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A study of the relationship between traditional and nontraditional social work in The State of Georgia

Teresa Grear
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ABSTRACT

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

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A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRADITIONAL AND
NONTRADITIONAL SOCIAL WORK IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA

Advisor: Richard Lyle, Ph.D.

Dissertation dated December 2006

This study examined the relationship among social workers who were engaged in
traditional social work practice and non-traditional social work practice. One hundred
and forty two (142) survey participants were selected for the study utilizing non-
probability convenience sampling. The survey participants were composed of members
of the Georgia Chapter of National Association of Social Workers who were either
currently working or retired from the field of social work. The survey questionnaire was
developed for the purpose of exclusive use of this study and employed the four point
Likert Scale. The findings of the study revealed that regardless of the practice settings
social workers showed little distinction in their adherence to social work mission, values,
foundational knowledge and use of social work skill sets. The findings also indicated
that social workers were accepting (85.8%) of non-traditional social work settings despite
65.7% of participants identifying themselves as traditional social workers in the study.
A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
TRADITIONAL SOCIAL WORK AND NON-TRADITIONAL
SOCIAL WORK IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA

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

BY
TERESA GREAR

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

ATLANTA, GEORGIA
DECEMBER 2006
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Social work has many missions. The primary mission of the social work profession is to enhance human well-being and help meet the basic human needs of all people. A historic and defining feature of social work is the profession's focus on the well-being of society and on the individual's well-being in a social context. This defining feature is specially related to the needs and empowerment of people who are vulnerable, oppressed, and living in poverty. Social workers not only seek to enhance the capacity of people to address their own needs but also seek to promote the responsiveness of organizations, communities, and other social institutions. The institutions must address individual needs and societal problems such as discrimination, oppression, poverty, and other forms of social injustice (National Association of Social Workers, 1999).

Popular views of social work derived from its Victorian past are: (1) a service only for the poor and disreputable; (2) a service that should achieve objectives by eradicating individual weaknesses; and (3) a service that should be provided in the most unattractive way, thereby discouraging people should overuse or dependency upon them. Furthermore, Victorian perception implies that social work services should be controlled by politicians and professional administrators who are considered modern day overseers of the poor (Specht & Courtney, 1994). Unfortunately, in many traditional settings, these
views of the profession hold true. However, as society has changed, social work has adapted to meet the changing needs of its clients and the perception of service providers have changed as well. Some providers have evolved to a different category of social work known as non-traditional social work. Before differentiating between traditional and non-traditional social work, the skills common to both paradigms and the necessity of a paradigm shift shall be briefly considered.

It is unrealistic to expect that a single practice approach could adequately support social work practice in diverse settings. Rather, the social worker must have a comprehensive repertoire of knowledge and techniques that can be used to meet the unique needs of clients (Morales & Sheafor, 2002).

Social workers have always had a strong interest in interdisciplinary teamwork. Trained for a practice that is bifocal, social workers have acquired knowledge about human behavior and social institutions. They cooperate and collaborate with all those who contribute to the resolve of individual and societal problems (Dhooper, 1994). Social workers are a profession of organizers and planners aware of the professional and organizational barriers to interdisciplinary teamwork and are equipped with approaches to bring about resolution such as knowledge of: systems theory, small group theory, communication and tension reduction skills (BeVilacqua, 1988). They are also well versed in the basic problem solving approach, which is applicable to the collaborative process as well (Dhooper, 1994).

According to Specht and Courtney (1994) it can be argued that there is room within the capitalistic and individualistic nature of social, economic and political systems in America to transport social work's mission, knowledge, skills and noble history into
non-traditional settings. The sociopolitical and economic environments at any given time influence the goals, priorities, targets of intervention, technologies, and methodologies of the social work profession. At the same time, the mission of the profession, the motivations and characteristics of the social work labor force and changes in methodology and technology also serve to expand or contract the roles social workers play (Gibelman, 1995).

Furthermore, this can be done utilizing the traditional generalist and advanced generalist social work practice perspective. Generalist practice serves diverse client systems utilizing an ecological systems approach focusing on persons, families, groups, organizations and communities within the context of the social environment (Stephen F. Austin State University School of Social Work, 2005).

While generalist practice employs a problem solving framework and a broad knowledge, value and skill base which demands ethical practice and on-going self-assessment, advanced generalist practice builds on the generalist foundation, incorporating the elements listed above, but characterized by a greater depth, breadth, and autonomy. This is demonstrated through specialized knowledge across problem areas, populations at risk and practice settings, with a greater selection of diverse interactions across practice levels (Stephen F. Austin State University School of Social Work, 2005).

**Traditional and Non-traditional Social Work**

While acknowledging the growing role of non-traditional social work, Courtney and Specht (1994) have also remained emphatic advocates of social problem resolution
on the community level as traditionally addressed by the social worker. Critics such as Ryan, et al. (2000) support a universal, comprehensive community based system of social services presented as innovative and available to everyone. In the opinion of these authors, this would reflect a return of social workers to the communal roots of their profession.

Traditionally, the perception has been that the profession of social work is not a profession for someone who seeks or expects financial gain for helping others. Social workers have been guilty of this assumption as well. Nevertheless, becoming a professional social worker requires just as much preparation as those occupations which demand high salaries (Gold, 1994; Kosberg, 1999). Whereas the history of social work has humble beginnings of working with the poor and less fortunate, non-traditional social workers have expanded the notion of social work and have been able to transfer social work skills into other areas and increase the value and worth of the profession with the reflecting changes of society.

Organizations needing multi-skilled people and flexible project teams require people with an array of personal transferable skills who can manage themselves, work effectively with colleagues and consumers, think creatively and take responsibility. Transferable skills identified by employers support organizational performance. These transferable skills constitute a core skill set including interpersonal, communication, and self-management skills (SHL, 2000).

Given that social work is no longer just for the poor, the creation of non-traditional social work practice has evolved. Furthermore, Specht and Courtney (1994) argue that a program of social services for a modern community must break away
dramatically from traditional patterns for providing services. High quality social services can contribute significantly to enriching the lives of all. Non-traditional social work encompasses social work entrepreneurship and neo-traditional social work practice settings. For example, the privatization of governmental services has led to new entrepreneurial roles. This has further increased opportunities in social services for the private sector through the contracting out of governmental and community services (Abramovitz, 1986).

Examination of traditional social work practice and practice settings has allowed for the conscious revival and incorporation of new characteristics and new emphases. Social work practice and practice settings have now been categorized as non-traditional and neo-traditional social work. “Neo-[traditional social work] connotes an intrinsic element of reformulation [of traditional social work] of which continuity with the older form is asserted as an essential part of the new one” (Wikipedia, 2007, p.1). For example, the historical involvement in the political arena now demands social work attention to the global impact on local social and economic issues affecting clients. The practice setting is traditional but the focus is now expanded to include the neo-traditional concerns.

Social Work as a Profession

A review of the literature revealed that there was no clear consistent definition of the term profession although many attempts have been made to develop frameworks for describing the attributes of a profession (Johnson, 1998). Barker (1987) defines the social work profession as a system of values, skills, techniques, knowledge, and beliefs a
group holds in common and uses to meet specific social needs. The public identifies the
group as suitable to fulfill the specific needs and gives it credence through licensing or
other sanctions as the legitimate source for providing the relevant service. The public,
then, becomes the client.

The term client is used inclusively to refer to individuals, families, groups,
organizations, and communities. Social workers are sensitive to cultural and ethnic
diversity and strive to end societal ills that are the basis of social injustice. These
activities may be in the form of direct practice, community organizing, supervision,
consultation, administration, advocacy, social and political action, policy development
and implementation, education, and research and evaluation (National Association of
Social Workers, 1999).

**Social Work History**

Social work, which began in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, is a
fairly new profession, although its roots are firmly planted in the Judeo-Christian heritage
(Dubois, 1999). In the field of social work knowing the history of the profession is
essential to understanding its past, present, and future. Most social work historians
would agree that the watershed year for social welfare was 1601, when the English poor
laws were codified or brought together under one law. This codification is commonly
called the Elizabethan Poor Laws of 1601. Colonial America adopted the central tenets
of this law, and many of its principles continue to underpin the design and
implementation of current social services (Colby & Dziegielewski, 2004).
From the development of Charity Organization Societies and Settlement Houses in the early 19th century; crafting of policy and programs in the 1940s; political and social activisms in the 1960s; to the recognition of the interrelatedness of local, national and international social concerns in the mid 1990s social workers continue to create an array of evolving opportunities to address social needs. This is done at the micro, mezzo and macro levels of practice.

Social Work Credentialing

The development of traditional and non-traditional social work revealed the need for standardized credentials within the profession. At one time, only the master’s degree from an accredited school of social work was considered legitimate social work preparation. The Master of Social Work (MSW) degree still is considered the terminal practice degree in social work, but other professional practice levels are now recognized as well (Morales & Sheafor, 2002).

Social Work as a Career Trend

People looking for a career with meaning, action, diversity, satisfaction, and an abundance of options are often drawn to social work. Social workers are highly trained professionals infusing empathy and compassion into their work with those in need of their services. There are over a half million professional social workers in the United States who have all committed their lives to making a difference (National Association of Social Workers, 2005).

A 1998 U.S. News and World Report story identified social work as one of the 20 hot job trends with growing opportunities (Colby & Dziegielewski, 2004). Social work
was projected to be among the fastest growing professions with lower unemployment and steady pay according to the U.S. Department of Labor’s (2003) employment projections through the year 2010. The Bureau of Labor Statistics also projected that the 585,000 social workers in the labor force in 1996 would increase by 188,000 (32%) by the year of 2006. By contrast, an increase for psychologists and lawyers are only projected to be about 8% and 19% respectively during this same time period (Melchiono & Steinman, 1998).

A National Association of Social Workers (NASW) survey offered detailed information on salaries and job placement. In 1999 the median salary for full-time Master’s Level Social Workers (MSW) was almost $46,000. Half of these salaries were in the $30,000 to $50,000 range. Eight percent of MSW social workers made $80,000 or more, and about 8% made less than $30,000 (Popple & Leighninger, 2000). Salary holds significant meaning in this society in terms of the value and worth assigned to professions and to the holders of professional positions (Gibelman, 2003).

Statement of the Problem

Heretofore, social work as a caring profession has not given very much care and attention to the problems of professional social workers in the workplace. Social workers are expected to promote the well-being of the client; however, the well-being of the social worker is mostly ignored (Hasenfeld, 1999).

With increased emphasis on professionalism and credentialing within the profession, social workers should not be criticized for their efforts to attain professional standing. Acceptance of social work as a profession is a basis for achieving the respect
and authority necessary to effectively meet its obligations to clients. According to Haynes (2001) there is concern that the drive toward professionalism parallels the profession’s weakening concern with social reform.

According to Brown (1990) the profession must begin to address the perceived dichotomy between traditional social work values and the economic focus of entrepreneurial enterprises. Lacking a formal process for social workers to engage in entrepreneurship, there exists no way of understanding its’ impact on social work practice. Thus ambitious social work entrepreneurs engage in their ventures with little or no guidance.

Some social workers may believe that the profession is driven by business demands as opposed to professional ethics. This perceived incongruence between creating an effective business and maintaining professional ethics is an obstacle for entrepreneurship in social work (Perlmutter & Adams, 1994). Social workers are often taught that they should forgo dreams of financial rewards to meet the needs of clients (Gold, 1994) but an entrepreneurial orientation is not incongruent with social work values or principles (Kosberg, 1999). This perception is a significant barrier and provides an important point for clarification. By encouraging social workers to become entrepreneurial it does not imply encouragement of unethical behavior. Training social workers to view themselves as producers of non-traditional and entrepreneurial programs may empower them to stop allowing other professions to dictate the tone of human services practice (Bent-Goodley, 2002).

Fisher & Karger (1997) noted that this is a very important and challenging time to be studying and practicing social work. The world is in a dramatic state of transition,
responding to changes rooted in the global economy, new communication technologies, and a worldwide reactionary political climate. New contexts always produce new openings for social change. For social workers to make the most of the opportunities offered by this contemporary transition, they must understand the nature and causes of the new conditions resulting in social change.

Non-traditional social work may allow social workers to make a difference in communities, to improve public perception of the social work profession, and to enhance personal and professional development. While non-traditional social work practice is not for every social worker, it does provide a unique opportunity for the social work profession to reinvent itself (Bent-Goodley, 2002).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to analyze traditional and non-traditional careers of social workers in order to describe and explain the perceptions social workers have about the skills needed for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings. This study proposed to do so within the context of the historical mission and use of core social work principles as the unifying basis for practice. A new paradigmatic approach placing social work on an equilibrium continuum ranging from traditional to neo-traditional, non-traditional and entrepreneurial practice settings was proposed.

Research Questions

The research questions of the study were as follows:

1. What is the relationship between the requisite skills of traditional social workers and non-traditional social workers?
2. What is the relationship between the foundational knowledge of traditional and non-traditional social workers?

3. Is there a perceived difference between the fundamental social work values of social workers in traditional social work settings and social workers in non-traditional social work settings?

4. Is there a perceived difference between the mission of social workers in traditional social work settings and social workers in non-traditional social work settings?

Hypotheses

1. There is no statistical significant relationship between the foundational knowledge of traditional social workers and non-traditional social workers.

2. There is no statistical significant relationship between the requisite skills of traditional social workers and non-traditional social workers.

3. There is no statistical significant difference between the values by social workers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings.

4. There is no statistical significant difference between the mission of social work by social workers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings.

Significance of the Study

Virtually all professions include specialties within their professional training and practice. Social work is equally complex and broad. As the profession has evolved, the definitions of the profession and its practice have been subject to periodic debate, re-examination, and change. As a profession that interrelates with and seeks to influence
the larger socio-economic and political environment, it is not surprising that the
definition of social work is dynamic, rather than rigid and static (Gibelman & Schervish, 1997). Social work has never really maintained status quo. If it had done so, it would not exist as a profession today. It continues to exist because of its responsiveness to the needs of individuals and society. Social work practice will continue to change in its definition of what constitutes social work practice and respond to chronic social problems differently in the future (Allen-Meares & deRoos, 1997).

It is this dynamism that has drawn people to the field of social work. In fact, social work services have exploded in recent years in varied settings addressing the plethora of social problems and issues (Wittenberg, 2003). These issues include poverty, hunger, population control, immigration, and work and family challenges and reveal the circularity of the profession as defined and practiced. As social work emerged as a new profession the issues addressed and interventions developed were considered innovative but gradually became the standard of traditional practice. Thus the emergence of new opportunities for social work practice will set the ground work for becoming the new standard for traditional practice.

The significance of this study was its attempt to utilize historical practice antecedents and the mission of social work as a heuristic device for examining an emerging social work practice paradigm for social workers wanting to pursue opportunities to: (1) expand into non-traditional settings; (2) extend traditional social work into neo-traditional social work practice; and (3) explore entrepreneurial social work avenues as service providers in the most efficacious manner possible. Therefore,
this study purports to gauge the perceptions of social work practitioners’ receptiveness
toward the redefining and expansion of social work practice in the new millennium.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of presenting this review of the literature was to lay a scholarly foundation in order to establish a need for the study. This chapter is a review of the current literature on the discussion of the role of social work as a profession and in the practice settings in which social workers practice. The review covers a historical overview of social work including its mission, values/ethics, core principles and delineation of the professional social worker. Within the context of social workers' ethical responsibilities to the broader society as defined by National Association of Social Workers (1981) the parameters of social work in traditional and non-traditional settings are reviewed to establish a framework for analysis from the survey responses of the social work community.

Overview of Social Work as a Profession

An interviewer for the Atlanta Journal Constitution noted that average salary of college graduates who majored in social work was $37,000. In response to the interviewers' comment on the paltry pay for such highly educated professionals, Paul Harrington, Northeastern University Economics professor and co-author of The College Major Handbook: With Real Career Paths and Payoffs, made a wry reference to social workers doing God’s work (Kleiman, 2004).
At the beginning of the century, Americans possessed a world view that saw God and religion as both the purpose and cause of most life events. Gradually this view changed, and by the end of the century most Americans had a more secular and humanistic view of the world. Religion was still important but the belief that society could be shaped and even improved through the new discoveries of science and technology was widely accepted. The emergence of social work is a part of this larger story (Huff, 2002).

In the late 1500s and early 1600s, England began passing laws to deal formally with social welfare problems and services. These laws defined the ways people were expected to care for their relatives and outlined how the government would provide help (Ginsberg, 2001). The English Poor Laws were codified in 1601 (Colby & Dziegielewski, 2004) leading to the emergence of social work as a professional activity during the late nineteenth century. Its professional activities were developed out of early philanthropic social welfare activities such as the charity organization movement, and the settlement house movement (Dubois, 1999).

What is considered to be the Progressive Era (1895-1915) is hailed as a proud moment in social work history. Early figures in social work have been lauded for their efforts on behalf of social action with Jane Addams frequently chosen as a model of the involved social worker. Caseworkers from charity organizations and settlement house era are heralded for having been in the vanguard of social reform (Haynes, 2000). The Charity Organization Society movement sought to reform on an individual basis the character of those considered losers in society. The settlement movement worked to reform the social environment that made people losers (Haynes & Mickelson, 2000).
Many of the initiatives that led to the establishment of the new social welfare organizations came from a very select group of women. They were members of first generation graduates from the new women’s colleges in New England and the Middle Atlantic States. They came from middle class and upper middle class backgrounds and were seeking a personal career rather than following the traditional path to marriage, family and homemaking. There was limited opportunity for them to enter the established professions of law, medicine, the clergy, or business management (Austin, 1983).

Social welfare agencies provided an opportunity for graduates of women’s colleges to establish a career in a field predominately lead by women. It was at this critical juncture in the mid decade of 1910 that the issue of professionalism began to take center stage in part because of the increasingly reliance on a salary for practicing social work and the establishment of supporting professional schools of social work. A connection was established between the professional status of social work with the issue of salary (Austin, 1983). While the social work profession had made substantial gains in status during the twenties, it still needed more prestige. Many social work leaders felt that advances in practice and had catapulted social work into full professional status. However, the general public continued to view social work as a vocation rather than a profession and low salaries remained a symptom of the problem (Huff, 2002).

Early in the formation of the profession, Abraham Flexner, Assistant Secretary of the General Education Board as established by John D. Rockefeller addressed the issue of social work as a profession at the 1915 National Conference on Charities and Corrections. He concluded that social work was not yet a profession according to his criteria. According to Flexner, professions must encompass intellectual operations with
large individual responsibilities; derive their raw material from science and learning; develop this material for a practical and clear cut end; possess an educationally communicable technique; tend to self organization; and become increasingly altruistic in motivation (Lubove, 1971).

In spite of flaws in Flexner's argument, his model of an established profession became the most important organizing concept in the conceptual development of social work. Austin (1983) referenced the work of Ernest Greenwood, *Attributes of a Profession* in countering Flexner's analysis of criteria for professional status. Amitai Etzioni (1969) and other contributors to *The Semi-Professions and the Organization: Teachers, Nurses and Social Workers* discovered an underlying theme, which Flexner had overlooked in his analysis. His pronouncement of semi professional occupations were careers predominated by women. Thus the effort was doomed to failure because of the gender characteristics of social work's membership. It could be assumed from the Etzioni (1969) argument that changing the gender characteristics of social work would accomplish what all the other efforts at systematic professional development had been unable to achieve. Greenwood (1957) wrote several decades later that a profession is characterized by a code of ethics for clients and colleague relationships and professional culture which he felt that social work met to qualify as a profession.

S. Humphreys Gurteen founded the first U.S. Charity Organization Society (COS) in 1877 in Buffalo, New York. An English Episcopal priest, Gurteen was impressed with the work of the London Society for Organizing Charitable Relief and Repressing Mendicancy (Dubois, 1999). Local COS agencies, which began forming in the 1870s, were usually umbrella organizations that coordinated the activities of a wide variety of
charities created to deal with the problems of immigrants and rural transplants that were flooding into industrialized northern cities in search of jobs. Social Darwinism provided the philosophical roots of the movement, thus the scientific charity provided by COS agencies tended to be moralistic in tone and oriented toward persons deemed able to become members of the industrial workforce (Axinn & Levin, 1992).

Interestingly, the history of the COS shows that services were provided almost exclusively to white families. However, the Memphis COS operated the Colored Federated Charities, a black auxiliary to the organization, which had its own black board of directors, operated with its own workers, and conducted its own fundraising activities (Netting, 1998). As noted by Berman-Rossi and Miller (1994), African-Americans and the Settlements During the Late Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Centuries, African-Americans were strengthened by their own helping traditions and fueled by their systematic exclusion from white philanthropy and only limited access to public social service. To combat their systematic exclusion from mainstream social services African-Americans used their mutual aid societies to organize hospitals, educational programs, economic assistance, employment and rehabilitative services, and residential programs.

While the COS movement represented one response to human need, the settlement house movement adopted a different approach. Conditions in the crowded slums and tenement houses of industrial cities in the late 1800s were as dire as any in the nation’s history. The goal of the settlement houses was to aggressively address these problems on a systemic level. Their societal vision tended to be pluralistic whereas COS workers feared organized efforts such as the labor movement (Netting, 1998).
The settlement house movement began in London in the nineteenth century when Samuel Barnett founded Toynbee Hall. As an Anglican priest in one of the most rundown areas of London, England Barnett converted the rectory of his parish into a neighborhood center (Netting, 1998). The first settlement house in the United States, the Neighborhood Guild of New York City was established by Stanley Coit based upon his experience at Toynbee Hall. Subsequently other settlement houses were established in cities across the country, including Chicago’s Hull House, started by Jane Addams and Ellen Gates Starr in 1889 (Netting, 1998). Three days before Christmas 1987, Ms. Addams had come into direct contact with the poor for the first time on an earlier trip to Europe and began to investigate the operation of settlement houses with her companion, Ellen Starr.

Simultaneously, settlement houses were developed in predominately black neighborhoods and founded by African-American settlement workers. Noted African-American settlement house founders included Janie Porter Barrett of the Locust Street Settlement in Hampton, Virginia; Lugenia Burns Hop of the Neighborhood Union in Atlanta, Georgia; Margaret Murray Washington of the Elizabeth Russell Settlement in Tuskegee, Alabama and Sarah Fernandis, founder of the first black social settlement in the United States, located in the District of Columbia (Netting, 1998).

As the profession began to take shape in the era of the Great Depression (1930s-1940s) social workers made an important mark still evident today. Social work took its place on the national stage largely due to the leadership of individuals who began their careers in settlements and moved into public service in the 1920s (Huff, 2002). The impact on the growth of the profession was evidenced in the accelerated number of social
work jobs doubling in the 1930s, from 40,000 to 80,000. This was mainly due to public sector income maintenance, health, and welfare programs created in response to the depression (National Association of Social Workers, 1993).

Even though the 1920s was a relatively prosperous time for many Americans, poverty was still rampant. A Brookings Institute study in the late 1920s estimated that 60 percent of Americans were living below poverty. President Herbert Hoover and most American leaders assumed that the depression would be of short duration. Social workers realized the seriousness of the depression before most other professionals. Their work had provided them a unique vantage point where they had a macro view of the depth of poverty on the micro level (Huff, 2002).

It was New York Governor Franklin Delano Roosevelt who acted with the aid of a number of very gifted social workers on his staff, largely refugees from the settlement movement. His programs, commonly referred to as the New Deal, were in response to the great depression. With the help and encouragement of his social workers, Governor Roosevelt crafted both unemployment and public works programs that were quickly imitated in other states (Huff, 2002). It was recognized that social work’s multilevel perspective made the profession particularly well equipped to develop social welfare policies and administer social welfare programs (DiNitto & McNeece, 1990). Many parts of the Economic Security Act of 1935 were written by social workers willing to use the political system to address macro level social problems (Weismiller & Rome, 1995). From the time of the New Deal though the 1950s, social work matured as a profession (Haynes, 2000). Social action was not a major emphasis during the period of the 1950s. Its absence set the stage for the subsequent renewal of professional interest in social
action, which began to increase in the 1960s, as professional social workers saw that many of the issues that concerned them could not be dealt with through individual therapeutic methods. Social workers undertook social action against the erosion of civil liberties under McCarthyism and the arms race while supporting the developing fight for civil rights (Haynes, 2000). The 1960s was also marked by other major social action developments in the profession including the War on Poverty during Lyndon Johnson’s presidency. The War on Poverty program was designed as part of President Johnson’s Great Society theme to swing the pendulum towards the larger social structure of societal well-being (Segal, Gerdes & Steiner, 2004).

During the early 1970s, some of the reform ideologies and movements of the 1960s continued. Unfortunately, however, as the decade progressed and the War on Poverty programs became increasingly bureaucratized, social work practice and social work education turned their focus toward management and administrative theories and techniques, losing sight of advocacy and reform goals (Haynes, 2000).

The 1980s and the election of President Ronald Reagan began the era that, once again shifted societal and social service concerns toward fiscal conservatism and privatization. The expansion of public and federal programs evidenced throughout the decades of the 1960s and 1970s was blamed for increasing the federal deficit, viewed as the harbinger of encroaching socialism, and failed to eradicate poverty and its social problems (Haynes, 2000).

According to Witherspoon & Phillips (1987) the 1980s caught the profession short of social workers trained or even interested in some form of political activity, either as a professional career choice or as an adjunct activity to clinical practice despite
historical involvement in this arena. The decade of the 1990s only heightened the need for political social work practice with increasing difficulty retaining a professional posture of political neutrality and objectivity when the political agenda seemed to wage war with the profession and clients (Haynes, 2000). The mid 1990s under President William Jefferson Clinton restructured the public assistance program, formerly known as Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). In 1996 President Clinton signed the Personal Responsibility Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act (PRWORA). The primary program under this Act to address poverty was the Temporary Assistance to Needy Families (TANF). Once again government began to realize the need for the additional involvement of highly trained credentialed social workers (Segal, Gerdes & Steiner, 2004). The review of the literature reveals no active involvement of social workers in the planning stages of policy development for social reform programs.

The overall failure of the social work profession to assume a position of leadership in the movement for social reform is said to be inconsistent with its' historical and philosophical roots. The relatively non-activist social work professional of the 1980s and 1990s existed in stark contrast with turn-of-the-century reformers and witnessed the erosion of some significant human rights (Haynes & Mickelson, 2000).

Finally, the social worker of the 2000s will provide services and work in settings that were not conceived of in the 1950s. Social workers, like every other professional, need to stay current and be aware that things will change, sometimes dramatically (Ginsberg, 2001). By engaging in developmental activities, social work will help to re-conceptualize social welfare policy at a time when new approaches are desperately
needed. By responding to the challenge, social work may again be at the forefront of innovative thinking about the best way of promoting human welfare (Midgely, 1996).

Social Work Principals and Practice

As codified by NASW (Revised, 1999), the mission of the social work profession is rooted in a set of core values. The core values, embraced by social workers throughout the profession's history, are the foundation of social work's unique purpose and perspective. The core values include service, social justice, dignity and worth of the person, importance of human relationships, integrity and competence. This constellation of core values reflects what is unique to the social work profession.

The practice of social work stems directly from the mission of the profession (Colby & Dziegielewski, 2004). The basis for social work practice has not changed: social work is the professional activity of helping individual, groups, or communities to enhance or to restore their capacity for social functioning and to create societal conditions favorable to their goals (NASW, 1993). Social work practice is broadly defined and allows for intervention at the micro level, and at the macro level. Macro practice is professionally guided interventions designed to bring about planned change in organizations and communities. Macro level activities engage the practitioner in organizational, community and policy arenas. Micro practice includes professional activities that are designed to help solve the problems faced primarily by individuals, families, and small groups (Netting, 1998). Social work practice integrates the professional application of social work mission, values, principles, and techniques; and
requires knowledge of human development and behavior; social, economic, and cultural institutions; and of the interaction of all these factors (Johnson, 1998).

Tracing the historical roots of social work practice provides a parallel understanding of the professional heritage and gives a glimpse of the legacy left by early pioneers. Social work has always been driven by the purpose of improving the quality of life for all people through promoting and restoring a mutually beneficial interaction between individuals and society (Bartlett, 1970).

Among those historical trends that influenced the definition of practice are the emergence of social casework as a methodology in the early 1900s, the prominence of the psychoanalytic movement in the 1920s which focused on individuals, the public welfare movement in the 1930s, the acceptance of group work and community organizing methodologies in the 1940s and 1950s, social reform activities in the 1960s, and the popularity of the social systems and ecological perspectives in the 1970s and 1980s (Haynes & Mickelson, 2000). Social work practice had fully emerged in which a general theory base was used for the response to and need for the assessment of the client. The essence of generalist practice began to appear and reflect the theoretical heritage and evolutionary response over the past century to societal concerns, needs, events and thinking. During this period the ecological approach was developed and the systems approach was widely accepted and marked by the continuing development of private practice (Johnson, 1998).

Miley, et al. (2001) wrote of an empowerment-based generalist approach to social work practice which articulated processes readily applied to enhancing human system functioning at any level. The generalist approach to social work rested on four major
premises: (1) human behavior is inextricably connected to the social and physical environment; (2) opportunities for enhancing the functioning of any human system include changing the system itself; (3) modifying its interactions with the environment; (4) and altering other systems within its environment (Miley, O'Melia & DuBois, 2001).

The foundation for generalist practice, thus, has a generic or common base of purpose, values, knowledge and skills shared by all social workers. This common base unifies the profession even though social work practitioners utilize a variety of methods, work in different settings, have diverse groups as clients, and practice with clients from the micro to the macro level (Bartlett, 1970). A systematic eclectic practitioner adheres to no single theory exclusively but selects models and theories that best match a given problem situation. This approach to practice holds the highest promise of being effective with a broad range of clients and problems (Hepworth, Rooney, & Larsen, 2002).

According to Gambrill (1997), the goals and functions of social work, as identified by the National Association of Social Workers in 1981, are still relevant today. The goals include promoting effective and humane service systems to develop and improve social policy. Historically social workers have studied the history of policy, analyzed policy, and merely followed policy but have done little to develop policy, implement policy, or change policy (Haynes, 2000).

Another principle is “professional ethics which are at the core of social work. The professional obligation to articulate its basic values, ethical principles, and ethical standards found in the NASW Code of Ethics are relevant to all social workers and social work students, regardless of their professional functions, the settings in which they work, or the populations they serve” (NASW Purpose of Code of Ethics, 1999, p.1). This
standard for social workers is also reflected in the NASW Social Workers' Ethical Responsibilities to the Broader Society (NASW Purpose of Code of Ethics, 1999).

**Social Work and Professional Credentialing**

The early social workers were volunteers or paid staff who required no specific training or educations program to qualify for the work. When formal education programs were instituted they were training programs located in the larger social agencies (Morales & Sheafor, 2002).

There was also controversy over whether appropriate social work education could be offered at the baccalaureate level as well as at the more professionally respectable master’s level. The reorganization of social work into one professional organization, National Association of Social Workers (NASW), and one professional education association, Council on Social Work Education, in the 1950’s yielded a single-level profession. During this period, only a master’s degree from an accredited school of social work was considered legitimate social work preparation. Today, the Master of Social Work (MSW) degree is still considered the terminal practice degree in social work (Morales & Sheafor, 2002).

Based upon the Association of Social Work Boards, four categories of licensure are typical. Most states regulate at least two: (1) basic- Bachelor of Social Work (BSW) upon gradation (some states only require a Bachelors of Art degree); (2) intermediate- MSW with no post-degree experience; (3) clinical- MSW with two years of experience; and (4) advanced- MSW with two years post-MSW supervised experience (Barth, 2003).
There is only modest competition between social workers with BSWs and MSWs and even less between MSWs and Doctorate of Social Work (DSW) or Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.). At the BSW level there are many substitutes for social workers. This implies a highly responsive supply to the market but one that is not provided by BSWs but rather by workers with a Bachelors of Art and Bachelor of Science degrees. At the MSW level there are relatively fewer substitutes but an apparently growing tendency to substitute nurses for social workers in hospitals and care facilities (Barth, 2003).

Social work practice is not static. It has evolved dramatically since its beginnings, and it will continue to change in the future. To grow and adapt, practice must be conducted within a systematic, well thought out process that allows both the use and the production of scientifically tested knowledge and skills and that is founded on a clear, coherent set of professional values (Colby & Dziegielewski, 2004).

The rich tradition of social work heritage, practice, development of professional standards, body of knowledge and professionalism gives credence to the depth and breadth of what social workers are able to accomplish. The literature demonstrates the commonality in the profession for application to careers in both traditional and non-traditional social work settings. The literature was used to illustrate the examples of both social work practice settings and therefore not meant to be exhaustive in its findings.

Traditional Social Work

Traditional social work is viewed as a profession dedicated to the maintenance and enhancement of the social functioning and health of individuals, families, and communities (Prigoff, 2000). Traditional social workers are found in a great variety of
practice settings. Despite the existence of different forms of practice, most social work is concerned with remedial intervention. Social work’s overwhelming involvement in remedial practice has long been criticized. It has been argued that the remedial approach is contrary to the profession’s historical commitment to eradicate poverty, and is too limiting and ineffective as a method for promoting human well-being on a significant scale. Critics contend that if social work is to survive as a profession, it needs to transcend its narrow concern with remedial practice and promote activities affecting the larger concerns of clients’ social well-being (Midgely, 1996).

Traditional social work practice is derived from the contours of the social and economic environment. Services in practice areas such as protective services fill a gap when families fail to nurture the young or care for the infirm. Health and mental health services respond when assistance is needed to cope with the demands of daily living. Income support programs address the economic needs of those unable to achieve an adequate living through the institutions of employment (Reisch, 1997). Traditional social workers work with both poor and middle-class people in practice settings such as medical and psychiatric hospitals, nursing homes, community mental health centers, employee assistance programs, probation departments, group homes for adolescents and even veterinary clinics (Gibelman & Schervish, 1996).

**Demographics of Traditional Social Work Practice Settings**

The vast majority of social workers were found to be engaged in professional activities that treated emotional, psychological and other personal problems. Only a minority of traditional social workers were employed in non-remedial settings that sought
to improve wider social conditions rather than solve people's personal problems (Midgely, 1996).

Social workers held approximately 477,000 jobs in 2002. About 40% of all social workers worked in State or local government agencies, primarily in departments of health and human services. The majority of social workers are employed in cities or suburbs. Of the 477,000 social workers: 274,000 were employed as Child, Family and School Social Workers; 107,000 social workers were in the Medical and Public Health sectors; and approx. 95,000 worked in the mental health and substance abuse settings (Bureau of Labor Statistics Employment, 2004).

**Practice Settings**

Settings are organized into fields of practice. Emphasis on generic practice and specialization exist side by side in social work. The nature of specializations comprises an important aspect of the practitioner's social context. The most frequently recognized form of concentration is in a field of practice, usually designated as health, mental health, education (school social work), family-child welfare, or occupational and industrial social work. They work in health maintenance organizations, private offices, acute hospitals, public health centers, rehabilitation facilities, home health care agencies, nursing homes, and outpatient clinics under either public or private auspices (Northern, 1995).

Most social workers specialize although some conduct research or are involved in planning or policy development. Social workers in traditional social work settings prefer an area of practice involving direct interaction with clients. Other social workers
serve as planners and policy makers, who develop programs to address such issues as child abuse, homelessness, substance abuse, poverty, and violence. Responsibilities include research and analyzing policies, programs, and regulations; suggesting legislative and other solutions; and grant writing (Bureau of Labor Statistics Nature of the Work, 2004).

Medical and public health social workers provide psycho-social support needed to cope with chronic, acute, or terminal illnesses, advise family caregivers, counsel patients, and engage in discharge planning. Some work on interdisciplinary teams that evaluate certain kinds of patients such as geriatric or organ transplant patients (Bureau of Labor Statistics Employment, 2004). In outpatient settings, medical social workers provide referral services and supportive counseling, and coordinate after care and follow up services (National Association of Social Workers, 2005).

Clinical Social Workers are master’s level graduates with 2 or more years of experience. They are well equipped to provide a full range of mental health services, including assessment, diagnosis and treatment and draw on a variety of psychotherapeutic theories and tools (National Association of Social Workers, 2005). Mental health and substance abuse social workers are likely to work in hospitals, substance abuse treatment centers, individual and family services agencies, or local governments (Bureau of Labor Statistics Nature of the Work, 2004).

Social workers utilize traditional social casework, now known as case management, to engage in a variety of services designed to improve clients’ economic, social and/or health functioning. Case managers are found in public, private, community or sectarian agencies and organizations (National Association of Social Workers, 2005).
School Social Workers address social, behavioral, emotional, or economic problems that prevent learning. They use professional judgment to assess conditions, refer for appropriate professional or community services, and follow up to assure that services are provided and that conditions improve (National Association of Social Workers, 2005). School social workers in schools are employed in complex organizations in which education is the primary function. Clinical social workers need to understand the organizational mission and policies that may mandate or limit the roles of social workers within the educational system (Northern, 1995).

Community Organization Social Workers work to improve systems and develop new resources. They work for or with governmental, private, or community groups and organizations to determine community needs (National Association of Social Workers, 2005).

In traditional social work administration and management settings, social workers oversee the provision of public and private social and health service programs. They understand the mission of the organization and administer resources and money necessary to make the program operate efficaciously and engage in program evaluation (National Association of Social Workers, 2005).

In social policy, research projects may be conducted in traditional social work settings to determine how to address pressing social concerns, such as substance abuse and child welfare services. Social workers in social policy practice also guide the implementation of social policy projects (National Association of Social Workers, 2005).

Social work researchers engage in research for efficacy of agency or program operations as well as studying the causes of larger social problems. The results of their
findings are used to recommend ways to improve social policies and conditions (National Association of Social Workers, 2005).

Social workers in the Family and Child Welfare field are located in public and private social agencies. It is the only field in which social work is the dominant profession. More than in other fields, the services focus on problems in family relationships and protection of children from abuse and neglect. Multidisciplinary collaboration, multi service coordination are hallmarks of their expertise (Northern, 1995).

One disadvantage of being a social worker in a traditional social work setting is the limited financial compensation. Many traditional social workers supplemented their salaries through private practice and consultation (Gibelman and Schervich, 1996). However, in 1998, Psychotherapy Finances reported their survey findings of 1,800 therapists showed one in five clinicians taking active steps to leave private practice due to fees sliding, lower incomes, shorter work weeks, briefer interventions and smaller third party payments (Wylie, 1998). Critics have long argued that the drifting away from public service and emulating models of entrepreneurship in human services posed a problem and required a return to traditional value rather than profit. Private practice was deemed too unavailable for the indigent given the tilt toward the psychological and away from the social (BeVilacqua, 1988).

In addition to concerns for traditional social work practice remaining within its historical boundaries, there is a growing threat to the profession by other professions entering into traditional social work areas. For example, the Commission on Applied and Clinical Sociology, established in 1995 by the Society for Applied Sociology and the
Sociological Practice Association specifically to develop, promote and support quality sociological education and practice in applied and clinical areas (The Commission on Applied and Clinical Sociology, 2005). Sociology, heretofore, has traditionally been research focused with employment in the areas of academia, research institutes and other non-clinical areas.

A website extolling applied sociology by Clark College in Dubuque, Iowa highlighted the experienced faculty, solid curriculum, and unique experiences of the dual Department of Sociology and Social Work. The new Sociology program purported to give students the confidence and specific research, analytic and professional development skills necessary for success in other professions including social services. According to the goals of the program, sociology students developed applied skills that prepared them to engage in activities in the realm of traditional social work practice. This included community and organizational needs assessment; program development, implementation and evaluation; strategic planning; grant writing; human resource management; marketing; community organization; case management and more (Clark College, 2005).

It has been felt by some social workers that the profession has distanced itself from some of the social problems and professional activities that other professions are starting to address. Many social workers believe that the profession needs to focus on some of those same core issues again (Midgely, 1996).

As the social work profession looks toward the future, Kate Wendleton, President of the career counseling organization, the Five O’Clock Club, wrote in Targeting The Job You Want that ten years from now half of the working population would be in jobs that have not yet been invented, and doing them in non-traditional ways. Social work’s
ability to respond to new needs and engage in new fields of practice is a major reason for its diverse character. While social work will undoubtedly continue to fulfill its traditional remedial functions, it will also respond to new challenges in ways that will continually renew its commitment to promoting the well being of all (Hopps & Collins, 1995).

Non-Traditional Social Work

Diversity and specialization of the profession has lent itself to a broad range of career oriented opportunities. Even experienced social workers and high level social service agency executives are unaware of the entire employment picture (Ginsberg, 2001). According to this study non-traditional social work was defined as the use of transferable skills and social work specific values that empowered social workers to use and effectively apply the specific knowledge developed through higher education. Transferable skills enabled social workers to perform different work or professional roles from those for which they have been educated. For example, well-developed transferable skills might allow the social work professional to move from social work practice into hospital policy (Flinders University, 2001). Non-traditional social work encompasses entrepreneurial social work practice and neo-traditional social work practice. Neo-traditional social work was interpreted to allow social workers to redefine traditional social work practice in recognition of significant societal changes in a global economy negatively impacting client systems in a new context but in the same traditional settings.

In other professions there are discussions from economic, business and governmental viewpoints of key issues affecting the clients served by the social work
profession without regard for professions’ input or consideration of social work
contributions on these subjects. Issues of poverty, hunger, globalization and population
control, immigration, work and family challenges were being addressed in many cases
without regard to the social consequences to micro client systems or society at large
(Heinecke, 2000). Even in the political arena this has a deleterious effect on social
work. Overall, it compels social workers to accept the vocabulary of others who may not
share the professions’ values and social concerns. Next, it compels social workers to
accept the problem definition of others, even to conflicting views as to what constitutes a
social condition worthy of attention. And last, it may lead to acceptance of the reality of
fiscal austerity and jeopardize professional integrity by attempting to balance complex
human needs with shrinking resources which inevitably negatively impacts the
relationship between social workers and clients (Reisch, 1997).

Neo-traditional Social Work Settings

Indeed, no profession is in a better position to judge the impact of social policy
than is social work (Haynes & Mickelson, 2000). By engaging in developmental
activities, social work can also help to re-conceptualize social welfare policy at a time
when new approaches are desperately needed. By responding to the challenge, social
work may again be at the forefront of innovative thinking about the best way of
promoting human welfare (Midgely, 1996). Nonetheless, the social work profession has
not systematically and consistently sought, nor, has it been asked to take, a significant
role in the planning of social programs or the formulation of social policy. Social action
has been de-emphasized to the point that many question whether it really is the business of social work (Haynes & Mickelson, 2000).

An extension of social action is political action. Social work has had three separate but significant waves of political involvement: the Progressive Era of the early nineteenth century, the 1930s New Deal, and the 1960s War on Poverty. In each of these periods, social work’s involvement in politics mirrored the profession’s growth and internal conflict over mission, scope, and function (Colby & Dziegielewski, 2004). Political social work was based on the idea that electoral and legislative politics was integral to all social work practice (Fischer, 1997).

Macro social work solves social problems and makes social change at the societal level that affects large groups of people through the political process and social policy (Brueggeman, 1996). In The Political Context of Social Work, Michael Reisch (1997) further discusses the relationship of social work in the political arena. He argued that traditional social work has had a long history of involvement in politics ranging from institution building to the promotion of an expanded role for government as a tool of economic and social intervention. Although social action is not synonymous with political intervention, social action strategies, when used to intervene in the affairs of government, are political strategies. Unfortunately, few social workers consider a career as a social work politician, even though it provides far reaching influence on the development and implementation of social policy. Although traditional social workers have been influential in the political arena, politics has not consistently been a central arena for social work practice (Haynes & Mickelson, 2000).
More than at any time in this century, politics and social work are inextricably connected. Furthermore, Reisch, (1997) argued that the major role for social workers in political action is as educators and, therefore, make a major contribution to eliminating the ignorance and apathy that so often shape contemporary American politics (Reisch, 1997).

Social workers knowledge of social problems, social interaction, and the social environment is useful to the legislator in the difficult task of legislative decision-making (Haynes & Mickelson, 2000). Jane Addams and the early social reformers of the settlement house movement understood the need for political involvement of social workers in the most practical of ways (Rose, 1999).

Barbara A. Mikulski, MSW, Senator for Maryland, further serves as a proponent of social workers redefining their role and place in the political arena. In the foreword to Affecting Change: Social Workers in the Political Arena, she strongly advocated involvement in the political arena as agents of change (Haynes & Mickelson, 2000). In support of the neo-traditional social work involvement in political settings it was noted that social workers spent considerable time learning the very skills and values important to governance (Rose, 1999). Who better to write laws about families, children, the poor, the sick, and those at risk, but social workers versus lawyers who hold a monopoly on political office (Colby & Dziegielewski, 2004). In 1991, NASW reported that 113 social workers held elected office (Weismiller & Rome, 1995); by 1992, 165 known social workers in forty-three states had won a variety of races; and by 1998, there were more than 200 known social workers holding political office in the nation (National Association of Social Workers, 1992).

Indeed, social action not only leads to political social action but is viewed as being intrinsically linked to economic well being as well. Since the late 1890s, social workers have recognized the central role that economic development played in creating and responding to individual, family, and community needs. The settlement house movement was deeply concerned with the employment problems of the urban poor. Social workers and their contemporaries in the Charity Organization Societies recognized that issues of employment were critical to well-being, and the inability to succeed in the labor market was a central concern of social work (Reisch, 1997). Even though problems of employment have been a traditional concern of social workers, a regular role for social work within the non-traditional social work workplace is a recent phenomenon, growing out of specific programs and changes in both the labor market and its regulatory structure. Understanding how the economy works and doesn’t work can be empowering (Reisch, 1997).

The case for social work engagement in economic development is a strong one and many more social workers today recognize the need for involvement of this kind (Midgely, 1996). However, although economic changes are dramatically shaping the
environment of social work practice, few social workers possess even a rudimentary knowledge of economics (Reisch, 1997). Many believe that social work is best suited to working with individual clients in traditional social work settings and that wider economic development issues are beyond the profession’s purview (Midgely, 1996).

It is important to note that the profession of social work, from its inception, has been linked to issues of economic justice (Prigoff, 2000). There are at least three ways in which social work can contribute to economic development: (1) Social workers can assist in the mobilization of human capital for development; (2) Social workers can foster the creation of social capital; which (3) also contributes to economic development benefitting society on the micro and macro level (Midgely, 1996).

Social workers in community development roles often engage in economic development activities. They are employed in: Economic development councils, departments, corporations; government or politics; extension services; banking, financial institutions; foundations; micro-enterprise development programs; redevelopment corporations and housing organizations are notable settings in which to practice (Midgely, 1996). An example of social workers involved in economic development on the macro level includes Alexis Herman, 23rd Secretary of Labor and the first African American to lead the Labor Department. Secretary Herman laid out three strategic goals that guided her tenure at the Labor Department: a prepared workforce, a secure workforce, and quality workplaces and was widely credited as an important leader in the effort to move people from welfare to work. Under her stewardship, the nation’s unemployment rate reached a thirty-year record low including the unemployment rates for African-Americans and Hispanics (Toyota, 2005).
Law is another area that social workers have traditionally been involved with the opportunity to expand beyond traditional social work roles and responsibilities. In her essay *Opportunities for Social Workers in the Law? The Jury is Out*, Mary Ann Mason (1997), Associate Profession in the School of Social Welfare at the University of California at Berkeley, suggested a variety of opportunities for social workers to participate more actively in a variety of legal settings. The author suggests that new career tracks in law could be both professionally satisfying and financially attractive.

Additionally, it is increasingly common for social workers to collaborate with lawyers. As a unit they can handle the counseling and legal aspects of divorce, mediation and other matters for both parties. Another nationally recognized advocate of the role of social work within the legal/justice settings is Dr. Rufus Sylvester Lynch, Dean, School of Social Work at Clark Atlanta University who has co-written extensively on the subject advocating the expanding parameters of the profession within the executive levels of judiciary echelon (Mitchell & Lynch, 1997; Mitchell & Lynch, 1996; Mitchell & Lynch, 1995; Brawley & Lynch, 1994; Mitchell & Lynch, 1992).

Social workers are already in the courtroom, and they work with the police and officers of the court on a daily basis. However, these roles could be expanded into the quasi-role of hearing officers in juvenile, civil commitment, worker’s compensation, and other administrative hearings (Mason, 1997). Still yet are other opportunities to increase the role of social workers in the courtroom. Individuals and courts may come to prefer social workers to clinical psychologists as expert witnesses due to their training in family systems theory that facilitates understanding family dynamics as a whole (Mason, 1997).
Disaster Relief Organizations have only now begun to consider the role of the helping professionals in a wider range of capacity to service delivery including serving on planning committees. Lyons (1999) and Newburn (1996) have advocated that in the areas of disaster relief efforts on the local, national and international levels social professions have particular expertise to offer, not in some of the technical and dramatic responses to disasters, but in understanding and addressing the moderate to long term effects of loss on individuals and communities affected by disaster. Apart from the traditional role for social professionals in longer term interventions, researchers have suggested that there is also a role for social workers in the early stages of disaster work and that rapid intervention may well facilitate effective use of services later.

International exchanges can be traced in social work to the earliest years of the profession’s history (Hokenstad & Midgley, 2004). Yet as practitioners in the twenty-first century, social work, more than at any other time in the world’s history, will influence and be influenced by the international community. International social work has been defined as international professional action and the capacity for international action by the social work profession and its members. International action has four dimensions: internationally related domestic practice and advocacy, professional exchange, international practice, and international policy development and advocacy (Healy, 2001).

The phrase, think globally and act locally, probably best captures the direction social workers must go. Yet American social workers, for the most part, currently have little exposure to international social welfare (Colby & Dziegielewski, 2004). It may be precisely the chaos of politics and international trade that keeps social work at the
sidelines of international social development. However, any genuine commitment to influencing the system that creates social problems mandates that social workers insert themselves, and their unique worldview, into the process (Phelps, 2001).

**Non-traditional Social Work Settings**

Social workers in traditional social work settings are being asked to discard the myopia of a predominately clinical world view. In the context of extreme poverty, social change strategies which stress the pathological aspects of clients in their micro-environments will fall short of contributing to the general social welfare (Lusk & Stoesz, 1994). Melvin Delgado (1999), *Social Work Practice in Non-traditional Settings*, advocated that practice involving non-traditional settings would facilitate the re-establishment of the profession’s connectedness with undervalued communities. Furthermore, he deemed the profession’s embrace of partnership within non-traditional urban settings as having the potential to redirect practice from deficits to strengths and may serve to align social work again with its historical roots.

Placing social work in the context of global problems is the overarching theme of exploration into social work in the 21st Century (Mary, 1997). The profession of social work has a unique opportunity to help local communities respond effectively to the challenge of economic globalization (Prigoff, 2000). Commitments of the social work profession to economic and social justice, and to health and human development, make it mandatory that trade and economic development policy issues now become issues for social work advocacy (Prigoff, 2000). In a global economy, professional social work in
general and local empowerment in particular cannot be reduced to designing welfare programs and delivering services at the local level (Wagner, 1997).

This requires social work professionals to take action on a number of fronts for social work and social welfare to effectively respond to the challenges of globalization. Additionally, social work involvement in the United Nations and international nongovernmental organizations is needed to help shape global programs aimed at mitigating the negative effects of the global economic system (Hokenstad & Midgley, 2004). Numerous new social problems have emerged as a result of globalization. For example, as the global economy has expanded, the incidence of poverty and deprivation in many parts of the world increased (Deacon, 1990). Although the social work profession has not ignored these challenges, much more needs to be done if it is to be adequately prepared for the new international order emerging in the new century (Midgley, 1996).

Social work has a mandate to respond to the social problems caused by globalization. The problems of poverty, inner city decay, unemployment, and increasing despair in the industrial countries are a direct consequence of global economic change and the unwillingness of governments to address these problems in ways that integrate displaced people into the productive economy rather than discarding them. Social work also needs to be more active in providing services to immigrant ethnic minorities and promoting a better understanding of the advantages of cultural diversity. Although the profession has previously worked with refugee populations, more needs to be done to enhance social work’s effectiveness in this growing field of non-traditional social work practice. Although it is imperative that social work enhances its capacity to contribute to
the amelioration of these social problems, the profession can also benefit by responding to the many positive opportunities created by globalization. Globalization has created new opportunities for social workers in different parts of the world to share experiences and expand its knowledge base (Midgley, 1996).

Global Social Policy, an interdisciplinary journal of public policy and social development, is a media avenue for advancing the understanding of the impact of globalization upon social policy and social development. According to Branko Milanovic, World Bank Development Research Group, until just recently, globalization dealt with financial and trade flows; social policy dealt with internal, country-specific issues of unemployment, retirement, welfare. The two were seldom thought of together, and even less frequently, written about. Bringing the two types of analysis together is what the publication, Global Social Policy, has set out to achieve (Deacon, 2000).

In the last decade, as markets have become more internationalized, social work has followed suit. The 1990s produced a body of social work literature that both recognized this trend and sought to encourage and expand it. Much of the literature on international social work centers on non-traditional roles of social work, in areas such as refugee assistance (Mupedziswa, 1997); conflict resolution (Metha, 1997); and response to the global AIDS crisis (Phelps, 2001; Mancoske, 1997). The basic problem solving methods of the field of social work are relevant to the solution of world crises because they address systems change (Prigoff, 2000).

There are numerous, often untapped, opportunities for social workers to influence global social policy. These range from local or national lobbying and educational campaigns to collaborative ventures on a global scale (Healy, 2001). Neither are fields in
which social work has extensive experience or expertise, and in addition, both take the profession beyond its historic commitment to dealing with clients through direct intervention. It is also unrealistic to assume that medicine, economics and other professions which currently dominate population and development planning will cede these fields to social work simply because the profession is seeking new ways to promote development (Midgley, 1996).

The international Federation of Social Workers (IFSW), founded in 1956, promotes social work on the world stage. IFSW is divided into five geographical regions: Africa, Asia and the Pacific, Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, and North America. Membership is open to one professional social work association in each country. In 1998, seventy national member associations represented more than 460,000 social workers (Colby, 2004). To promote a greater understanding of the role of international events in social work practice, the National Association of Social Workers has actively promoted greater international contacts among practitioners (Midgley, 1996; Mayadas & Elliott, 1997).

While occupational social work was popular in Europe in the 1960 it was not until the 1980s that industrial social work developed into a specialized area of social work. Social workers were employed in corporations and labor unions to provide a variety of work related services (Wittenberg, 2003). Towards the end of the 19th century, as Europe and America started spawning industrial giants, hundreds of trusts were formed. These were all about using part of the corporation’s profits to help the underprivileged and making the world a better place (Mukerjea, 2003). Thus the idea of corporate social responsibility was born. It has also been referred to as neo-capitalism (Joseph, 2003).
Furthermore, the treatise known as the Jonker paper presented the argument that presently the corporate social responsibility (CSR) movement in the formal sense is a first generation attempt to discuss and redefine the role and position of business organizations in contemporary society. It seems to imply a more responsible behavior of the business enterprise embedding a variety of nondescript social obligations. This perspective was based upon the generally accepted recognition that an enterprise operates within a societal network of stakeholders, who are influencing directly or indirectly the results of the enterprise (Batten, 2003). Corporations are accountable for their actions to a range of stakeholders. However, companies do not always engage in activities that result in greater good for all its stakeholders (Joseph, 2003).

Strategic philanthropy is defined as the process by which contributions are targeted to serve direct business interests while also serving beneficiary organizations (Logsdon, et al., 1990). Strategic philanthropy directs contributions to stakeholders and to societal issues that are important to the success of business strategic plans. Corporate contributions must be shown to provide direct and tangible benefits to strategic business objectives. This situation presents an opportunity for social work professionals to provide evaluative information to corporate funders (Marx, 1998).

Social workers are involved in an array of clinical and non-clinical practice arenas that did not exist as a career option before technological advances, specifically in the area of health management and the emergence of bio-medical research. There are research ethics committees that assess the merits and ethics of each new proposal to recruit people as research participants. Unfortunately, ethics committees are most closely associated with ensuring the minimization of physical risks accompanying medical
research and often insufficient attention is paid to protecting participants from other forms of risk (Blaskett, 1998).

As with other activities involving involuntary clients, and where there are issues of dependency and tensions between the interests of the organization and the interests of the broader community, fostering of ethical research is a field requiring social work skills. Social workers, as the only professional grouping actively promoting social justice, could be effective in various aspects of the ethical review process as members on committees, as consultants, or as administrators to assist reviewers and researchers to negotiate their obligations to one another. Administrators of research ethics committees must be alert to the social, ethical and institutional responsibilities of the committee, institution, research community and participant populations. Institutions would do well to employ personnel with social work training as well as administrative expertise in these non-traditional social work positions (Blaskett, 1998).

Even within hospitals, extended roles are necessary. Validation of social work competence for intervention at the organizational and larger societal levels would prove that their skills are relevant for that work as well. In other areas of the health field social workers have been involved in the field of organ trans-plantations for several years making significant contributions beyond their direct traditional clinical practice with potential organ donors and organ recipients. At the organizational level their assets include expertise in interpersonal communication, group work skills, and appreciation of systems theory application to complex organizations. Furthermore, social workers have the edge over many other professionals due to their training background and that they should help create and seek jobs non-traditional social work positions as planners of
educational programs, creators of public education materials, coordinators of interagency
public education programs within non-traditional practice settings and disseminators of
information (Dhooper, 1994).

In the role of disseminators of information, human service professionals and
organizations are in an excellent position to communicate important messages to the
public while helping the media fulfill their public service responsibilities to the
communities in which they are located (Brawley & Brawley, 1999).

Historically, social workers have left the shaping of social work's public image to
media producers who hold no investment in the future of the profession. It has been
suggested that social workers make a concerted effort to learn about the media and
control the production of their own media projects and teaching students about the media
in social work courses (Tower, 2000).

While few can be expected to possess the skills of professional journalists, many
social workers have the skills necessary to write for local newspapers or community
magazines. This has allowed them to establish a presence in media outlets while
concomitantly producing financial gains and a service to the community. An example is
John Rosemond, private practice family therapist in North Carolina has written weekly
columns which address policy issues that fell within his area of professional competence
(Brawley & Brawley, 1999).

Society has always had social entrepreneurs but they have not always been called
by that name. They are society’s change agents and have built many of the organizations
now taken for granted. The social entrepreneur seek to provide real social improvements
to their beneficiaries and communities by reducing social needs rather than just meeting
them to create systemic change and sustainable improvements. Community and social institutions are changing to meet new needs and social entrepreneurs are leading this charge (Three Sigma, 2003).

Entrepreneurship is a process of putting new ideas into practice. According to this study social work entrepreneurship is viewed as the creation of institutions through entrepreneurial thinking that are guided by social work ethics and based on the integration of social service, business, and public relations skills (Young, 1991). This definition is inclusive of different types of businesses, including for-profits, nonprofits, sole proprietorships, and consulting firms. The visualization of innovative opportunities defines entrepreneurial thinking, and social work entrepreneurs are therefore creators of options, not just employees (Bent-Goodley, 2002).

The social work profession has a long history of empowering others. This is a profession, which, in recent times, is increasingly drawn into the business sector as social workers navigate their way through managed care contracts, capitation budgets, and other financial matters. The same core skills and traits used in traditional work settings transfers nicely to the role of independent entrepreneur who are predominantly female and many are looking for ways to become entrepreneur businesswomen. There are reasons why they are leading the path for expanded practice into non-traditional settings: social work wages suffer because more than 75% of social workers are women. Gibelman (2003) found that the higher the percentage of a profession dominated by women, the lower the worker’s average weekly salary. For female social workers this has proved to be a double bind. They earn lower wages because they are female and they earn lower wages because they work in a female-dominated field.
Other explanations for entering into entrepreneurship include standard social work employment settings not affording the independence, flexibility, creativity, and financial stability sought. Social workers can choose to empower themselves by designing their own business around their personality traits, social work skills, and professional values. Those personality traits mirror those of successful entrepreneurs. Social workers tend to be persistent and flexible, risk-taking, resilient, and confident. These traits are a bonus to anyone who wants to succeed in self-employment (Social Work Entrepreneur, 2005). A materialist perspective was found to be compatible with social work’s responsibility to address the problems of poverty, deprivation and material need. It was historic concern with these problems that marked the profession’s formative years (Midgely, 1996).

Social entrepreneurship melds the enterprise and innovation often associated with the private sector with the grassroots accountability necessary to sustain solutions in the public sector (Joshua Venture Fellowship Program, 2002). In his book, The Entrepreneur: Twenty-one Golden Rules for the Global Business, Heinecke (2000) writes that an entrepreneur is a person who gauges the risks and rewards of a business and works quickly to initiate, organize and manage a particular opportunity, idea, or concept. The following three examples of social workers are illustrated for their entrepreneurial efforts. Carol Nesslin Doelling, MS, Director of Career Services at the George Warren Brown School of Social Work developed the Job Market for new MSWs nationwide with Barbara Matz, Ed.D. As co-creator of Social Work and Social Services Jobs Online with Violet Horvath, PhD, MSW, a career web site was designed specifically for social
workers further illustrating social work innovation using technology and interdisciplinary collaboration (Nesslein).

Another example is Stacey Ann Matzkevich. It was her experiences as a social worker that inspired Matzkevich to start Care-giverZone, a Berkeley-based Internet start-up that is geared toward individuals and businesses who regularly provide care to the elderly with projected business potential being lucrative. The company hoped to earn its revenues from advertising, selling expanded slots to providers and through its online store (Gallagher, 2000).

Another social worker found affecting change in entrepreneurial business settings was Mr. Novak, general agent for the Novak Financial Group, a Mass Mutual agency in Springfield, Massachusetts. He initially went into social work and coaching basketball after graduating from AIC but soon noticed that social work, though having an impact on people, also came with the negative consequence of being professionally underpaid. Novak has found his business venture to be more lucrative but denied that he has deviated from his desire to serve (Business West, 1998).

The entrepreneur will often risk more, work harder, and demand more of himself or herself than any ordinary business person. The entrepreneur is advised to find a need, research the project, set high goals, trust their intuition, recognize failure and rebound, and network (Heinecke, 2000). Unfortunately, as noted by Gold (1994), most social workers are not trained to start, build, and maintain a business and without formal preparation, they must acquire entrepreneurial knowledge on their own. This is not an effective way to train social workers within the profession, and private practices and other traditional social service organizations often fail due to a lack of business skills.
Another example of non-traditional social work is private practice. Within the past 20-30 years private practice has become much more common and pervasive (Seiz & Schwab, 1992). Although now considered as a mainstream practice there are still aspects of the practice which keeps it in the entrepreneurial realm as a business venture (Browning, 1982). The cost of establishing a private practice is heavy, income is unpredictable, and carries a greater risk of malpractice litigation (Northern, 1995). Seiz and Schwab, Jr. (1992) compared the motivations of private practice practitioners and of entrepreneurs for starting a business. Motives for social workers included escaping job dissatisfaction, supervisory micro management, attaining autonomy, increased status and prestige, increased income and flexibility, and opportunities to work with motivated clients. A negative motive identified was the possible inability to obtain a job in an agency.

In comparison, the motives given by entrepreneurs starting their own business were similar to their counterparts entering private practice. Non-social work entrepreneurs sought to overcome frustrations with prior employment, quest for personal autonomy and independence, professional challenge, higher prestige and status and the opportunity for financial betterment with increased flexibility. Negative motivations included efforts to avoid returning to an old job and dealing with the reality of job displacement or unemployment (Seiz and Schwab, 1992).

A natural outgrowth of private practice has been the area of consulting. This has become a lucrative avenue for the experienced social worker but can be difficult to obtain without established contacts within the profession and other multidisciplinary networks. The social work profession should develop a thorough rationale why a master’s level
social worker is a good choice for a consulting position. Emphasis should be placed on the transferability of social work skills: interpersonal skills for relationship-/team-building; ability to engage individual/group/system assessment for strategic planning; problem solving skills needed for negotiating/mediation and social administrative skills for budgeting/development (Core Group of the Careers Development Directors in Social Work Education, 1999).

Consulting, private practice, business ownership are inclusive of non-traditional practice settings such as the military, corporations, non-profit boards, nursing home construction design teams and the list continues, limited only by the social worker’s willingness to expand into new territories. Indeed, non-profit organizations are among the fastest growing institutions leading to the re-emergence of the social entrepreneur in non-traditional social work practice settings (Three Sigma, 2003).

Social Work Innovators

Every profession has its innovators and risk takers that propel their respective professions further along the continuum of professional development, knowledge and career opportunities. In the field of social work there are those who have played major roles in contributing towards the achievement of the mission in creative and practical ways to effect positive social change in society. They are society’s change agents who have contributed towards the establishment of practice areas now taken for granted but during their time was considered innovative, non-traditional and possibly beyond the scope of social work. First, chosen to illustrate these contributions is Jeannette Rankin. On April 2, 1917, at the age of 36, she was installed as the first woman and the first
social worker in the United States Congress. Jeannette Rankin’s career exemplified the fact that involvement in social action to meet human needs and improved social functioning as a logical outgrowth of traditional social work practice. Clearly, today’s social workers are the heirs of a powerful tradition of social action (Haynes & Mickelson, 2000).

Frances Perkins and other social workers played a crucial role during the economic crisis of the great depression. His role as state secretary of labor under two governors attests to his effectiveness as a skilled social worker in a non-traditional setting in one of the highest echelons of politics (National Association of Social Workers, 1998).

A contemporary of Francis Perkins, Wilbur Cohen was an influential social worker and economist, co-founding the National Association of Social Workers and serving on the committee to create the Social Security Act. He was later appointed Secretary of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW), to administer most of the Great Society programs (National Association of Social Workers, 1998).

Social worker Whitney Moore Young, Jr.’s work on behalf of civil rights propelled him to leadership of the National Urban League, just as his commitment to social justice drew him to social work and NASW’s presidency. In 1954 as Dean of the School of Social Work at Atlanta University he became active in the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) during a period in social work not noted for its social activism until several years later. Time magazine cited Young’s 1963 proposal for a domestic Marshall Plan as a major inspiration for President
Lyndon B. Johnson's War on Poverty. In 1969, he was awarded the Medal of Freedom, the nation's highest civilian award (National Association of Social Workers, 1998). Although social work has evolved around different methods and fields of practice, social workers have sought to identify common or generic principles that pervade all social work interventions and provide the profession with a distinctive identity and unity that transcends the application of social work knowledge and skills to particular settings (Hopps & Collins, 1995).

Fundamental Values of Social Work

Social work remains a very diverse profession. According to DiNitto and McNeece (1990), one of the hallmarks of this profession is its value base. Professional values involve achievement of the objectives of the profession by social workers as responsible partners in the change process. Their professional activities should be permeated with the values of the profession, founded on the purpose of social work, and guided by professional standards of ethical practice (Bartlett, 1970).

The following delineates fundamental values and principles that are considered part of the common base for social work values, knowledge, and skills unifying the profession. They are respect for diversity leading to non-judgementalism, confidentiality influencing the workers' ethical conduct, professional comportment, access to resources in a manner that recognizes dignity and worth, social justice and self determination (Bartlett, 1970).

The following terms are operationalized for this study. Respect for diversity is defined as an unconditional positive regard for others by respecting diversity and
accepting variations in personal lifestyles (Bartlett, 1970). Confidentiality is one that is communicated in confidence. Professional comportment is defined as the dignified manner or conduct demonstrated by the professional in their interaction with others (www.Dictionary.com, 2005). Dignity and worth are viewed as the quality or state of being worthy of esteem or respect. Moral or social values are defined as the goodness, usefulness, or importance of something or somebody, irrespective of financial value or wealth (www.Encarta.msn.com/encnet/features/dictionary.com, 2005).

In terms of social justice, social workers assume responsibility for confronting inequalities and social injustice. Commitment is made towards making social institutions more humane and responsive to human needs (Bartlett, 1970). Non-judgmentalism is seen as the refraining from judgment, especially one based on personal ethical standards. Ethical conduct is values that guide the professional: Being in accordance with the accepted principles of right and wrong that govern the conduct of a profession (www.Dictionary.com, 2005).

Access to resources was viewed as social workers being able to ensure linkages between consumer systems and the resources and opportunities of community and societal institutions. Self-determination is the determination of one's own fate or course of action without compulsion; free will (www.Dictionary.com, 2005).

Foundational Knowledge of Social Work

The wide range of human problems with which social workers deal, the variety of traditional and non-traditional social work settings in which they are employed, the extensive scope of services they provide, and the diverse populations they serve make it
unrealistic to expect that a single practice approach could adequately support social work practice. Rather, the social worker must have a comprehensive repertoire of knowledge and techniques that can be used to meet the unique needs of individual clients and client groups (Morales & Sheafor, 2002).

Social work theory prepares practitioners and students to engage individuals, families, groups, organizations, and communities in self-assessment, problem identification, goal setting, planning, implementation, and evaluation of relevant interventions, in order to achieve better health and productivity within those social systems. In working toward long term goals, it is important to document historic innovations, to measure and evaluate goal attainment, to reflect on outcomes, and to modify strategies, plans, and their implementation based on critical feedback (Prigoff, 2000).

One way of doing so is the use of the ecological assessment, which is an inclusive approach to the collection of data in practice. Simply said, the ecological model is a systematic framework that helps the social worker make the most complete investigation possible into the many interrelated factors associated with any particular case (Derezotes, 2000).

Another model, rational problem solving, was conceived as a way of implementing social change over four hundred years ago and was gradually applied to economic, policy, and organizational decision making. Rational problem solving was adopted by macro social workers as early as the turn of the century. Since then it has become known as the generalist social work method (Brueggman, 1996).
There has been conceptual confusion arising from an inability to link social development's macro approach with social work's dominant individualist ideology (Midgely, 1996). There is some disagreement with the eclectic approach with the belief that because of the limitless complexities of human behavior, as well as an unbounded supply of social and personal problems, there is little value in general, cross-cutting theoretical frameworks. An essay by David Tucker, Eclecticism Is Not a Free Good: Barriers to Knowledge Development in Social Work, argued that eclecticism was too abstract and involve too many simplifying assumptions to be relevant or useful (Hopps & Morris, 2000).

In the classic book, The Common Base of Social Work Practice (1970), Bartlett described the foundation for generalist practice as a generic or common base of purpose, values, knowledge and skills shared by all social workers. This common base served to unify the profession. The knowledge base of social work includes the ways of thinking about and means for understanding human behavior and the social environment. The following delineates foundational knowledge areas that are considered part of the common base for social work values, knowledge, and skills unifying the profession (Bartlett, 1970).

The knowledge base includes: knowledge of philosophy of social work; knowledge of human systems and theories of human behavior, social welfare policy and cultural diversity; awareness of the various fields of practice; knowledge of social welfare history, family dynamics, organizational theory, group dynamic; seeking and possessing self knowledge. In addition, community theory and increased service delivery
systems are a part of a solid knowledge base of the social work profession (Bartlett, 1970).

These terms were further defined and operationalized for this study. Philosophy of social work affords an opportunity to examine methods of thought and the structure of knowledge. Social workers must understand trends in contemporary practice in the context of the history of social work practice (Bartlett, 1970). Theories are a set of statements or principles devised to explain a group of facts or phenomena. Especially for one that has been repeatedly tested or is widely accepted and can be used to make predictions about natural phenomena (www.Dictionary.com, 2005). Cultural diversity includes ethnic, gender, racial, and socioeconomic variety in a situation, institution, or group. It is seen as the coexistence of different ethnic, gender, racial, and socioeconomic groups within one social unit (www.Dictionary.com, 2005).

Social welfare pertains to how people, communities and institutions in a society take action to provide certain minimum standards and certain opportunities. It is generally about helping people face contingencies (www.Socialpolicy.ca/cush/glossary.com, 2005). Family dynamics is an interactive system or process, especially one involving competing or conflicting forces between family members. Group dynamics is distinguished as the behavior of individuals within groups: the interpersonal processes, conscious and unconscious, that take place in the course of interactions among a group of people (www.Encarta.msn.com/encnet/features/dictionary.com, 2005). Social welfare policy is referred to as the laws, programs, and services designed to provide benefits to people who require assistance in meeting their basic needs (Karger & Stoesz, 1994).
Fields of practice involve practice in particular settings. Social workers need to have a comprehensive understanding of all the major fields of social work practice (Bartlett, 1970). Self knowledge is knowledge or understanding of one's own nature, abilities, and limitations; insight into oneself (www.Education.yahoo.com/reference/dictionary, 2005).

Requisite Skills of Social Work

In addition to professional values and knowledge, social work practice requires the mastery of social work skills and interventions. These range from applying theories to practice to utilizing technology and managing time effectively (Bartlett, 1970). Mary Richmond, an influential leader in the COS, was first involved with charity work as a staff member for the Baltimore COS. Social Diagnosis, written in 1917, outlines assessment techniques, and her field work and What Is Social Case Work?, circa 1922, provided a definition of the casework method (Brieland, 1995; Dubois & Miley, 1999).

Transferable skills are those skills, abilities and personal attributes used in a wide range of activities, both in and out of employment, and that are not specific to the subject studied (SHL, 2000). Many transferable skills can be summarized under four main headings: (1) They are communication and presentation skills (oral, written and graphic); (2) teamwork or interpersonal skills (e.g. negotiating, listening, sharing, and empathizing); (3) management or organizing and planning skills (including self management skills such as integrity, honesty and ethical behavior) / intellectual; and (4) creative skills (Flinders University, 2001).
Transferable skills are mutually supportive. Communication and presentation skills mean being able to express ideas and information either in written form or orally. Communication skills are often closely connected to interpersonal skills (Flinders University, 2001, p.1). Teamwork or interpersonal skills are a set of skills which enable people to manage their relationships with other people. They are the skills used to deal with others. Someone with teamwork skills will have the ability to work in a team environment, including those environments where the team is made up of a variety of people and disciplines (Flinders University, 2001, p.1).

Managing or organizing/planning skills involve people with management and planning skills that have the ability to organize their work, work out priorities sensibly, make realistic plans, and manage time and resources effectively. They are able to work on high priority tasks first and to delegate roles to other people (Flinders University, 2001, p.1). People with personal management skills have self-discipline, are able to motivate themselves, work with minimum supervision, be punctual and professional, and will be characterized by integrity, honesty and ethical behavior. Self-management skills also include the ability to cope well with change including being able to learn new skills and procedures, being prepared to challenge basic assumptions, being adaptable (Flinders University, 2001, p.1).

In recognizing the importance of intellectual (analytical, design or problem solving) and creative skills, people also need broad intellectual and creative skills that can be applied to ideas, to practical problems, to research, designing strategies or to making policy (Flinders University, 2001, p.1). According to Bartlett (1970), requisite skills include thinking critically, cultural competence, building relationships, computer
literacy, empowering processes, research, practice methods, social planning, analyzing policies, crisis intervention, effective communication and time management.

The following terms delineate requisite skills that are considered part of the common base for social work values, knowledge, and skills unifying the profession and operationally defined for this study. In addition to professional values and knowledge, social work practice requires skills that range from applying theories to practice to utilizing technology and managing time effectively (Bartlett, 1970). Critical thinking is the mental process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating information to reach an answer or conclusion. Building relationships involves a particular type of connection existing between people related to or having dealings with each other (www.Dictionary.com, 2005).

The empowering process conveys the sense that people can create and take action on their own behalf. It is used to meet their physical, spiritual and psychological needs (www.Socialpolicy.ca/cush/glossary, 2005). Practice methods are specific skills in working with individuals; group work, interdisciplinary teamwork, organizational development, community practice, and social reform enhance social workers’ ability to work with a variety of clients. Analyzing policies is a skill by which social workers must be skillful as advocates to influence the development of social policies that address issues faced by oppressed population groups in society (Bartlett, 1970).

Effective communicating involves the exchange of thoughts, messages, or information, as by speech, signals, writing, or behavior and establishing interpersonal rapport. Computer literacy is the ability to operate a computer and to understand the language used in working with a specific system or systems (www.Dictionary.com,
Social workers should demonstrate sensitivity and awareness of cultural implications and influences in all aspects of their work. This includes ethnic competency when working with diverse clients (Bartlett, 1970).

Research is the scholarly or scientific investigation or inquiry. Crisis intervention is defined as psychotherapy that focuses on acute critical situations with the aim of restoring the person to the level of functioning before the crisis. Time management is the ability to manage time effectively (www.Dictionary.com, 2005). Social planning is a type of community work. This refers to planning and data gathering about problems in order to choose the most rational course of action (www.Socialpolicy.ca/cush/glossary).

Theoretical Framework

The main theoretical framework that underlined this study was the Ecological Systems theory. The Ecological Systems approach is the umbrella theory encompassing the eclectic systems approach. Adaptations of the Ecological Systems Model, originating in biology make a close conceptual fit with the person-in-environment perspective that was dominant in social work until the mid-1970s (Hepworth, Rooney, & Larson, 2002). Ecological systems theory is an approach to study of human development that consists of the scientific study of the progressive, mutual accommodation, throughout the life course, between an active, growing human being, and the changing properties of the immediate settings in which the developing person lives, as this process is affected by the relations between these settings, and by the larger contexts in which the settings are embedded (Voydanoff, 2006).
Ecological systems theory encompasses applicable aspects to this study. Ecological systems theory shifts attention from discussion of cause/effect relationships (blame) to the relatedness of the person-in-situation. While a system is in constant flux, always changing, as it moves toward its goals it is assumed that its parts interact in a patterned way and are stable at any point in time when observation occurs (Western Michigan University, 2004).

There are open systems in which elements within the system interact with other elements outside the system. This is in contrast to a closed system that allows little or no interaction with outside entities (Western Michigan University, 2004). A term associated with closed systems is entropy which means that over time elements of a system begin to look alike. Closed systems become less differentiated and less effective in their functioning (Western Michigan University, 2004). Open systems are purposive systems involving goal seeking. Successful goal seeking is accomplished through the use of feedback mechanisms that produce action in response to input and which modify behaviors (Western Michigan University, 2004).

Every system is a supra-system and a sub-system. Each system is part of a larger whole (sub-system) as well as containing smaller systems within it (supra-system). Tension is a necessary and vital characteristic of any functioning system that can manifest itself in either constructive or destructive ways (Western Michigan University, 2004). Change and stability are also characteristics of ecological systems as well as homeostatic. Ecological systems change and stay the same simultaneously. Over time, all systems develop patterns of action and interaction that are recurring (Western Michigan University, 2004).
The systems approach emerged as scientists and philosophers identified common themes in the approach to managing and organizing complex systems. Four major concepts underlie the systems approach (von Bertanaffly, 1968). First, there is specialization. A system is divided into smaller components allowing more specialized concentration on each component (von Bertanaffly, 1968). A second component is grouping. To avoid generating greater complexity with increasing specialization, it becomes necessary to group related disciplines or sub-disciplines (von Bertanaffly, 1968). A third component is coordination. As the components and subcomponents of a system are grouped, it is necessary to coordinate the interactions among groups. The fourth component of the systems approach is emergent properties. Dividing a system into subsystems (groups of component parts within the system), requires recognizing and understanding the emergent properties of a system; that is, recognizing why the system as a whole is greater than the sum of its parts (von Bertanaffly, 1968).

A basic conceptual system would include the professional system. This is composed of the professional association of social workers; the educational system through which the social worker is prepared; and the values and sanctions of professional practice. Ecological systems theory is valuable because its conceptual framework is equally applicable to the individual and the whole of society. It also accepts the notion that systems are purposive (goal seeking), allows for self-determination and appreciates that change is an inherent component of a system.

A major advantage of the ecological systems model is its broad scope. This enables the practitioner to analyze the complex variables involved in multiple problems (Hepworth, Rooney & Larson, 2002). A secondary theoretical approach applied to the
study was the Person-In-Environment theory. Good person-in-the-environment theory sees the importance of context and the social change function of social work. At its best, it seeks to integrate the two levels of social work-micro and macro- into a more generalist approach. It recognizes that social change is not limited to community organization, and individual change does not occur only in social casework (Compton & Galloway, 1994). Generalist practice, then, reflects the evolutionary response over the past century to societal concerns, needs and events and thinking. Generalist practice reflects the theoretical heritage of the profession: assessment, person in the situation, relationship, process, and intervention. Social work is an ever-changing and ever-developing professional endeavor (Johnson, 1998).

Social work’s person-in-environment perspective describes the area or domain in which social workers conduct their practice. The person-in-environment domain gives social work a common organizing framework and a holistic context for its mission and vision. The global vision of social work is a world consistently working toward social justice and well-being for all citizens. The central mission is to have social workers engaged in activities that will improve social well-being structures and enhance individual, family and community social functioning at local, national and international levels (Direnfeld, 2006).
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

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

Research Design

A descriptive and explanatory research design was employed in this study. The study was designed to ascertain data in order to describe and explain the relationship between the traditional and non-traditional careers of social workers who are currently working or have worked in the social work profession in the State of Georgia. The descriptive and explanatory research design allowed for the descriptive analysis of the various types of work settings in which social workers may be employed.

In addition, this research design facilitated the explanation of the statistical relationship between the perceptions social workers have about the requisite skills, professional foundation, fundamental values and historical social work mission as a basis for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings.
Description of the Site

The research study was conducted in the State of Georgia. Georgia has 2,000 to 2,400 documented licensed clinical social workers (LCSW) and producing graduates from the numerous colleges and universities that offers BSW and MSW degrees. In addition, Metro Atlanta has a high concentrated number of social workers. Metropolitan Atlanta covers an 18 county area and is listed as one of the states with the fastest growing transplant population thus increasing the diversity of the workforce with skilled, professional workers including social workers. The surveys were administered throughout the entire State of Georgia to ensure a sample of social workers working in rural, suburban and metropolitan areas.

Sample and Population

The target population for the research was composed of social workers drawn from the membership list of the Georgia Chapter of the National Association of Social Workers. From the list of approximately 900 registered social workers a population of 300 (33%) was selected utilizing non-probability convenience sampling to ensure representation of social workers from throughout the State of Georgia. Selection 30% of the population was done to ensure a high return of responses to the survey for a sample of 200. In addition to utilizing the membership list of the Georgia Chapter of the National Association of Social Workers a sub list was developed of social workers identified as practicing non-traditional social work in the Metropolitan Atlanta area to ensure a minimum representation of this population for the study.
Instrumentation

The research study employed a survey questionnaire entitled *Perceptions Of Traditional and Non-traditional Social Work Practice*. The survey questionnaire consisted of three sections with a total of forty-four (44) questions. Section I solicited demographic information about the characteristics of the respondents. Section II employed a scale developed to measure the perceptions of the social work principles. Section III was designed to examine perceptions of the various social work practice settings.

Section I of the survey questionnaire consisted of twelve questions (1 thru 12). Of the twelve questions, selected ones were used as independent variables for the study. The questions in Section I were concerned with gender, age, race, higher education degree, additional higher educational degrees earned, type of practice setting employed in, marital status, wage, years employed in the field of social work, work setting, and possession of post degree social work license.

Section II consisted of 21 questions related to social work principles (13-33). Section II utilized questions developed specifically designed to measure the perceptions of social work principles held by social workers practicing in a wide range of practice settings both traditional and non-traditional. Section II examined social work values, social work foundational knowledge, social work skills and the mission of social work. Items on this section of the survey were responded to on a four point continuum Likert scale. The scale was as follows: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly Agree.
Section III consisted of eleven questions (34-44). Section III utilized questions developed specifically designed to measure perceptions towards social workers in traditional and non-traditional social work practice settings. Items on Section III were responded to on a four point continuum Likert Scale. The scale was as follows: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly Agree.

Treatment of Data

Statistical treatment of the data employed descriptive statistics, which included measures of central tendency, frequency distribution, and cross tabulation. The test statistics for the study were phi and chi square. Frequency distribution was used to analyze each of the variables of the study in order to summarize the basic measurements. A frequency distribution of independent variables was used to develop a demographic profile and to gain insights about the respondents of the study. Cross tabulations were utilized to demonstrate the statistical relationship between independent variables and dependent variables. Cross tabulations were conducted between social workers in traditional and non-traditional practice settings.

Two statistical tests were employed. The first test was Phi, an asymmetric measure of association was used to demonstrate the strength of relationships between two or more variables (Knoke and Bohrnstedt, 1995). The following values associated with the Phi:

0.00 to 0.24  “no relationship”
0.25 to 0.49  “weak relationship”
.50 to .74  "moderate relationship"
.75 to 1.00  "strong relationship"

The second statistical test employed in the research study was Chi square. Chi square was used to test whether there was a significant statistical significance at the .05 level of probability among the variables in the study.

Limitations of the Study

There was one limitation of the study. The Georgia Chapters of the National Association of Black Social Workers (NABSW) could not be used in this study as part of the sample population due to the policy of the National Association of not allowing membership lists to be used for non-membership related purposes. Given that the NABSW was the other major national social work organization with chapters in Georgia, this sample population would have tapped into a subpopulation of professional social workers who were of African-American descent to bolster the representation of minorities among the sampled respondents.
CHAPTER IV
PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter was to present the findings of the study in order to describe and explain the perceptions social workers have about the core social work principles and skills needed for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings. The findings of the mission and values of social work and the relationship between social workers in traditional and non-traditional social work practice were also explained.

Demographic Data

This section provides a profile of the study respondents. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the following: gender, age group, ethnicity, marital status, education, multiple degree status, type of social worker, income, work setting, license and type of license.

A target population for the research was composed of social workers drawn from the membership list of the Georgia Chapter of the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) with an additional subset of social workers known to practice non-traditional social work to ensure a representative sampling of this subset population. Three hundred social workers from the Georgia Chapter of NASW and twenty five social
workers identified as practicing non-traditional social workers were selected utilizing convenience sampling from among participants of the selected site.

Table 1
Demographic Profile of Study Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>82.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age Group</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 30</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethnicity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Degree</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSW</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSW</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>76.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD/DSW</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dual Degree</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>90.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of Social Worker</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never Married</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Income</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under $30,000</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30-39,999</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$40-49,999</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$50-59,999</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$60-60,999</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$70-79,999</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employed in Social Work</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-4 years</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-8 years</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-12 years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 years or more</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Work Setting</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical/Health</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental Health</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School K-12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child and Family</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal settings/court system</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Practice</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Work License</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>58.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of License</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCSW</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>70.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMSW</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 1, the respondents of the study reflected a varied pattern in regards to the demographic data especially in regards to marital status, age group, income, and social work license. The typical respondent of the study was the married, female social worker with an MSW who considered themselves traditional social workers with 13 years or more of experience in a variety of settings in the social work field. The typical respondent who reported having a professional license listed License Clinical Social Work (LCSW) as the license of choice.

Caucasians represented the largest percentage of the respondents to the survey with African-Americans as the next largest group. Asians, Hispanics and others were only minimally represented in this study.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

There were four research questions and four null hypotheses in the study. This section provides an analysis of the research questions and a testing of the null hypotheses.

Research Question 1: Is there a relationship between the core skills of social work practice of traditional social workers and non-traditional social workers?

Hypotheses 1: There is no statistical significant relationship between the core skills of social work practice of traditional social workers and non-traditional social workers.
Traditional and Non-traditional Social Work and Core Principals

Social work practice promotes human well-being by strengthening opportunities, resources, and capacities of people in their environments and by creating policies and services to correct conditions that limit human rights and the quality of life. The social work profession works to eliminate poverty, discrimination, and oppression. Guided by a person-in-environment perspective and respect for human diversity, the profession strives to effect social and economic justice worldwide (Southern Illinois University at Edwardsville Department of Social Work, 2005).

This study examined perception of social work effectiveness in traditional and non-traditional social work settings. Traditional and non-traditional social work is seen as a continuum of services provided in a variety of settings utilizing core principles were defined as the common base of social work practice and expanded to measure its effectiveness in social work settings. Social work core principles can best be explained utilizing four facets: Social work knowledge, social work skills, social work values and the mission of the profession (Bartlett, 1970).

The relationship between social workers utilizing social work core principles is a computed variable. In order to determine the true value or arithmetic mean of the variable, the values (1-4) from the measurement scale of the four facets (knowledge, skills, values and mission) were calculated throughout the study.

Foundational Knowledge

Foundational knowledge is considered part of the social work core attributes of the profession. Foundational knowledge is defined as a comprehensive repertoire of
knowledge and techniques used to meet the unique needs of individual clients and client groups (Morales & Sheafor, 2002). Foundational knowledge can best be explained by using the following five sub-facets: Knowledge 1: Social welfare history; Knowledge 2: Various fields of practice; Knowledge 3: Self knowledge; Knowledge 4: Social theories; and Knowledge 5: Cultural diversity (Bartlett, 1970).

Table 2 is a frequency distribution of the sub-facets of foundational knowledge of social work. Table 2 reveals whether the respondents disagreed or agreed with the delineated aspects of foundational knowledge as an integral component of social work practice.

Table 2
Social Work Foundational Knowledge sub-facets for Social Workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge 1: Social welfare history fosters greater awareness.</td>
<td>6 4.2 %</td>
<td>137 95.8 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge 2: Fields of practice encompasses neo traditional settings.</td>
<td>8 6.0 %</td>
<td>126 94.0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge 3: Self knowledge contributes to the best fit practice setting.</td>
<td>7 4.9 %</td>
<td>135 95.1 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge 4: Social theories can be applied to all work settings.</td>
<td>21 14.8 %</td>
<td>121 85.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge 5: Cultural diversity awareness fosters greater sensitivity.</td>
<td>4 2.8 %</td>
<td>139 97.2 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 2, social workers indicated that they agreed (95.8) that social welfare history fosters greater awareness and just slightly less agreed (94.0) agreed that fields of practice encompasses neo traditional settings. The majority of social workers were in agreement (95.1%) that self knowledge contributed to the best fit practice setting. Social workers agreed (85.2%) that social theories could be applied to all settings and agreed even more (97.2%) that cultural diversity awareness fostered greater sensitivity.

Table 3 is a cross tabulation of foundational knowledge as a key component of the practice of social work by type of social worker (traditional and non-traditional). It showed the association of foundational knowledge by traditional and non-traditional social worker and indicated whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

Table 3
Social Work Foundational Knowledge by Traditional and Non-traditional Social Work Practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Foundational Knowledge</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Φ = 1.00  df = 1  p = .959
As shown in Table 3, only 4.4% of social workers indicated that they disagreed with aspects of foundational knowledge as an integral component of social work practice. A majority (95%) of all social workers indicated that they agreed that foundational knowledge of social work was an integral component of social work practice to be used in social work settings. However, when the type of social worker was cross tabulated with foundational knowledge as a skill for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings there was only minimal distinction between the responses of traditional social workers and non-traditional social workers in the findings.

In Table 3, the statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and foundational knowledge, as a skill needed for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings. As demonstrated, there was a strong relationship ($\Phi = 1.00$) between the two types of social workers and the use of foundational knowledge for social work practice. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = .959$) at the .05 level of probability indicating that there was not a statistically significant difference between the two types of social workers use of foundational knowledge in social work practice settings.

Requisite Skills

Requisite skills were also a component of the social work core attributes of the profession. Requisite skills can best be explained by using the following five sub-facets: Skills 1: Critical thinking skills; Skills 2: Research skills; Skills 3: Empowerment to
affect change; Skills 4: Social work methods; Skills 5: Interpersonal skills (Bartlett, 1970).

Table 4 is a frequency distribution of the sub-facets of requisite skills for social work. Table 4 revealed whether the respondents disagreed or agreed with the delineated aspects of requisite skills as an integral component of social work practice.

Table 4

Social Work Requisite Skills sub-facets for Social Workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills 1: Critical thinking skills lead to proactive interventions.</td>
<td>3 (2.1%)</td>
<td>139 (97.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills 2: Research skills document needs that affect social policy.</td>
<td>8 (5.7%)</td>
<td>132 (94.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills 3: Empowerment affects change in multiple settings.</td>
<td>1 (0.7%)</td>
<td>140 (99.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills 4: Social work methods are applicable to all practice settings.</td>
<td>16 (11.2%)</td>
<td>127 (88.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills 5: Interpersonal skills are critical in establishing rapport.</td>
<td>2 (1.4%)</td>
<td>140 (98.6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 4, social workers indicated that they agreed (97.2%) that critical thinking skills led to proactive interventions and they also agreed (94.3%) that research skills documented needs that affect social policy. In addition, social workers almost unanimously agreed (99.3%) that empowerment affects change in multiple settings. To a
lesser extent social workers agreed (88.8%) that social work methods were applicable to all practice settings and also agreed (98.6%) that interpersonal skills were critical in establishing rapport.

Table 5 is a cross tabulation of requisite skills in social work practice of social work and by type of social worker (traditional and non-traditional). It showed the association of requisite skills with the traditional and non-traditional social worker and indicated whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

Table 5
Social Work Requisite Skills by Traditional and Non-traditional Social Work Practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requisite Skills</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Φ = .838 \hspace{0.5cm} df = 1 \hspace{0.5cm} p = 623

As shown in Table 5, 15% of the combined total of social workers indicated that they disagreed with aspects of requisite skills as an integral component of social work practice needed for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings. A majority (89.1%) of all social workers indicated that they agreed that the requisite skill
set of social work was an integral component of social work practice to be used in social work settings. However, when the type of social worker variable was cross tabulated with use of requisite skills for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings, 6.6% of those identified as traditional social workers indicated that they disagreed with the aspects of requisite social work skill set compared to 4.4% of social workers identified as non-traditional social workers who disagreed.

As shown in Table 5, the statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and acknowledgement of requisite skills as a skill set recognized for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings. As demonstrated, there was a strong relationship ($\Phi = .838$) between the two types of social workers and the use of requisite skills in social work practice. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = 623$) at the .05 level of probability indicating that there was not a statistically significant difference in the use of requisite skills. This was due to the minimal distinction between the responses of traditional social workers and non-traditional social workers in the findings.

Research Question 2: Is there a perceived difference between the objectives of social work by social workers identified in traditional social work settings and social workers in non-traditional social work settings?
Hypotheses 2: There is no statistically significant difference between the perception of the objectives of social work by social workers identified in traditional social work settings and social workers in non-traditional social work settings.

Fundamental Values

Fundamental values are considered part of the social work core attributes of the profession. In the study, fundamental values were defined as common or generic principles that pervaded all social work interventions and provided the profession with a distinctive identity and unity (Hopps and Collins, 1995).

Fundamental values can best be explained by using the following five sub-facets: Values 1: Respect for diversity; Values 2: Confidentiality; Values 3: Social Justice; Value 4: Access to resources; and Values 5: Self determination (Bartlett, 1970).

Table 6 is a frequency distribution of the sub-facets of fundamental values of social work. Table 6 indicated whether or not the respondents were disagreed or agreed with the delineated aspects of fundamental values as part of social work principals.
Table 6

Social Work Fundamental Values sub-facets for Social Workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values 1: Respect for diversity is an important issue.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values 2: Confidentiality is important when establishing trust.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values 3: Social justice requires institutions to be responsive.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values 4: Access to resources is a responsibility of institutions.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values 5: Self determination is a right of all consumers.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>142</td>
<td>99.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>142</td>
<td>99.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>141</td>
<td>98.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>135</td>
<td>94.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>138</td>
<td>97.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 6, social workers indicated that they agreed (99.3%) that respect for diversity was an important issue. In addition, social workers agreed (99.3%) that confidentiality was important when establishing trust; and they agreed (98.6%) agreed that social justice required institutions to be responsive. Also, social workers were found to overwhelmingly agree (94.4%) that access to resources was a responsibility of institutions, and they agreed (97.9%) that self-determination was a right of all consumers.

Table 7 is a cross tabulation of fundamental values by type of social worker (Traditional and Non-traditional). It showed the association of fundamental values with
the relationship between the traditional and non-traditional social worker and showed whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

Table 7
Social Work Fundamental Values by Traditional and Non-traditional Social Work Practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fundamental Values</th>
<th>Traditional Social Worker</th>
<th>Non-traditional Social Worker</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.0</td>
<td>.0</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \Phi = .526 \]  
\[ df = 1 \]  
\[ p = .468 \]

As demonstrated in Table 7, only one (1) out of ninety (90) traditional social workers indicated that they disagreed that fundamental values were important to the practice of social work. The majority of traditional social workers (89 out of 90) agreed that fundamental values were important to the practice of social work. Of the sample respondents for non-traditional social workers, all forty-seven (47) agreed that fundamental values were important to the practice of social work.

However, when the social work fundamental values were cross tabulated with the combined social worker variables, 99.3% of the respondents indicated that fundamental values were important to social work practice. Less than one percent (0.7) of the
respondents disagreed that fundamental values were important to social work practice in the various work settings.

As shown in Table 7, the statistical measurement phi (Φ) was employed to test for the strength of association between the traditional and non-traditional social workers and fundamental values as an integral basis for the practice of social work. As revealed, there was a strong relationship (Φ = 1.000) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted (p = .468) at the .05 level of probability indicating that there was not a statistically significant difference between the traditional and non-traditional social worker and agreement about the fundamental values of social work.

**Mission of Social Work**

The mission of social work is considered one of the four core components of the social work attributes of the profession. The mission of social work as codified by NASW (Revised, 1999) was embraced by social workers throughout the profession's history foundational to social work's unique purpose and perspective.

The mission of social work can best be explained by using the following six sub-facets: Mission 1: Addresses human needs; Mission 2: Concerned with human strengths; Mission 3: Enhance social function; Mission 4: Promote social justice; Mission 5: Help people obtain resources; Mission 6: Promote social change (Bartlett, 1970d).
Table 8 is a frequency distribution of the sub-facets of the mission of social work. Table 8 revealed whether the respondents disagreed or agreed with the delineated aspects of the mission of social work as an integral component of social work principals.

Table 8

Social Work Mission sub-facets for Social Workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mission</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Disagree #</th>
<th>Disagree %</th>
<th>Agree #</th>
<th>Agree %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mission 1:</td>
<td>Social work philosophy is concerned with addressing human needs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>99.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission 2:</td>
<td>Social work philosophy is concerned with human strengths.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>97.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission 3:</td>
<td>A purpose of social work is to enhance social function.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>97.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission 4:</td>
<td>A purpose of social work is to promote social justice.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>99.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission 5:</td>
<td>A purpose of social work is to help people obtain resources</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>97.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission 6:</td>
<td>A purpose of social work is to promote social change.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>97.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 8, social workers overwhelmingly agreed (99.3%) that social work philosophy was concerned with addressing human needs. Social workers also agreed (97.9%) that social work philosophy was concerned with human strengths and that a purpose of social work was to enhance social function. In addition, social workers
agreed (99.3%) that another purpose of social work was to promote social justice and agreed (97.1%) that social work was to help people obtain resources. And last, social workers agreed (97.1%) that a purpose of social work was to promote social change.

Table 9 is a cross tabulation of the mission of social work by type of social worker (traditional and non-traditional). It showed the association of the mission of social work with the relationship between the traditional and non-traditional social worker and indicated whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

Table 9

Social Work Mission by Traditional and Non-traditional Social Work Practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Work Mission</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.0</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \Phi = 1.000 \quad \text{df} = 1 \quad p = .468 \]

As shown in Table 9, only 0.7% of the combined total of social workers indicated that they disagreed that the mission of social work was important as an integral basis for the practice of social work. An overwhelming majority (99.3%) of all social workers indicated that they agreed with the mission of social work. When the type of social
worker variable was cross tabulated with the mission of social work as a basis for social work in traditional and non-traditional social work settings, social workers identified as non-traditional social workers (46) agreed with the use of the mission of social work as a basis for social work practice. All but one of the 88 social workers identified as traditional social workers agreed with the use of the mission of social work as a basis for the practice of social work.

As shown in Table 9, the statistical measurement phi (Φ) was employed to test for the strength of association between the traditional and non-traditional social workers and the mission of social work as an integral basis for the practice of social work. As demonstrated, there was a strong relationship (Φ = 1.000) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted (p = .468) at the .05 level of probability indicating that there was no statistically significant difference between the traditional and non-traditional social worker and agreement about the mission of social work.

Practice Settings

In addition to the research questions designed to examine the relationship between traditional social work and non-traditional social, the survey asked questions about the perception of the effectiveness of social workers in representative traditional and non-traditional social work settings. The practice settings in social work were organized into fields of practice. Emphasis on generic practice and specialization existed side by side in social work (Northern, 1995).
The practice settings of social work can best be illustrated by using the following eleven sub-facets: Settings 1: Corporate settings; Settings 2: Entrepreneurial businesses; Settings 3: Medical ethics committees; Settings 4: Disaster relief organizations; Settings 5: Policy makers in political settings; Settings 6: International policy matters; Settings 7: Legal settings-court system; Settings 8: Child and family welfare; Settings 9: Medical settings; Settings 10: School settings; and Settings 11: Mental health/substance abuse settings.

Table 10 is a frequency distribution of the sub-facets of social work practice settings. Table 10 showed whether the respondents disagreed or agreed that social workers were effective in the various traditional and non-traditional social work settings.
Table 10

Social Work Settings sub-facets for Social Workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Settings</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Settings 1:</td>
<td>Social workers are effective in corporate settings.</td>
<td>16 12.9</td>
<td>121 87.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings 2:</td>
<td>Social workers are effective in entrepreneurial businesses.</td>
<td>20 14.4</td>
<td>119 85.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings 3:</td>
<td>Social workers are effective on Medical ethics committees.</td>
<td>3  2.1</td>
<td>138 97.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings 4:</td>
<td>Social workers are effective in disaster relief organizations</td>
<td>8  5.7</td>
<td>133 94.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings 5:</td>
<td>Social workers are effective policy makers in political settings.</td>
<td>4  10.0</td>
<td>126 90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings 6:</td>
<td>Social workers are effective in international policy matters.</td>
<td>21 15.0</td>
<td>119 85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings 7:</td>
<td>Social workers are effective in legal settings-court system.</td>
<td>15 10.8</td>
<td>124 89.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings 8:</td>
<td>Social workers are most effective in child and family welfare.</td>
<td>37 26.2</td>
<td>104 73.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings 9:</td>
<td>Social workers are effective in medical settings.</td>
<td>1  .7</td>
<td>141 99.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings 10:</td>
<td>Social workers are effective in school settings.</td>
<td>7  4.9</td>
<td>135 95.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settings 11:</td>
<td>Social workers are most effective in mental health/substance abuse settings.</td>
<td>36 25.5</td>
<td>105 74.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 10, social workers indicated that they agreed (87.1%) that social workers are effective in corporate settings and were in agreement (85.6%) that social workers were effective in entrepreneurial businesses. The respondents highly agreed (97.9%) that they were effective on medical ethics committees and effective (94.3%) in disaster relief organizations. In addition, the respondents agreed (90.0%) that social workers were effective policy makers in political matters as well as effective (85.0%) in international policy matters.

Social workers also indicated agreement (89.0%) of the social work profession as effective in legal settings-court system. This study found that though social workers agreed (73.8%) that they were most effective in child and family welfare they overwhelmingly reported agreement that their social work colleagues were just as effective in medical settings (99.3%) and in school settings (95.1%). Respondents indicated lowered agreement (74.5%) that social workers were most effective in mental health/substance abuse settings.

Table 11 is a cross tabulation of non-traditional social work settings by type of social worker (traditional and non-traditional). It showed the association of non-traditional social work settings with the relationship between the traditional and non-traditional social worker and indicated whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.
Table 11

Social Work Settings by Non-traditional Social Work Practice (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \Phi = .945 \]
\[ \text{df} = 1 \]
\[ p = .731 \]

As shown in Table 11, only 12.8% of the combined total of social workers indicated that they disagreed that social workers were not effective in corporate/non-traditional social work settings. A majority (87.2%) of all social workers indicated agreement that social workers were effective in corporate/non-traditional social work settings. However, when the type of social worker variable was cross tabulated by type of social worker, almost ten percent (9%) of those identified as traditional social workers indicated that they disagreed with the effectiveness of social workers in corporate/non-traditional social work. Only 3.8% of social workers identified as non-traditional social workers disagreed.

As shown in Table 11, the statistical measurement phi \( \Phi \) was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and effectiveness in corporate/non-traditional social work settings. As indicated, there was a strong relationship (\( \Phi = .945 \)) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for
significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = .731$) at the .05 level of probability indicating that there was no statistically significant differences between the two between traditional and non-traditional social workers.

Table 12 is a cross tabulation of social work entrepreneur by type of social worker (traditional and non-traditional). It showed the association of entrepreneurship/nonsocial work settings with the relationship between the traditional and non-traditional social worker and indicated whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

Table 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Work: Entrepreneurship Setting</th>
<th>Disagree #</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agree #</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total #</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>66.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>33.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>85.8</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\Phi = .324$  
df = 1  
$p = 212$

As shown in Table 11, only 14.2% of the combined total of social workers indicated that they disagreed that social workers were not effective in entrepreneurship/nonsocial work settings. A majority (85.8%) of all social workers indicated agreement that social workers were effective in entrepreneurship/
non-traditional social work settings. However, when the type of social worker variable was cross tabulated by type of social worker, eleven percent (11%) of those identified as traditional social workers indicated that they disagreed with the effectiveness of social workers in entrepreneurship/non-traditional social work settings. Only 3.0% of social workers identified as non-traditional social workers disagreed.

As shown in Table 12, the statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and effectiveness in entrepreneurship/non-traditional social work settings. As revealed, there was a weak relationship ($\Phi = .324$) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = .212$) at the .05 level of probability indicating that there were no statistically significant differences between the two between traditional and non-traditional social workers and the effectiveness of social workers in entrepreneurship/non-traditional social work settings. There was minimal distinction between the responses of traditional social workers and non-traditional social workers in the findings. The views of social workers towards social work effectiveness in entrepreneurship settings were the closest to having the null hypothesis rejected with Phi score, ($\Phi = .324$). This revealed less agreement between those identified as traditional social workers versus those identified as non-traditional social workers.

Table 13 is a cross tabulation of the effectiveness of social workers in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings by type of social worker (traditional and non-traditional). It showed the association of the effectiveness of social workers in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings with the relationship between the
traditional and non-traditional social worker. It further indicated whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

Table 13

Social Work Settings by Traditional Social Work Practice (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Work Settings by Child and Family Welfare Setting</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\Phi = .728$    $df = 1$    $p = .579$

As shown in Table 13, a significant percentage (25.9%) of the combined total of social workers indicated that they disagreed that social workers were most effective in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings from the eleven settings examples in the survey. When the social worker variable was cross tabulated by type of social worker with responses to the child and family welfare setting question 22 (32%) respondents identified as traditional social workers indicated that they disagreed that social workers were most effective in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings. Thirteen (40%) social workers identified as non-traditional social workers disagreed that social workers were most effective in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings.
As shown in Table 13, the statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and effectiveness in entrepreneurship/non-traditional social work settings. As revealed, there was only a moderate relationship ($\Phi = .579$) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = .728$) at the .05 level of probability indicating that there were no statistically significant differences between traditional and non-traditional social workers view of the effectiveness of social workers in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings.

Table 14 is a cross tabulation of social workers as most effective in mental health-substance abuse/traditional social work settings by type of social worker (traditional and non-traditional). It showed the association of mental health-substance abuse/traditional social work settings with the relationship between the traditional and non-traditional social worker and indicated whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.
Table 14

Social Work Settings by Traditional Social Work Practice (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional Social Worker</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>74.1</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Φ = .945  df = 1  p = .781

As shown in Table 14, a significant percentage (25.9%) of the combined total of social workers indicated that they disagreed that social workers were most effective in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings of the 11 setting examples in the survey. Only seventy four percent (74.1%) of social workers in the study indicated agreement that social workers were most effective in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings. However, when the social worker variable was cross tabulated by type of social worker with responses to the child and family welfare setting question, 24 (36%) respondents identified as traditional social workers indicated that they disagreed that social workers were most effective in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings. Eleven respondents (32%) of social workers identified as non-traditional social workers disagreed that social workers were most effective in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings.
As shown in Table 14, the statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and most effective in mental health-substance abuse/non-traditional social work settings. As revealed, there was a strong relationship ($\Phi = .579$) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = .945$) at the .05 level of probability indicating that there was not a statistically significant difference between traditional and non-traditional social workers view of the effectiveness of social workers in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings.

In sum, social workers responded to the survey by indicating that they agreed with many of the sub-facets, ranging from 74%-99.3%, which composed the delineation of social work core principles of foundational knowledge, requisite skills, values and mission of social work. Additionally, when these sub-facets were combined to compute an over-all score for a relationship among social workers with these core principles, evidence indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between social workers in traditional social work and non-traditional social work. Therefore, it was concluded that the majority of social workers in the State of Georgia agreed with the use of social work core principles in traditional and non-traditional social work settings and adhered to the mission and values of the profession regardless of how they distinguished their practice orientation. The findings supports the researcher's advocacy of a new paradigmatic approach to placing social work on an equilibrium continuum ranging from traditional social work practice to non-traditional social work practice that encompasses neo-traditional and entrepreneurial practice settings.
CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The research study was designed to answer four questions concerning perceptions of social workers about skills needed for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings and the mission of social work in relationship to traditional and non-traditional social work practice. The social work membership list of the State of Georgia NASW Chapter was obtained to randomly sample social workers for the survey reflecting rural, suburban and urban representation of the profession’s members.

The conclusions and recommendations of the research findings are presented in this chapter. Recommendations are proposed for future discussions for social workers, professional social work forums and conferences, school of social work field placement administrators, and social work researchers with interests on macro topics related to the profession of social work. Each research question is presented in order to summarize the significant findings of interest. In order to determine the relationship between traditional and non-traditional social work four social work core principals were identified and measured.

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between foundational knowledge and traditional social workers and non-traditional social workers?
The majority of social workers were in agreement (85.2%) that social theories could be applied to all work settings. When the foundational knowledge variable and the type of social worker were cross tabulated, 2.9% of social workers identified as traditional social workers did not agree that foundational knowledge skill for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings. Of the social workers identified as non-traditional social workers, 1.5% disagreed that foundational knowledge was skill for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings (See Table 2).

The statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and acknowledgement of foundational knowledge, as a skill needed for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings. As shown, there was a strong relationship ($\Phi = 1.00$) between the two variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = 959$) indicating that there was not a statistically significant difference between the two variables at the .05 level of probability.

**Research Question 2:** What is the relationship between the foundational knowledge of traditional and non-traditional social workers?

Fifteen percent (15%) of the combined total of social workers disagreed that requisite skills was an integral component of social work. The majority (89.1%) of social workers indicated that they agreed that requisite skills were an integral component of social work practice to be used in social work settings. However, when the type of social worker variable was cross tabulated with requisite skills for careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings 6.6% of respondents identified as traditional social
workers indicated that they disagreed versus 4.4% of social workers identified as non-
traditional social workers who disagreed (See Table 4).

The statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of
association between the type of social worker and of requisite skills as a skill set for
careers in traditional and non-traditional social work settings. There was a strong
relationship ($\Phi = .838$) between both types of social workers and the use of requisite
skills. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null
hypothesis was accepted ($p = 623$) indicating that there was not a statistically significant
difference between the variables at the .05 level of probability (See
Table 4).

Research Question 3: Is there a perceived difference between the professional values of
social workers in traditional social work settings and social
workers in non-traditional social work settings?

When social work fundamental values were cross tabulated with traditional social
workers the majority (89 of 90) agreed that fundamental values were important to the
practice of social work and all non-traditional social workers (47) agreed that
fundamental values were important to the practice of social work. Less than one percent
(0.7) of the total social work respondents disagreed that fundamental values were
important to social work practice in the various work settings (See Table 6).

The statistical measurement phi ($\Phi$) was employed to test for the strength of
association between the traditional and non-traditional social workers and fundamental
values. As shown, there was a strong relationship ($\Phi = 1.000$) between the variables.
When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted \((p = .468)\) indicating that there was not a statistically significant difference between the traditional and non-traditional social worker at the .05 level of probability (See Table 6).

Research Question 4: Is there a perceived difference between the mission of social workers in traditional social work settings and social workers in non-traditional social work settings?

As with the fundamental social work values variable, only 0.7% of all social workers indicated that they disagreed that the mission of social work was important as integral basis for the practice of social work. When the type of social worker variable was cross tabulated with the mission of social work all social workers identified as non-traditional social workers \((46)\) agreed with the use of the mission of social work as a basis for social work practice and 87 of 88 social workers identified as traditional social workers agreed with the mission of social work as a basis for the practice of social work (See Table 8).

The statistical measurement phi \((\Phi)\) was employed to test for the strength of association between the traditional and non-traditional social workers and the mission of social work as integral basis for the practice of social work. As indicated, there was a strong relationship \((\Phi = 1.000)\) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted \((p = .468)\) indicating that there was no statistically significant difference between the traditional and non-traditional social worker and agreement about the mission of social work at the .05 level of probability (See Table 8).
In addition, when cross tabulated by the type of social worker with 4 different practice settings representing traditional and non-traditional social work settings it was indicated in Table 10 that (9%) of those identified as traditional social workers indicated that they disagreed with the effectiveness of social workers in corporate/non-traditional social work settings compared to only 3.8 % of social workers identified as non-traditional social workers.

The statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and effectiveness in corporate/non-traditional social work settings. As indicated, there was a strong relationship ($\Phi = .945$) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = .731$) at the .05 level of probability indicating that there were no statistically significant differences between traditional and non-traditional social workers (See Table 10).

In reference to Table 11, when the type of social worker variable was cross tabulated by type of social worker, eleven percent (11%) of those identified as traditional social workers indicated that they disagreed with the effectiveness of social workers in entrepreneurship/non-traditional social work settings as opposed to only 3.0 % of social workers identified as non-traditional social workers who disagreed.

The statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and effectiveness in entrepreneurship/non-traditional social work settings. As indicated, there was a weak relationship ($\Phi = .324$) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = .212$) at the .05 level of probability
indicating that there were no statistically significant differences between traditional and non-traditional social workers and the effectiveness of social workers in entrepreneurship/non-traditional social work settings (See Table 11).

Type of social worker variable was cross tabulated with social work effectiveness in child and family welfare settings. Twenty-two respondents (32%) identified as traditional social workers indicated that they disagreed that social workers were most effective in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings versus the disagreement by 13 respondents (40%) of social workers identified as non-traditional social workers (See Table 12).

The statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and effectiveness in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings. As indicated, there was a moderate relationship ($\Phi = .579$) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = .728$) at the .05 level of probability indicating that there were no statistically significant differences between traditional and non-traditional social workers regarding effectiveness in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings (See Table 13).

Only seventy four percent (74.1%) of social workers in the study indicated agreement that social workers were most effective in child and family welfare. However, when the social worker variable was cross tabulated by type of social worker with effectiveness of social workers in child and family welfare settings, 24 (36%) respondents identified as traditional social workers indicated that they disagreed that
social workers were most effective in child and family welfare settings compared to 11 respondents (32%) of social workers identified as non-traditional social workers.

The statistical measurement phi $\Phi$ was employed to test for strength of association between the type of social worker and social workers being most effective in mental health-substance abuse/non-traditional social work settings. As indicated, there was a strong relationship ($\Phi = .579$) between the variables. When the chi-square statistical test for significance was applied, the null hypothesis was accepted ($p = .945$) indicating that there was not a statistically significant difference between traditional and non-traditional social workers variables and the effectiveness of social workers in child and family welfare/traditional social work settings at the .05 level of probability (See Table 13).

In conclusion, 143 professional social workers surveyed responded by indicating that they agreed with many of the sub-facets and facets of the social work core principals that comprised the basis for practice in traditional and non-traditional social work settings. Based upon the statistical tests of Phi ($\Phi$) and Chi-Square ($p$), the data showed only minimal distinctions between the responses of social workers and the relationship of traditional and non-traditional social work practice.

Recommendations

Studies concerning the social work profession and direction of social work practice revealed conflicting messages for social workers involved in practice ranging from macro level to micro level social work. Continuing debate about social work as a profession, fluid vs. static definitions of social work practice and litmus tests of loyalty to
the profession are based upon historically defined social work mission, values, foundational knowledge and practice. If not careful, the debate can serve to hinder discussion of expansion of: social work influence; practice settings; and increased earning capacity.

Applying the theoretical perspective of ecological systems theory and the person-in-environment perspective to the debate helps to frame the discussion. Transcending the tensions between the boundaries of traditional and non-traditional social work practice the profession will evolve into new opportunities for social work presenting yet newer practice paradigms with a continuing role for traditional practice settings. The goal is to establish a feedback mechanisms so that the specializations of the profession have a structure in place in which would allow them to remain connected to the larger professional system.

As further indicated by this perspective it promotes continuity of expressed and implicit expectations of social workers, social practice and universal acceptance of the historical mission and values of social work. The Person-In-Environment perspective allows for a flexible organizing framework in which to contextualize activities that will enhance the well-being of not only clients systems but the financial and professional career opportunities of the individual social worker.

The practice and settings of social work by traditional and non-traditional social workers were found not to be incongruent. As a result of the findings of this study, the researcher is recommending the following:

1. Research should continue to develop expanding baseline data on macro and mezzo level practice opportunities for effective participation in non-traditional
settings (encompassing neo-traditional and entrepreneurial settings) and to measure for relevant intervention strategies.

2. Social workers must become better equipped to utilize their skills for more effective self-advocacy of their own financial and professional well-being paralleling effective advocacy of client well-being.

3. Social work internship programs should be developed to work skills and knowledge under girded by the professions’ mission and values.
APPENDIX A

IRB Approval Letter

CLARK ATLANTA UNIVERSITY
Institutional Review Board
Office of Sponsored Programs

February 20, 2006

Ms. Teresa Grear, (adventuretraveler@hotmail.com)
School of Social Work
Clark Atlanta University
Atlanta, GA 30314

RE: A Study of the Relationship Between Traditional and
Nontraditional Social Work in the State of GA

Principal Investigator: Teresa Grear

Human Subjects Code Number: HR2006-2-154-1

Dear Ms. Grear:

The Human Subjects Committee of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed your protocol referenced above and approved of it as expedited and exempt from full IRB review in accordance with 45 CFR 46.101b.2. You may begin your study one week from the date of this notice. Protocol Approval Code is HR2006-2-154-1/A.

This approval is valid for one year from the date of this notice. This permit will therefore expire on February 21, 2007. Thereafter, continued approval is contingent upon the annual submission of a renewal form to this office. Any reaction or problems resulting from this investigation should be reported immediately to the IRB, to the Department Chairperson and any sponsoring agency.

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

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

cc. Dr. Richard Lyle (ryle@cau.edu)
Office of Sponsored Programs, Georgiana Bolden (gbolden@cau.edu)
APPENDIX B

Survey Questionnaire

Perceptions of Nontraditional and Traditional Social Work Practice

Dear Social Worker:

I am a student in the Ph.D. Program at the Whitney M. Young, Jr. School of Social Work at Clark Atlanta University. I invite you to participate in the questionnaire concerning social work practice in traditional and nontraditional social work settings. The questionnaire will take less than 10 minutes to complete. The purpose of the study is to examine the perceptions about skills needed for careers in traditional and nontraditional social work settings. In addition, the study examines the mission of social work in relationship to traditional and nontraditional social work practice. The findings will be used in an analysis for my dissertation. Because we want all responses to remain confidential, do not write your name on the questionnaire. Keep a copy for your records and return the other survey in a timely manner in the enclosed self addressed envelope. Again, thank you for your time.

Teresa Grear 12/05

Section I: Demographic Information

Place a mark (X) next to the appropriate item. Choose only one answer for each question.

1. My gender is: 1) _____ Male 2) _____ Female

2. My age is: 1) _____ under 30 2) _____ 30-39 3) _____ 40-49 4) _____ 50 +

3. My Race/Ethnic group: 1) _____ Hispanic 2) _____ Asian 3) _____ African American 4) _____ Caucasian 5) _____ Native American 6) _____ Other

4. My highest degree is a: 1) _____ BSW 2) _____ MSW 3) _____ PhD/DSW 4) _____ Other

5. I have a dual degree: 1) _____ No 2) _____ Yes (specify: ________)

6. I consider myself as a: 1) _____ Traditional Social Worker 2) _____ Nontraditional Social Worker

7. My marital status: 1) _____ Married 2) _____ Never Married 3) _____ Divorced 4) _____ Widowed
APPENDIX B (continued)

8. My annual income: 1) _____ Under $30,000  2) _____ $30,000–39,999  
   3) _____ $40,000–49,999  4) _____ $50,000–59,999  5) _____ $60,000–69,999  
   6) _____ $70,000 & up

9. Employed in social work: 1) _____ 1-4 yrs  2) _____ 5-8 yrs  3) _____ 9-12 yrs  
   4) _____ 13+yrs

10. My work setting: 1) _____ Medical/Health  2) _____ Mental Health/Substance  
    3) _____ School (k-12)  4) _____ Child & Family Welfare  
    5) _____ Court/Justice System  6) _____ Private Practice  8) _____ Corporate  
    9) _____ Other (specify: __________)

11. I have a social work license  1) _____ No  2) _____ Yes

12. Type of license: 1) _____ LCSW  2) _____ LMSW  
    3) _____ Other (specify: __________)

Section II: How much do you disagree or agree with the following statements?  
Write the appropriate number in the blank beside each statement

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Fundamental Values

_____ 13. Respect for diversity is an important value in social work practice.

_____ 14. Confidentiality is important when establishing a climate of trust.

_____ 15. Social justice requires institutions to be responsive to human needs.

_____ 16. Access to resources is a responsibility of societal institutions

_____ 17. Self-determination is a right of all consumers.

Foundational Knowledge

_____ 18. Social welfare history fosters greater awareness of the field and its traditions.


_____ 21. Social theories can be applied to all work settings.

_____ 22. Cultural diversity awareness fosters greater sensitivity towards clients.
APPENDIX B (continued)

Requisite Skills

23. Critical thinking skills lead to proactive interventions.
24. Research skills document needs that affect social policy.
25. Empowerment affects change in multiple systems.
26. Social work methods are applicable to all practice settings.
27. Interpersonal skills are critical in establishing rapport to effect change.

Write the appropriate number in the blank beside each statement.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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Social Work Mission

28. Social work philosophy is concerned with addressing human needs.
29. Social work philosophy is concerned with the building on human strengths.
30. A purpose of social work is to enhance social function.
31. A purpose of social work is to promote social justice.
32. A purpose of social work is to help people obtain resources.
33. A purpose of social work is to promote social change.

Section II: In accordance to social work mission, values, knowledge and skill set, how much do you disagree or agree with the following statements?

Practice Settings

34. Social workers are effective in corporate settings.
35. Social workers are effective in entrepreneurial businesses.
36. Social workers are effective on medical ethics committees.
37. Social workers are effective in disaster relief organizations on the policy level.
38. Social workers are effective policy makers in political settings.

39. Social workers are effective in international policy matters.

40. Social workers are effective in legal settings outside of the court system.

41. Social workers are most effective in child and family welfare agencies.

42. Social workers are effective in medical settings.

43. Social workers are effective in school settings.

44. Social workers are most effective in mental health/substance abuse settings.
APPENDIX C

SPSS Program Analysis

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APPENDIX C (continued)

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