresswoman Lee is a member of the Appropriations Committee and the Budget Committee. Furthermore, Congresswoman Lee is the Chair of the Congressional Social Work Caucus, and past-Chair of the Congressional Black Caucus and the Congressional Progressive Caucus. Congresswoman Lee is a cosponsor of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act (NASW, 2013).

U.S. Representative Allyson Y. Schwartz is serving in her fifth term representing the 13th Congressional District of Pennsylvania. During Representative Schwartz’s more than three decades of public service, she has built a national reputation as an innovative leader. Schwartz led the effort to create the Pennsylvania State Children’s Health Insurance Program, which later served as a national model for a state/federal/family partnership to increase the number of children with health insurance. Congresswoman Schwartz serves on the Budget Committee and Ways and Means Committee. Schwartz is a member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus. Prior to her service in Congress,
Representative Schwartz was a leading healthcare executive in Philadelphia and from 1990 to 2004 served as a member of the Pennsylvania State Senate, where she was considered one of the most accomplished legislators for her ability to forge bipartisanship partnerships (NASW, 2013).

Congresswoman Schwartz is a cosponsor of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act. With a BA from Simmons College in Sociology and a Masters of Social Service from Bryn Mawr College, Congresswoman Schwartz is dedicated to working on issues on behalf of Veterans, women, and families. Congresswoman Schwartz is also instrumental in legislative efforts redirecting the nation's environmental and energy policies towards energy independence and the reduction of global warming (NASW, 2013).

U.S. Representative Carol Shea-Porter is serving her third term representing the 1st Congressional District of New Hampshire. Shea-Porter is the first woman elected to national office in the history of the state of New Hampshire and now serves as part of the first all women Congressional delegation. Congresswoman Shea-Porter is a member of the Armed Services Committee and Natural Resources Committee. Congresswoman Shea-Porter is a cosponsor of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act. Congresswoman Shea-Porter is a graduate of the University of New Hampshire, earning a Bachelor of Arts in Social Services and later a Master of Arts in Public Administration. Congresswoman Shea-Porter married Gene Porter, an Army officer stationed at an Army medical center in Colorado during the Vietnam era. After her husband left the service, they moved to New Orleans and then to the Washington, DC area where she continued her career as a social worker and teacher. She founded and
directed a program to provide services to senior citizens, taught political science at a community college and also taught politics and American history to retired federal employees (NASW, 2013).

U.S. Representative Kyrsten Sinema is serving her first term representing the 9th Congressional District of Arizona. In Arizona where Congresswoman Sinema grew up, strong schools and tight-knit communities meant opportunity for future generations. The hard-working middle class could get ahead, and government was there to help ensure that opportunity for all who were willing to work hard and play by the rules. Congresswoman Sinema became a social worker to help struggling families and realized that the problems presented to her such as poverty, homelessness, job loss, abuse were common to so many families, and that solving these problems meant thinking bigger than one family at a time. It required fighting for real change to rebuild an America that works for all Americans (NASW, 2013).

Sinema was elected to the state legislature and worked to secure funding for Veterans, to provide business incentives for job creation, and to fight back against attempts to gut basic health care for kids, cut services for the elderly and dramatically drop school funding. Congresswoman Sinema has been lauded as someone capable of working with members of both parties, while never letting go of her progressive values and principles. Congresswoman Sinema serves on the Financial Services Committee (NASW, 2013).

Congresswoman Niki Tsongas was elected in 2007, becoming the first woman in 25 years to serve in Congress from the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. For the first three terms, Congresswoman Tsongas represented the Fifth Congressional District,
spanning across portions of Essex, Middlesex and Worcester counties. Congresswoman Tsongas' work in the House of Representatives is motivated by a lifelong commitment to public service with deep ties to the communities of Massachusetts (NASW, 2013).

Tsongas has been actively involved in civic and charitable life since graduating college when she took her first job as a social worker in New York. Combining the deep tradition of military service running throughout the district with values instilled by her father, an Air Force Colonel who survived the attack on Pearl Harbor, Tsongas is especially honored to serve on the House Armed Services Committee. Tsongas serves on the Natural Resources Committee. Prior to being elected to the House of Representatives, Tsongas raised a family, practiced law, and served as a Dean at Middlesex Community College, all in the region she now represents. Congresswoman Tsongas is a member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus (NASW, 2013).

**Edolphus Towns**

The 113th Congress version of Social Workers In Congress is dedicated to retired Congressman Edolphus “Ed” Towns. Congressman Towns has been an unwavering advocate for the profession of social work throughout the 15-term tenure in the United States House of Representatives, representing Brooklyn, New York. The NASW celebrates his lifelong career of service to others. Congressman Towns is a professional social worker with an MSW from Adelphi University. Towns has devoted his life to addressing issues of inequality and social justice and have served as Chairman for the Congressional Black Caucus and the House Oversight and Government Reform
Committee. President Obama released a statement hailing Congressman Towns’ public service (NASW, 2013).

Most recently Congressman Towns founded the Congressional Social Work Caucus (CSWC), which represents the interests of over 650,000 professional social workers nationwide and serves as a congressionally-approved bipartisan group of Members of Congress dedicated to maintaining and strengthening social work services in the United States. Additionally, the Congressman has been the House sponsor of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act (NASW, 2013).

In The House of Representatives on March 15, 2011, Congressman Towns was addressed by the Speaker of the House (Office, 2011) and declared the celebration of World Social Work Day, a day when the international social work and social welfare communities will celebrate the profession’s contributions to society. This event, which occurred on the third Tuesday in March, became relevant that year because the United States and the international communities have faced significant economic, social, and political challenges.

Towns told members of Congress that social work is the helping profession and social workers across the globe help people to address challenges in their lives, guide them to critical resources, counsel them on important life decisions, and help them reach their full potential. Towns shared how social workers are a part of society’s safety net as highly trained professionals who work with the most vulnerable individuals in communities across the country (Office, 2011).
Without the help of social work professionals, many individuals would not have a voice. Congressman Towns reported and re-introduced the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young Social Work Reinvestment Act. Towns (Office, 2011) told the Speaker of the House and Members of Congress that with the crises in Japan, the Middle East, and the lingering effects on the economy of foreclosures and unemployment, social workers continue to assist persons in need. Towns shared how the challenges compromise the ability of the many dedicated social work professionals to provide clients with unparalleled service and care. He further disclosed to the 112th Congress that future social workers have opted to leave the field rather than endure the competing policy priorities, fiscal constraints, safety concerns, significant educational debt, and comparatively low salary that await them upon graduation (Office, 2011).

Towns continued his speech to Congress by sharing that The Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act is designed to address the challenges of the social work profession to ensure that millions of individuals and families throughout the nation can continue to receive necessary social work services. This legislation will create the foundation for a professional social work force to meet the increasing demand for the essential services that social workers provide. Congressman concluded by urging his colleagues to support The Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act (Office, 2011).

**Congressional Social Work Caucus**

The Congressional Social Work Caucus (CSWC) was created in the 111th Congress by social worker and Congressman Edolphus Towns (D-NY). The CSWC
represents the interests of over 650,000 professional social workers nationwide and
deserves as a congressionally approved bipartisan group of Members of Congress dedicated
to maintaining and strengthening social work services in the United States. Through
Capitol Hill briefings and events, the CSWC educates national legislators and their staffs
on issues of importance to the social work profession and the clients served by social
workers (Caucus, 2012).

Every day social workers assist the disadvantaged, the elderly, children, service
members and veterans, and others facing life-limiting challenges. Social workers find
solutions to poverty, divorce, addiction, emotional distress and other psychological,
economic, and social issues. Social workers form society’s social safety nets. The CSWC
puts a spotlight on the dedicated work of social workers in child welfare agencies, health
clinics and outpatient healthcare settings, hospitals, mental health clinics, schools,
government agencies, legislatures, social services agencies, private practices, criminal
justice settings, and many more settings in the public and private sectors (Caucus, 2012).

The CSWC was officially launched on March 15, 2011 at the United States
Library of Congress James Madison Building. Congressman Towns created the CSWC
and fellow social workers and Members of Congress Susan Davis (CA), Luis Gutierrez
(IL), Barbara Lee (CA), Allyson Schwartz (PA), and Nikki Tsongas (MA) were the first
members to join. Congressman Towns invited all Members of Congress who had worked
in social services or non-profit organizations, or who had an interest in the profession of
social work, the services provided by social workers, or the 10 million clients served by
social workers each day, to join the CSWC. The launch was by over one hundred
professional social workers, deans of schools of social work, Members of Congress, government officials and staff, and relevant stakeholders (Caucus, 2012).

The objectives of the CSWC are to initiate and support legislation to address unique challenges and opportunities for social workers; monitor and evaluate programs and legislation to assist and support individual, families, and communities across the lifespan who are coping with economic, social and health problems, particularly those with limited resources; provide congressional staffers with educational tools and resources directed toward improving the social work profession and the people served by social workers; assist in education and awareness efforts regarding the breadth and scope of the profession. The Congressional Social Work Caucus accomplishes its goals and objectives through regular hill briefings, media statements, convening experts on specific issues, fostering interdisciplinary cooperation with relevant disciplines, working with various stakeholders in local government and communities, expand congressional and legislative internship opportunities for social workers (Caucus, 2012).

Status of H.R. 1466 & S. 997 Social Work Reinvestment Act

A congressional briefing on the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act was held on Wednesday, November 17, 2011 on Capitol Hill. The briefing was convened by Congressman Towns who introduced the legislation in the U.S. House of Representatives (Caucus, 2012). The summary status was written by the Congressional Research Service (Congress, 2013) which is a nonpartisan division of the Library of Congress. The legislation, which has a Senate companion bill was introduced by Senator Barbara Mikulski (MD), addresses the workforce challenges
facing the profession such as low salaries, high educational debt, and safety concerns (NASW, 2013).

The Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act H.R. 1466 and S. 997 directs the Secretary of Health and Human Services (HHS) to establish the Social Work Reinvestment Commission to provide independent counsel to Congress on policy issues associated with the recruitment for, and retention, research, and reinvestment in, the profession of social work. This Act was introduced on April 10, 2013 to the House of Representatives by Congresswoman Barbara Lee, [D-CA-13] and on May 21, 2013 to the Senate by Senator Barbara Mikulski [D-MD]. On both occasions the Bill was read and referred to the Committee on Health, Education, Labor and Pensions. The House and Senate have not voted, nor has the President signed this Bill (Congress, 2013). On 07/08/2013, the House referred the Bill to the Subcommittee on Higher Education and Workforce Training (Congress.Gov, 2014).

**Hastert Rule**

The Hastert Rule is an informal policy among the House Republican leadership designed to limit the debate on bills that don't have support from a majority of its conference. The rule forbids any legislation that doesn't have support from a "majority of the majority" from coming up for a vote on the House floor. The Hastert Rule is named for former Speaker of the House Dennis Hastert, a Republican from Illinois who served as the chamber's longest-serving speaker, from 1998 until his resignation in 2007. But previous Republican speakers of the House followed the same guiding principle, including former U.S. Rep. Newt Gingrich. Critics of the Hastert Rule say it's too rigid
and limits debate on important national issues while issues favored by Republicans get attention. They also blame the Hastert Rule for spiking House action on any legislation passed in a bipartisan fashion in the U.S. Senate. The Hastert Rule was blamed, for example, for holding up House votes on the farm bill and immigration reform in 2013 (Murse, 2014).

According to the Juliet Eilperin, writer for the Washington Post, it was written that while everyone credits House Speaker John Boehner (R-Ohio) with following the “Hastert Rule” by refusing to bring up legislation that isn’t supported by the majority of the GOP, the man for whom the rule got his name says the very term is "a misnomer. Former House speaker J. Dennis Hastert (R-Ill.) indicated in a recent interview with Eilperin is “What happened is you lined up 218 votes. The real Hastert Rule is 218,” Hastert said, referring to a simple House majority of votes (Eilperin, 2013).

Republicans have used this rule consistently since Speaker Dennis Hastert wielded it in the mid-1990s to effectively limit the power of the minority party. Democrats were prevented from passing bills with the assistance of a small number of members of the majority party. In a press conference on an immigration bill, when he was asked by a reporter if he would consider moving the legislation with Democratic support, Hastert replied that that is “something I would not generally do, adding that he preferred to push legislation that enjoyed the backing of a majority of the Republican Conference. “When I used the term ‘majority of the majority,’ that was in one specific case” (Eilperin, 2013).

Hastert himself attempted to distance himself from the rule during the government shutdown of 2013, when Republican House Speaker John Boehner refused
to allow a vote on a measure funding federal government operations under the belief that
a conservative bloc of the GOP conference was opposed to it. Hastert told The Daily
Beast that the so-called Hastert Rule wasn’t really set in stone. “Generally speaking, I
needed to have a majority of my majority, at least half of my conference. This wasn’t a
rule … The Hastert Rule is kind of a misnomer.” He added of Republicans under his
leadership: “If we had to work with Democrats, we did”. Nonetheless, Hastert is on the
record saying the following during his tenure as speaker: "On occasion, a particular issue
might excite a majority made up mostly of the minority. Campaign finance is a
particularly good example of this phenomenon. The job of speaker is not to expedite
legislation that runs counter to the wishes of the majority of his majority.” Norman
Ornstein of the American Enterprise Institute has called the Hastert Rule detrimental in
that it puts party ahead of the House as a whole, and therefore the will of the people
(Murse, 2014).

Conservative advocacy groups including the Conservative Action Project have
argued that the Hastert Rule should be made written policy by the House Republican
Conference so the party can remain in good standing with the people who elected them to
office. A New York Times analysis of adherence to the Hastert Rule found all
Republican House speakers had violated it at one point or another. Boehner had allowed
House bills to come up for a vote even though they didn't have support from a majority of
the majority (Murse, 2014).
Filibuster Rule

The Filibuster Rule is a historical method used to delay vote or block debate in the Senate. The Filibuster Rule is only one way that Senators can block a vote. For example, the party in power can bottle up a bill or nomination in Committee, thus keeping it from coming to the floor for a vote. Some call it unconstitutional, unfair, a historical relic. Others insist that it is a tool that protects the rights of the minority against the tyranny of the majority. By their nature, filibusters elevate visibility of the issue at hand and have, as a by-product, the potential to inspire compromise. A final vote can only be taken if 60 Senators agree; this is called a vote of cloture (vote to end the filibuster). Senators have effectively used filibusters or more often, the threat of a filibuster to change legislation or block a bill from being voted on the Senate floor. According to the US Senate website, the word filibuster derived from a Dutch word meaning pirate was first used more than 150 years ago to describe efforts to hold the Senate floor in order to prevent action on a bill (Gill, 2014).

Using the Filibuster Rule to delay or block legislative action has a long history. The term filibuster is from a Dutch word meaning pirate became popular in the 1850s, when it was applied to efforts to hold the Senate floor in order to prevent a vote on a bill. In the early years of Congress, representatives as well as senators could filibuster. As the House of Representatives grew in numbers, revisions to the House rules limited debate. In the smaller Senate, unlimited debate continued on the grounds that any senator should have the right to speak as long as necessary on any issue. In 1841, when the Democratic minority hoped to block a bank bill promoted by Kentucky Senator Henry Clay, he threatened to change Senate rules to allow the majority to close debate. Missouri Senator
Thomas Hart Benton rebuked Clay for trying to stifle the Senate's right to unlimited debate (Gill, 2014).

Three quarters of a century later, in 1917, senators adopted a rule (Rule 22), at the urging of President Woodrow Wilson, that allowed the Senate to end a debate with a two-thirds majority vote, a device known as cloture. The new Senate rule was first put to the test in 1919, when the Senate invoked cloture to end a filibuster against the Treaty of Versailles. Even with the new cloture rule, filibusters remained an effective means to block legislation, since a two-thirds vote is difficult to obtain. Over the next five decades, the Senate occasionally tried to invoke cloture, but usually failed to gain the necessary two-thirds vote. Filibusters were particularly useful to Southern senators who sought to block civil rights legislation, including anti-lynching legislation, until cloture was invoked after a 60 day filibuster against the Civil Right Act of 1964. In 1975, the Senate reduced the number of votes required for cloture from two-thirds to three-fifths, or 60 of the current one hundred senators (Gill, 2014).

Many Americans are familiar with the filibuster conducted by Jimmy Stewart, playing Senator Jefferson Smith in Frank Capra's film Mr. Smith Goes to Washington, but there have been some famous filibusters in the real-life Senate as well. During the 1930s, Senator Huey P. Long effectively used the filibuster against bills that he thought favored the rich over the poor. The Louisiana senator frustrated his colleagues while entertaining spectators with his recitations of Shakespeare and his reading of recipes for pot-likkers. Long once held the Senate floor for 15 hours. The record for the longest individual speech goes to South Carolina's J. Strom Thurmond who filibustered for 24 hours and 18 minutes against the Civil Rights Act of 1957 (Gill, 2014).
Objections to the Passing of H.R. 1466 & S. 997 Social Work Reinvestment Act

**Frivolous Legislation**

While elections are essential to a democracy, it is commonly believed that the desire to secure re-election causes legislators to engage in many undesirable activities. In this note, by comparing the behavior of U.S. representatives who have chosen to run for reelection with those representatives who have decided not to do so, evidence of the precise activities induced by electoral concerns was found. The researchers found that elections cause members to go back to the district more often, to employ more staff assistants, to attend to roll-call voting more fastidiously, and to be more legislatively active. While these activities are no doubt consistent with the wishes of most constituents; the desire for reelection also encourages members to introduce what is apparently frivolous legislation on topics of little familiarity to the member (Herrick, Moore, & Hibbing, 1994).

Those members who are not running for reelection, on the other hand, are more likely to have a successful and tightly focused legislative agenda. According to Schlesinger, the desire for election and, more important, for re-election becomes the electorate's restraint upon its public officials. In this traditional view, the desire for reelection keeps politicians from running off in dangerous directions and it forces politicians to be accountable (Herrick, Moore, & Hibbing, 1994).

**Pork Barrel Funding**

Pork Barrel Funding is defined as appropriations of public funds by Congress (or other legislative assemblies) for projects that do not serve the interests of any large
portion of the country's citizenry but are nevertheless vigorously promoted by a small
group of legislators because they will pump outside taxpayers' money and resources into
the local districts these legislators represent. Successful promotion of such pork-barrel
legislation is very likely to get the legislator re-elected by his constituents. Classic
examples of such pork-barrel legislation include Federal appropriations bills for dams,
river and harbor improvements, bridge and highway construction, and job-training
centers, as well as legislation designed to prevent closure of obsolete or unneeded
military installations, prisons, VA hospitals and the like (John, 2014).

Since the mid-1950s the impact of behavioral political science on congressional
studies was reflected primarily in a moving away from looking at formal rules and
structures and concentrating more on the way individuals actually behaved in the
legislative arena. Instead of seeking to explain legislative outcomes in strictly
rationalistic terms, researchers broadened their scope to include factors such as the
socio-political background of decision makers and the myriad patterns of in-formal
interactions among members. Congress came to be perceived as a permeable but clearly
identifiable society in itself (Ferejohn, 1977).

Anyone concerned with congressional behavior sooner or later notices that the
legislative world as depicted in the professional literature and the legislative world as
viewed firsthand often seem to bear no resemblance to one another. Activities of recent
Congresses have served to dramatize that gap. Even a short listing of changes brought
about through internal reforms and electoral results illustrates why much of the literature
on Congress is outdated. Critics of Congress have long reproached its members for
protecting their own electoral interests at the expense of the general welfare. They
putatively do so by providing their constituents with an abundance of distributive benefits at great public expense at the same time that they ignore general interest legislation (Mayhew, 1974). Often known as pork barrel policy, both the product and the process by which distributive policy is made are typically reviled in the popular literature (Evans, 1994).

From the literature on distributive policymaking, it is generally assumed that if any one member is to receive a pork barrel project, a majority must receive them. That is because the incentive for self-interested members to vote for projects other than their own is a necessity under democratic voting rules to achieve a majority vote in favor of their own projects; hence, a coalition of members must be willing to support the projects of at least 50% of the members of the legislature in addition to their own. Logrolling takes place for another purpose, one that has been neglected in the literature. Distributive benefits can be used by legislative leaders, particularly committee leaders, to build coalitions to pass legislation with a broad national policy impact (Evans, 1994).

Leaders can do so by tacking a set of targeted district benefits onto such legislation, using them as currency to purchase the votes of additional legislators for the leaders’ policy preferences, much as political action committees make campaign contributions hoping to sway members’ votes. Unlike the purely distributive case, here the purpose of including distributive benefits in legislation is not to pass other such projects but to enable leaders to achieve their own public policy goals, including general interest legislation. The strategy is successful when the distributive benefits that the leaders offer are more important to the recipients than the policy matters on which they oppose the leaders; such asymmetry of intensity is essential for logrolling. In contrast to
logrolling solely for a package of distributive benefits, such vote trading is not inconsistent with the passage of general benefit legislation; indeed, judicious distribution of pork barrel projects can enhance the prospects of such legislation (Evans, 1994).

The committee based organization of Congress ensures that committee leaders have a special role in building legislative coalitions; in doing so, they not only seek to achieve their own goals, but they must also try to help at least a bare majority of members achieve theirs. Indeed, skilled policy oriented committee leaders often seek to exploit the goals of other members in order to construct legislation in the leaders' preferred form (Arnold, 1990; Strahan, 1989). The goals pursued by members are well known: reelection, good public policy, and influence (Fenno, 1973).

**Theoretical Framework**

As social workers, both Height and Young were trained to analyze political, organizational and social processes and how to understand human beings and relate to differences. In her work, Height (2010) indicated that one must have respect for other human beings and human personalities. Height believed that people differ on particular issues but at some point human beings come together and respect each other as human beings. From that point, people can move forward. Height further suggested that removing the personal issues is crucial in order to get anything done (Height D. I., 2010).

According to Congressman John Lewis (GA), Whitney M. Young emerged as the peacemaker of the civil rights’ leaders and credited Young’s social work training, his listening abilities and ability to understand where others were coming from. Young avoided being judgmental and built bridges in relationships (Weiss, 1989). Congressman
Lewis often described Young as a “swing person” who gave direction to the combined efforts of the civil rights leaders. Dr. Height once spoke about Young’s ability to recognize the interdependence of different approaches and the values of different styles.

The theoretical foundation that guided this study is The Human Needs Theory of Motivation, The Theory of Congressional Organization, The Policy Analysis Theory, The Social Learning Theory and The Afrocentric Paradigm. It is the assumption of the researcher that voting on the passing of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr., Social Work Reinvestment Act by the 113th Congress depends on whether the congressional member is a member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus, the party affiliation, is familiar with Dorothy I. Height or familiar with Whitney M. Young, Jr.

In the work of Maslow, human beings need particular things to survive and to realize their potentials. Most concepts of human potential and social policy relate to the satisfaction of human needs (Iatridis, 1994). In social work this is known as addressing the needs of people and their environments. The need is to assist people in functioning in the status quo but also work to ameliorate the structural and systemic challenges faced (Goode, Lewis, & Trulear, 2011). The human needs theory of motivation in this dissertation is valuable because it outlines the inadequacies of social conditions among individuals that may motivate congressional politicians to establish policies for social workers to address these needs. In this study, legislators will be presented with information in correspondence that will seek to motivate and influence behaviors to pass the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act.

Research suggests that congressional scholars have offered explanations for patterns of committee assignment for centuries. The research noted that committee
assignments were handed out on the basis of sectional and state interests, ability and partisan concerns (Canon & Sweet, 1998). In the Theory of Congressional Organization, political parties, personal policy interests, member reelectoral goals and prestigious power in Congress serve as the driving forces behind the composition of committees (Canon & Sweet, 1998). The Theories of Congressional Organization was identified to suggest some of the factors that resulted in the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act being referred to the Higher Education and the Workforce Congressional Committee for review.

With savvy and political skills, both Height and Young advised presidential administrations on racial, social, gender roles and urban issues. The Policy Analysis Theory provides decision makers with important information on how policies work in social work practice and their effects on economic, environmental, social and other factors. Jansson’s (1994) work indicated that American society suffers from social problems, such as homelessness, family abuse, substance abuse, mental illness, and physical illness. These problems have defied resolution, despite legions of politicians’ self-determined efforts. These problems have critical implications for the kinds of policies that are proposed and enacted in legislative arenas (Jansson, 1994). The Policy Analysis Theory supported the need for objective reasoning related to society’s current social problems, issues and conditions among social workers and the need for passing the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act.

Height (2010) believed that people need to stay in the dialogue with each other and make sure all voices are heard. From listening and learning about one another, one recognizes on a fundamental scale how the elements that impact lives are inter-related.
The Social Learning Theory represents behavior as evolving through its interactions with the environment which can provide a source of stimuli to which the individual respond and elicit behaviors in predictable ways (Pillari, 2002). In this dissertation research, the Social Learning Theory was employed to stimulate the cognitive and behavioral functioning of the 113th Congressional members through research that focused on changing the thought reinforcers that resulted in the current status of the passing of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act.

The Afrocentric paradigm can be employed as a foundation for an Afrocentric policy framework to examine and evaluate various social welfare policies. By employing the Afrocentric viewpoint, the underlying cultural attributes of society are assumed to be the springboard from which political and economic institutions emerge, albeit a dynamic relationship is acknowledged. An Afrocentric critique of American social welfare philosophy views the political labels of conservative, moderate, liberal and radical political themes and ideologies (Schiele, 2000).

Within the Afrocentric paradigm, all social and human phenomena are potential topics of study, and no one is barred from using the Afrocentric paradigm of social work research. Using the Afrocentric Perspective, social workers can attack political and economic oppression by advocating for social policies for people and by maximizing social work professional abilities at the national, state and local levels (Schiele, 2000).
CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

Chapter III presents the methods and procedures that were used in conducting the study. The following are described in this chapter: research design; description of the site; sample and population; instrumentation; treatment of data, and limitations of the study.

Research Design

Both descriptive and exploratory research designs were employed in this study. The study was designed to obtain data in order to describe and explain the status and objections to the passing of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young Jr., Social Work Reinvestment Act by the 113th Congress.

This descriptive and explanatory research designs allowed for the descriptive analysis of the respondents such as voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission, the party affiliation, years of congressional service, and membership in the Congressional Social Work Caucus. The study also allowed for the descriptive analysis of the respondents in favor of voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and respondents' familiarity with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height and familiarity with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr. This research design facilitated an explanation of the statistical relationship between the factors that contribute
to the status and the objection to the passing of Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young Jr., Social Work Reinvestment Act by the 113th Congress.

Description of the Site

This study was conducted in the congressional office buildings in Washington, DC or the state office buildings of the congressional member. The survey was administered through electronic media via email at the sites of the congressional member or legislative director, legislative assistant or chief of staff.

Population

The target population for this study was composed of the 541 members of the 113th Congress from the House of Representatives and the Senate. During telephone consultations with the office of Congressman Saxby Chambliss from the Senate on the process of emailing the Congressional members, it was reported to the researcher that due to the high level of digital security and the protection of the 113th Congress, direct email addresses of the Member cannot be provided to the public. In telephone consultation with Jarett McKinley, Outreach Coordinator for Congressman John Lewis it was reported that each Congressional Member has a Legislative Director or Chief of Staff that informs the Congressional Members on policy positions and legislative initiatives. The Legislative Director carries out the Congressional Member’s legislative goals, formulate positions on legislative issues, oversee the progression of bills with which the Members are involved as they move to the Committee to the floor, assist in managing the congressional offices, coordinate response to all legislative emails, mail and recommend co-sponsorships of legislation to the Member (Jarett, 2014).
Additionally, it was further disclosed that the 113th Congress was facing a congressional recess in October to prepare for midterm elections in November. Both office staff reported that the Legislative Directors can assist the researcher with this study. The recess began Thursday, September 18, 2014 and emails were electronically sent to the Legislative Directors of the Congressional Member. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Clark Atlanta University approved the collecting of data from Congressional Members and locations for this study.

Sample

For this research, three hundred and eight (308) of the five hundred and forty one (541) Congressional Members were selected to participate in the study. Utilizing the “Directory of the 112th Congress” (Union, 2011) and Members of 113th Congress (GovTrack, 2014) one hundred (100) Congressional Members were randomly selected. Of the one hundred (100) Congressional Members randomly selected, fifty (50) were Democrats and fifty (50) were Republicans. The remaining two hundred and eight (208) were conveniently selected. Of the two hundred and eight (208), seventy (70) were members of the Congressional Social Work Caucus. Nine (9) were members of Social Workers in Congress. One hundred and twenty nine (129) were either Members of the Cabinets, held leadership roles in the House or the Senate, or was popular by name familiarity in the media or was introduced to the researcher while attending recent events held by the Congressional Research Institute for Social Work and Policy (CRISP) in Washington, DC.
Instrumentation

The research study was employed by using Qualtrics Survey Software to create an instrument entitled, SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE TO CONGRESSIONAL MEMBER Survey Questionnaire. The survey questionnaire consisted of a total of six (6) questions. Question one (1) solicited information from the Congressional Members regarding voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission. Questions two through six (2-6) solicited information on party affiliation, years of Congressional service, membership in the Congressional Social Work Caucus, familiarity with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height and, familiarity with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr.

Of the six (6) questions, several questions were selected as the independent variables for the study. The questions were concerned with the Congressional Members’ party affiliation, years of Congressional service, membership in the Congressional Social Work Caucus, familiarity with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height and, familiarity with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr. These questions provided information for the presentation of a demographic legislative profile on the Congressional Members of the research study.

Treatment of Data

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data. The analysis used descriptive statistics that included frequency distribution and cross tabulation. The test statistic for this study was Chi-Square. Frequency distribution was used to analyze and summarize each of the variables in the study. A frequency
distribution of the demographic data was used to gain insight about the Congressional Members of the study. Cross tabulations were utilized to demonstrate the statistical relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable. Cross tabulations were conducted between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and the membership in the Congressional Social Work Caucus, respondent’s party affiliation, familiarity with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height and familiarity with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr.

Limitations of Study

There were limitations of this study. The first limitation was the shutdown of many of the Congressional offices in preparation for the midterm Congressional elections. The second limitation was the office policy of Congressional Members that does not allow Congressional Members to participate in surveys. Researcher was asked to stop sending surveys to the Congressional offices by a Congressional staff. A major limitation was the limited number of Congressional Members in the participation of the study.
CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of the study in order to describe and explain the status and objection to the passing of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act (H. R. 1466 & S. 997) by the 113th Congress.

Demographic Data

This section provides a legislative demographic profile of the Congressional Members. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the following: voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission, party affiliation, years of Congressional service, member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus, familiarity with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height and familiarity with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr.

A target population for the research was composed of members of the 113th Congress or the Legislative Directors or Chief of Staff. Three hundred and eight (308) Congressional Members were selected using convenience and random sampling from among the 113th Congress.
Table 1

Voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I plan to vote yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I need more time to study before voting</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 1.60  Std. Deviation .966

Table 1 is a frequency distribution for the computed variable of voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission. As shown in Table 1, of the total 10 (100%) Congressional Members, 7 or (70%) plan to vote yes on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission. Three (3) Congressional Members or (30%) need more time to study the recommendations of the sponsors before voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission. Majority of the Congressional Members plan to vote yes on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission when it comes to the floor for a vote.
Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My Party Affiliation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Value</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republican</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democrat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 1.30  Std. Deviation .483

Table 2 is a frequency distribution for the computed variable of party affiliation of the Congressional Members. As shown in Table 2, of the total 10 (100%) Congressional Members, six (60%) were affiliated with the Democratic Party, three (30%) Congressional Members were affiliated with the Republican Party and one (10%) Congressional Member was affiliated with the Independent Party. The majority of the Congressional Members were members of the Democratic Party.
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Term</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Term</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Term</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three Terms or more</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 3.40  Std. Deviation 1.075

Table 3 is a frequency distribution for the computed variable years of Congressional Service. As shown in Table 3, of the total 10 (100%) Congressional Members, seven (70%) Congressional Members have three terms or more years of Congressional Service. One (10%) Congressional Member has first term years of Congressional Service. One (10%) Congressional Member has second term years of Congressional Service and One (10%) Congressional Member has third term years of Congressional service. The majority (70%) of the Congressional Members has three terms or more of Congressional Service.
Table 4

Are you a member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 1.30 Std. Deviation .483

Table 4 is a frequency distribution for the computed variable member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus. Table 4 shows that of the total 10 (100%) Congressional Members, seven (70%) Congressional Members were members of the Congressional Social Work Caucus. Three (30%) Congressional Members were not members of the Congressional Social Work Caucus. The majority (70%) of the Congressional Members were members of the Congressional Social Work Caucus.
Table 5

I am familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 1.20  Std. Deviation .422

Table 5 is a frequency distribution for the computed variable familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height. Table 5 shows that of the total 10 (100%) Congressional Members, eight (80%) were familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height and two (20%) Congressional Members were not familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height. The majority (80%) of the Congressional Members were familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height.
Table 6

I am familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 1.20  Std. Deviation .422

Table 6 is a frequency distribution for the computed variable familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr. Table 6 shows that of the total 10 (100%) Congressional Members, eight (80%) Congressional Members were familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr., and two (20%) Congressional Members were not familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr. The majority (80%) Congressional Members were familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This section provides an analysis of the research questions and testing of the null hypothesis. There were four questions and four null hypotheses in the study. Tables 7–10 will reflect the findings of the hypotheses.
Research Question 1: Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the 113th Congressional Members and being a member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus?

Hypothesis 1: There is no statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the 113th Congressional Members and being a member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus.

Table 7 is a Crosstabulation of Congressional Social Work Caucus Member by voting on establishing Social Work Reinvestment Commission. It shows the association of voting on establishing Social Work Reinvestment Commission with The Congressional Social Work Caucus and indicates whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.
Table 7

Congressional Social Work Caucus Member by Voting on Establishing Social Work Reinvestment Commission: Crosstabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Congressional Social Work Caucus Member</th>
<th>Plan to vote yes</th>
<th>Need more time</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

df = 1 \quad p = .098

As indicated in Table 7, a total of 10 (100%) Congressional Members voted on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission. Of the 10 (100%), a total of 7 (70%) were members of the Congressional Social Work Caucus. Table 7 shows that of the total 7 (70%) Congressional Social Work Caucus Members, 6 (60%) plan to vote yes on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission when it comes to the floor for a vote and one (10%) needs more time to study the recommendations of the sponsors. A total of 3 (30%) Congressional Social Work Caucus Members plans to vote no on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission when it comes to the floor for a vote. Of the 3 (30%) who plans to vote no, one (10%) of the Congressional Social Work Caucus Member indicated they would vote no and two (20%) needed more time.
In summary, 7 (70%) of the Congressional Social Work Caucus Members voted yes and three (30%) plan to vote no on establishing Social Work Reinvestment Commission. Chi-Square statistical test for significance was applied and the null hypothesis was not rejected \( p = .098 \) indicating a statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability.

Research Question 2: Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the 113th Congress and party affiliation of the Members of Congress?

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the 113th Congress and party affiliation of the Members of Congress.

Table 8 is a Crosstabulation of party affiliation by voting on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission. It shows the association of voting on establishing Social Work Reinvestment Commission with party affiliation and indicates whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

As indicated in Table 8, 10 (100%) Congressional Members voted on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission. Of the 10 (100%), Congressional Members, three (30%) were members of the Republican Party and plan to vote on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission. Of the three (30%) Republicans, two (20%) plan to vote yes when it comes to the floor for a vote and one (10%) needs more time to study the recommendations of the sponsors. Six (60%) were members of the Democratic
Party. Of the six (60%) Democrats, five (50%) plan to vote yes when it comes to the floor for a vote and one (10%) needs more time to study the recommendations of the sponsors. A total of one (10%) was a member of the Independent Party and does not plan to vote yes when it comes to the floor for a vote and need more time to study the recommendations from the sponsors.

In summary, of the 10 (100%) Congressional Members that voted on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission, seven (70%) were affiliated with a party and plans to vote yes on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission, and three (30%) need more time. Chi-Square statistical test for significance was applied and the null hypothesis was not rejected (p=.240) indicating a statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability.

Table 8

Crosstabulation: My Party Affiliation by Voting on Establishing Social Work Reinvestment Commission

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My Party Affiliation</th>
<th>Plan to vote yes</th>
<th>Need more time</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republican</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democrat</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ df = 2 \quad p = .240 \]
Research Question 3: Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and being familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height by the 113th Congressional Members?

Hypothesis 3: There is no statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and being familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height by the 113th Congressional Members.

Table 9 is a Crosstabulation of Social Work Reinvestment Caucus Members familiar with Dorothy I. Height by voting on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission. It shows the association of voting on establishing Social Work Reinvestment Commission with familiar with Dorothy I. Height by Congressional Social Work Caucus Members and indicates whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the variables.

Table 9 shows that of the total eight (80%) of the Congressional Social Work Caucus Members familiar with Dorothy I. Height, seven (70%) plan to vote yes on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission and one (10%) needs more time to study the recommendations of the sponsors. Although none (0%) of the Congressional Social Work Caucus Members plan to vote no, two (20%) need more time to study the recommendations of the sponsors. In summary, seven (70%) of the Congressional Social Work Caucus familiar with Dorothy I. Height by voting on establishing the Work Reinvestment Commission plan to vote yes with the vote comes to the floor and three
(30%) need more time to study the recommendations from the sponsors. Chi-Square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was not rejected (p=.016) indicating a statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability.

Table 9
Familiar with Dorothy I. Height by Voting on Establishing Social Work Reinvestment Commission: Crosstabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Congressional Social Work Caucus Member</th>
<th>Plan to vote yes #</th>
<th>Plan to vote yes %</th>
<th>Need more time #</th>
<th>Need more time %</th>
<th>Total #</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7 70.0</td>
<td>1 10.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
<td>2 20.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7 70.0</td>
<td>3 30.0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

df = 1  
\[ p = .016 \]

Research Question 4: Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and being familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr., by the 113th Congressional Members?
Hypothesis 4: There is no statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and being familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr., by the 113th Congressional members.

Table 10 is a Crosstabulation of Social Work Reinvestment Caucus Members familiar with Whitney M. Young, Jr. by voting on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission. It shows the association of voting on establishing Social Work Reinvestment Commission with familiar with Whitney M. Young, Jr., by Congressional Social Work Caucus Members and indicates whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the variables.

Table 10

Familiar with Whitney M. Young, Jr. by Voting on Establishing Social Work Reinvestment Commission: Crosstabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Plan to vote yes</th>
<th>Need more time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congressional Social Work Caucus Member</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

df = 1  \quad p = .016
Table 10 shows that of the total eight (80%) of the Congressional Social Work Caucus Members familiar with Whitney M. Young, Jr., seven (70%) plan to vote yes on establishing a Social Work Reinvestment Commission and one (10%) needs more time to study the recommendations of the sponsors. Although none (0%) of the Congressional Social Work Caucus Members plan to vote no, two (20%) need more time to study the recommendations of the sponsors. In summary, seven (70%) of the Congressional Social Work Caucus familiar with Whitney M. Young, Jr., by voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission plan to vote yes with the vote comes to the floor and three (30%) need more time to study the recommendations from the sponsors. Chi-Square statistical test for significance was applied and the null hypothesis was not rejected (p=.016) indicating a statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability.
CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The research study was designed to answer the four questions related to the passing of the Dorothy I. Height & Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act (H.R. 1466 & S. 997) by the 113th Congress. The Dorothy I. Height & Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act (H.R. 1466 & S. 997) directs the Secretary of Health and Human (HHS) to establish the Social Work Reinvestment Commission to provide independent counsel to Congress on policy issues associated with the recruitment for and retention research, reinvestment in the profession of social work. The majority of the Congressional members represented in this study were located in Washington, DC.

The conclusions and recommendations of the research findings are presented in this chapter. Recommendations are proposed for future research for policy makers, social workers, administrators, educators and practitioners. Each research question is presented to summarize the significant of interest.

Research Question 1: Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the 113th Congressional Members and being a member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus?
In order to determine the status and objections to the passing of the Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr., by the 113th Congressional Members, four research questions were analyzed.

Of the ten (10%) Congressional Members surveyed, a majority (70%) of the Congressional Members plan to vote yes on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission. The majority (70%) of the Congressional Members were members of the Congressional Social Work Caucus. When cross tabulated with the Congressional Caucus Member by voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission, a minority or three (30%) were not members of the Congressional Social Work Caucus and three (30%) or minority plan to vote no on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission (See Table 7).

When the chi-squared statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was not rejected ($p = .098$) indicating that there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability (See Table 7).

Research Question 2: Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the 113th Congress and party affiliation of the Members of Congress?

The majority or sixty percent (60%) of the Congressional Members were affiliated with the Democratic Party. A slight minority (30%) indicated they were members of the Republican Party. When cross tabulated with the party affiliation by voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission, five (50%) or the
majority affiliated with the Democratic Party plan to vote yes when it comes to the floor. (See Table 8).

When the chi-squared statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was not rejected \((p = .240)\) indicating that there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability (See Table 8).

Research Question 3: Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and being familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height by the 113th Congressional Members?

The majority (80%) of the Congressional Members were familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height. A slight minority (20%) was not familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height. When cross tabulated with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height by voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission, the majority (70%) of the Congressional Members were familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height. Majority (70%) of the Congressional Members were members of the Congressional Social Work Caucus and majority (70%) plan to vote yes on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission (See Table 9).

When the chi-squared statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was not rejected \((p = .016)\) indicating that there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability (See Table 9).
Research Question 4: Is there a statistically significant relationship between voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission and being familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr., by the 113th Congressional members.

The majority (80%) of the Congressional Members were familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr. A slight minority (20%) was not familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr. When cross tabulated with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr., by voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission, the majority (70%) of the Congressional Members were familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr. Majority (70%) of the Congressional Members were members of the Congressional Social Work Caucus and majority (70%) plan to vote yes on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission (See Table 10).

When the chi-squared statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was not rejected ($p=.016$) indicating that there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables at the .05 level of probability (See Table 10).

Recommendations

As research shows, social workers Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr., were trained to analyze political organizations, social processes and to understand human beings and relate to differences. Height and Young advised presidential leaders on the
professional activity of helping persons, organizations and societies develop, enhance or restore the capacity for functioning in favorable societal conditions.

As a result of the findings, the researcher is recommending the following:

1. Social work policy research and social work education should include the life and history of Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. as social work pioneers who advocated for justice and changes in societies through legislative processes.

2. Social workers should continue to stimulate the thoughts and behaviors of the Members of Congress with important information on the current status of the social work profession and its effects on the economy, environment and society.

3. Social workers should dialogue with the Members of the Congressional Social Work Caucus and the Social Workers in Congress who are Members of the Committee on Health, Education, Labor and Pensions and the Subcommittee on Higher Education and Workforce Training in order to solicit the attention of the majority of the majority to bring this legislation to the House floor for a vote that will establish the Social Work Reinvestment Commission.

4. The Whitney M. Young, Jr., School of Social Work at Clark Atlanta University serves as one of the schools of social work appointed by The Secretary of Health and Human Services on policy issues associated with recruitment for, and retention, research, and reinvestment in the profession of social work.
5. Social workers continue to advise presidential leaders and administration just as Dorothy I. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. did on the roles of social work.
APPENDIX A

LETTER TO CONGRESSIONAL MEMBERS

Greetings,

I am a doctoral student at the Whitney M. Young, Jr., School of Social Work at Clark Atlanta University. I invite you to participate in a research study on the establishing of a Social Work Reinvestment Commission by the Congress of the United States of America. Please facilitate the completion of the attached survey. The results of the survey will be used for the statistical calculation of my dissertation. I would appreciate your immediate attention to this matter. It will take less than five (5) minutes. Please complete and forward the email results to icrocker-billingsley@cau.edu.

Thank you very much for your help.

Follow this link to the Survey:
Take the Survey
Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:

https://cau.co1.qualtrics.com/WRQualtricsSurveyEngine/?Q_SS=1G22gCnPjzvixiJ_3DxNtmmoFFWeinr&_=1

Follow the link to opt out of future emails:
Click here to unsubscribe
APPENDIX B

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE TO CONGRESSIONAL MEMBER

Survey Questionnaire

Members of the Senate and House of Representatives proposed a Bill to be enacted by the Senate (S.997) and House of Representatives (H.R.1466) of the United States of America in Congress assembled to establish the Social Work Reinvestment Commission to provide independent counsel to Congress and the Secretary of Health and Human Services on policy issues associated with recruitment, retention, research, and reinvestment in the profession of social work, and for other purposes. The sponsors have selected a short title that may be cited as the “Dorothy L. Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act”.

Instructions: Select one of the following positions that you may take on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Social Work Reinvestment Commission.

1. Voting on establishing the Social Work Reinvestment Commission

   ______ 1. I plan to vote yes when it comes to the floor for a vote.
   ______ 2. I plan to vote no when it comes to the floor for a vote.
   ______ 3. I need more time to study the recommendations of the sponsors.

Instructions: Place a mark (x) next to the appropriate item. Choose only one answer for each.

2. My Party Affiliation

   ______ 1. Republican
   ______ 2. Democrat
   ______ 3. Independent

3. My Years of Congressional Service

   ______ 1. First Term
   ______ 2. Second Term
   ______ 3. Third Term
   ______ 4. More three terms
4. Are you a member of the Congressional Social Work Caucus?

   _____ 1. Yes
   _____ 2. No

5. I am familiar with the life and history of Dorothy I. Height.

   _____ 1. Yes
   _____ 2. No

6. I am familiar with the life and history of Whitney M. Young, Jr.

   _____ 1. Yes
   _____ 2. No

Thank you very much for your cooperation.
APPENDIX C

IRB APPROVAL LETTER

CLARK ATLANTA UNIVERSITY
Institutional Review Board
Office of Sponsored Programs

March 27, 2014

Ms. Judith D. Crocker Billingsley, <chaka.crocker@gmail.com>
School of Social Work
Clark Atlanta University
Atlanta, GA 30314

RE: A Study of The Status and Objection To The Passing of The Dorothy Height and Whitney M. Young, Jr. Social Work Reinvestment Act (H.R. 1466 & S. 997) By The 113th Congress.

Principal Investigator(s): Judith Crocker Billingsley
Human Subjects Code Number: HR2014-3-508-1

Dear Ms. Billingsley:

The Human Subjects Committee of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed your protocol and approved of it as exempt in accordance with 45 CFR 46.101(b)(3).

Your Protocol Extended Approval Code is HR2014-3-508-1/A

This permit will expire on March 26, 2015. Thereafter, continued approval is contingent upon the annual submission of a renewal form to this office. The CAU IRB acknowledges your timely completion of the CITI IRB Training in Protection of Human Subjects – “Social and Behavioral Sciences Track”. Your certification is valid for two years.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Georgianna Bolden at the Office of Sponsored Programs (404) 880-6979 or Dr. Paul I. Musey, (404) 880-6829.

Sincerely:

[Signature]

Paul I. Musey, Ph.D.
Chair
IRB: Human Subjects Committee

cc. Office of Sponsored Programs, “Dr. Georgianna Bolden” <gbolden@cau.edu>
223 James P. Brawley Drive, S.W. * ATLANTA, GA 30314-4391 * (404) 880-8000

formed in 1868 by consolidation of Atlanta University, 1865 and Clark College, 1869
REFERENCES


GovTrack. (2014, November 12). *Members of Congress*. Retrieved from operations@govtrack.us: operations@govtrack.us


http://www.auburn.edu/~johnspm/gloss/pork-barrel_legislation


Washington, DC, USA.


