

# Social Work Psychology



**M. Velusamy  
Aditya Kashyap**



***Social Work***

***Psychology***

.....

**M. Velusamy**

**Aditya Kashyap**





*Social Work*

*Psychology*



M. Velusamy

Aditya Kashyap

**Dominant**  
Publishers & Distributors Pvt Ltd  
New Delhi, INDIA



*Knowledge is Our Business*

**SOCIAL WORK PSYCHOLOGY**

*By M. Velusamy, Aditya Kashyap*

This edition published by Dominant Publishers And Distributors (P) Ltd  
4378/4-B, Murarilal Street, Ansari Road, Daryaganj,  
New Delhi-110002.

ISBN: 978-93-82007-41-8

Edition: 2023 (Revised)

©Reserved.

*This publication may not be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without the prior permission of the publishers.*

# **Dominant**

**Publishers & Distributors Pvt Ltd**

**Registered Office:** 4378/4-B, Murari Lal Street, Ansari Road,  
Daryaganj, New Delhi - 110002.

Ph. +91-11-23281685, 41043100, Fax: +91-11-23270680

**Production Office:** "Dominant House", G - 316, Sector - 63, Noida,  
National Capital Region - 201301.

Ph. 0120-4270027, 4273334

**e-mail:** [dominantbooks@gmail.com](mailto:dominantbooks@gmail.com)  
[info@dominantbooks.com](mailto:info@dominantbooks.com)

---

**w w w . d o m i n a n t b o o k s . c o m**

# CONTENTS

<b>Chapter 1.</b> The Historical Evolution of Social Welfare and Charity Traditions.....	1
— <i>Aditya Kashyap</i>	
<b>Chapter 2.</b> An Overview of the Charity Organizations to Professional Social Workers and Settlement Houses .....	9
— <i>Debasish Ray</i>	
<b>Chapter 3.</b> Evolution of Social Work and Social Policy Changes.....	18
— <i>Malcolm Firdosh Homavazir</i>	
<b>Chapter 4.</b> An Evolution and Challenges in the History of Social Work Education.....	26
— <i>Mukul Bhatt</i>	
<b>Chapter 5.</b> Opportunities in Social Work Education and its Bridging Gaps Across Levels and Specializations: An Overview .....	33
— <i>Sweta Kumari</i>	
<b>Chapter 6.</b> Evolving Dynamics and Challenges in 21st Century Social Work Practice.....	41
— <i>Ameya Ambulkar</i>	
<b>Chapter 7.</b> Social Work Practice with Traditional Approaches: A Review Study .....	49
— <i>Chetana Dilip Asbe</i>	
<b>Chapter 8.</b> Community Development and Policy Practice in America: An Overview.....	58
— <i>Kajal Dipen Chheda</i>	
<b>Chapter 9.</b> Exploring Professions, Ethical Evolution and Certification in Social Work .....	66
— <i>Zuleika Homavazir</i>	
<b>Chapter 10.</b> An Overview of Regulatory Framework of Social Work .....	74
— <i>Cleston Jacob Dcosta</i>	
<b>Chapter 11.</b> Organization and Foundations of Social Work Education: A Review Study .....	82
— <i>Vinima Gambhir</i>	
<b>Chapter 12.</b> Elaboration of the Social Work Education and Training: An Analytical Review .....	90
— <i>Meena Desai</i>	

# CHAPTER 1

## THE HISTORICAL EVOLUTION OF SOCIAL WELFARE AND CHARITY TRADITIONS

---

Aditya Kashyap, Assistant Professor  
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
Email Id- [aditya.kashyap@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:aditya.kashyap@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

### ABSTRACT:

The growth of social welfare laws and programs in the United States, Europe, and Muslim nations is largely responsible for the profession of social work's development. Many of the early initiatives to aid the poor, the ill, widows, orphans, the mad and imbeciles, and the old were based on Judeo-Christian and Muslim customs and beliefs. This history starts with a review of the evolution of social welfare in Middle Eastern and European nations before moving on to the dissemination of social welfare practices and policies to the American colonies' New World. The development of the field of social work as we know it today followed the activity of government officials and who provided assistance and controlled the poor. A Babylonian king called Hammurabi made the defense of widows and orphans a central tenet of his law two thousand years before the birth of Christ. Helping the poor was a concern shared by the ancient Greeks and Romans. The biblical adage that it is more fortunate to give than to receive from the Roman senator Cicero, who saw man as a social animal who should cooperate with and assist his fellow men.

### KEYWORDS:

Charity Traditions, Historical Evolution, Welfare Evolution, Welfare Traditions, Welfare Systems, Welfare Practices.

### INTRODUCTION

Traditions of charity have also been influenced by the Arab culture. Islamic philosophy distinguishes between charity and social justice. The Prophet Muhammad's support for women, children, and the weak gave rise to the faith's long history of social reform. This custom is put into practice by the stipulation that every financially capable Muslim must give 2.5% of their net worth annually to help the less fortunate[1]. This custom, known as zakah, is not seen as a charitable gesture but rather as a means of achieving social justice via the equitable allocation of resources. Any further payments are regarded as charity, or sadaqa, one of Islam's five pillars. Aid to the destitute, the needy, those who collect the donations, those whose hearts must be reconciled, debtors, wayfarers, the redemption of prisoners, and for God's cause are among the eight kinds of applications for charitable donations listed in the Koran[2]. Walter Trattner, a social historian, highlights the contribution of Jewish heritage to the growth of contemporary charity. He points out that traditional Jewish teachings emphasize the obligation to give as well as equally important, the right of those in need to receive. It discovers instructions throughout the Old Testament to be kind to others, especially the elderly, the ill, those with disabilities, and the impoverished. Giving in this case is motivated by justice rather than altruism. The Scriptures go on to teach that you must neither harden your heart nor close your hand to the unfortunate, in addition to stating that one might stop his transgressions by having compassion for the destitute. The Bible states that it is against the law to "send a poor man away empty-handed. People should provide such assistance "with a friendly countenance, with joy, and with a good heart," to use a word that social workers would like[3].

**The eight levels of charity were outlined by Jewish scholar Maimonides as follows:**

- a) Give, but with regret and reluctance. This is a hand-made present, not a heart-made one. The second is to happily contribute, but not in proportion to the sufferer's suffering. The third is to happily and equitably contribute, but not before being asked.
- b) The fourth is to gladly and equitably provide, even when not asked for; yet, by placing it in the poor man's hands, you are making him feel the agonizing sense of humiliation.
- c) The fifth is to do acts of kindness in such a manner that those in need may benefit from them and recognize their giver without being known to them.
- d) The sixth, which is much more advanced, is to be aware of the recipients of our generosity while being anonymous to them.
- e) The seventh is much more commendable; it is giving charity in a manner that the recipients may not know who gave it to them or who it came from. To anticipate generosity by eradicating poverty is the seventh and most honorable of all;
- f) That is, to help a less fortunate individual make an honest living instead of having to suffer the terrible alternative of reaching out his hand in charity.

The Jews created a number of social welfare activities based on these concepts and precepts. These included visiting the sick and elderly, caring for widows and divorcees, caring for the elderly, burying the deceased, educating orphans, comforting the grieving, and burying the dead. A variety of agricultural methods, such as gleanings, or the practice of leaving grain fallen during the harvest that might be picked up by the hungry, were used to provide for the poor. Christianity continued the generous practice while emphasizing love and compassion in particular. It is not unexpected that many sections of the New Testament focused on charitable giving because Jews were the founders of the Christian Church. Early Christian approaches to social welfare shared a fundamental tenet with Hebraic notions that poverty was not a sin. Evidence of need is still the most important consideration for delivering assistance, even if discretion should be used and criteria for distinguishing between different kinds of impoverished individuals have been established. It was believed that need resulted from tragedy, which society should bear responsibility for [4].

**Christian Monasteries and the Emergence of Organized Charity Networks:**

At first, charity was a loose network of aid, but as Christianity gained ground as a religion, Church fathers thought it was crucial to build a more organized network of aid. Monasteries started acting as fundamental agents of aid starting in the sixth century, especially in rural regions. Some monastic orders were established specifically to help those in need. These orders utilized the money they received in gifts, bequests, and collections to support the needy people who showed up at their doors. They also took food and other supplies to the ill and destitute in their towns, foreshadowing what we may today refer to as community outreach. Military monastic orders were created to look for and defend pilgrims and the ill during the First Crusade in the eleventh century, which called for the abolition of the Muslim nations. Once Jerusalem had been reclaimed by the Crusaders, there was a dramatic increase in the number of Christian pilgrims making their way to the Holy City. These orders were well-organized associations of devoted Christians who cared for pilgrims, nursed the sick, and even eventually participated in the military defense of the Crusader States. These pilgrims, who came to pass away in the same city where Christ had died, were often elderly and sick. The Hospitallers were one of the earliest official orders of those providing for them. The large pilgrim hospital was established by the order in Jerusalem. They sometimes used

Jewish and Muslim doctors to treat the ill, using what we may today refer to as a multicultural approach[5]. Other monasteries built on the Hospitallers' efforts by establishing a medieval network of hospitals for the destitute and ill, including lepers. However, these hospitals offered more than just medical care to the ill. They also provided housing for weary wayfarers, pilgrims, orphans, old people, and the poor. Hospitals were first located along major thoroughfares and eventually in urban areas, similar to the community-based social services of today. These hospitals were eventually taken over by municipal authorities, establishing a connection between secular and religious philanthropy. By the middle of the 1500s, there were more than 1,100 hospitals in England alone, according to Trattner. Some provided care for as many as a few hundred individuals. The development of feudalism in Europe around the eleventh century gave rise to a form of administration that, at least in theory, addressed issues of poverty or social hardship. By the late eleventh and early twelfth centuries, the majority of "common" people in Western Christian nations were serfs to the lords who held the estates, living on feudal estates. Serfs were expected to be safeguarded by the landlords against the risks of disease, unemployment, and old age even if they had little freedom. Serfs were therefore given a type of societal insurance against life's problems at the price of their own freedom. This might be seen as a simple social insurance system[6].

The social, craft, and commerce guilds often assisted those city dwellers who were not serfs. Similar to modern labor unions, guilds offered advantages to its members. Additionally, they offered some support to the town's underprivileged residents by giving out food such as maize and offering free shelter to stranded passengers. People started making a difference between the deserving and the undeserving impoverished in the Middle Ages. The voluntary poverty of persons in religious orders was typically what the monks meant when they commended poverty. However, they also mentioned the blessed poor presumably referring to people who had not chosen to be in need. They felt sorry for those who put forth a lot of effort but were nevertheless deprived of things. The unworthy poor were those who begged, did not work, drank themselves into torpor, and both men and women hired out their bodies for sex.

In Europe and the Islamic world, poverty and mortality reached unprecedented heights as a result of the Black Death, also known as the bubonic plague, in the mid-1300s and other outbreaks in the next two centuries. Fleas are a vector for the plague bacteria. The flea's primary host is the rat, and throughout the Middle Ages, rats aboard ships served as flea hosts, allowing the plague to spread across Europe and Asia. After the diseased host rat passed away, fleas started looking for new hosts, including cats or people. Particularly in dense metropolitan settings, the illness had a very high mortality rate. Nearly a third of the population perished in England between 1348 and 1349 as a result of the Black Death. Strangers who had previously been helped by the state during the plague were seen as vagrants "to whom the State prohibited almsgiving under pain of imprisonment[7].

In 1388, the first law of settlement in England was enacted. This edict punished able-bodied beggars, apparently because the state was in desperate need of laborers. According to Blanche Coll, a social welfare historian, at this time, "those seeking employment at higher salaries and under freer circumstances. In other words, individuals should consider themselves fortunate to acquire any work offered and poverty among the able-bodied was becoming to be considered as a crime. The Statute of Laborers, a statute issued in 1349 in response to the issues of the fourteenth century, may be seen as the first step in the establishment of a social security system in England. Workers were required to labor for whomever needed them and were paid a maximum pay under the law. It made it unlawful for an able-bodied individual to beg and barred workers from traveling. Although it scarcely looks like a first step toward

social security, this oppressive act marked the beginning of an effort to connect poverty and labor issues. Additionally, it hinted to a schizophrenic approach to tackling poverty that would eventually be reflected in the social security laws of the United States. Instead of providing individuals with the assistance and skills they need to thrive, the public welfare section of the Social Security Act has evolved into a system that all too often focuses on suspected "cheating" in the system[8].

The centuries that followed brought up fresh difficulties and issues. The feudal structure was disintegrating in England as mercantilism was growing, new trade routes were opening up, and new industries were emerging. The possibility of greater riches rose as the New World started to open up. However, structures like serfdom that at least provided some protection against the rulers of the land fell out of favor. Many individuals lost their rights to the land they lived on and to their homes as industrialization and urbanization spread. To make matters worse, the Catholic Church was expelled from England in 1536 as a result of the Protestant Reformation. The system of monasteries and associated hospitals, which had been mostly responsible for aiding the ill, the elderly, the traveling public, and the impoverished in general, were doomed as a result.

Following the Statute of Laborers, other laws that sought to address the issues of work, begging, and criminality were enacted. The Elizabethan Poor Law of 1601 finally combined these laws into a single significant piece of legislation. This significant ordinance mandated that each parish or town support for the needy by levying rates on property held within the jurisdiction, creating "the first secure basis for public assistance to the poor. Three main kinds of dependents were specified by the Elizabethan Poor Law, which lasted for over 250 years with very minor amendments. These were the homeless, the forced to leave their jobs, and the defenseless. The statute outlined procedures for handling each. Additionally, it designated the parish as the administrative body for carrying out the legislation, "acting through the overseers of the poor appointed by local officials[9].

The parish was given the authority to use the tax revenues to build and maintain almshouses, to provide assistance to the aged, the sick, and handicapped, and other helpless people in their homes, and to purchase materials with which to put the able-bodied unemployed to work. The law held parents, if they had the means, accountable for the support of their children and grandchildren. Finally, vagrants and able-bodied people who refused to work could be sent to a house of correctiona workhouse, or a common jail. Children were also responsible for the care of their "unemployable parents and grandparents," and those whose parents were unable to provide for them "were to be set to work or bound out as apprentices." "Indoor relief" was defined as placing individuals in almshouses, workhouses, or other institutions; "outdoor relief" was defined as offering assistance to people in their homes. As we will see, these concepts were subsequently introduced to the American colonies and persisted for a while in the social assistance system's lingo in that country.

Even orphanages that provided indoor refuge were often unpleasant and harsh environments. Many were hardly more than sheds separated into small, poorly heated quarters. The cuisine was subpar, and there were poor sanitation facilities. A common food was watery gruel. People who refused to enter workhouses were treated cruelly. Vagrants who are "unwilling to work" may be stoned, beaten, branded, institutionalized, or even executed. It was obvious that all of the physically fit and so undeserving poor needed to be carefully and harshly disciplined. The overseers of the destitute served as a forerunner to current social workers, despite the fact that their job may appear gloomy and even severe. It was their responsibility to identify those who were struggling to make ends meet, including the destitute, the homeless and vagrants, the jobless, and others. Then they made decisions on what ought to

happen to each of these groups of individuals. Additionally, they were a part of a system that held that the government had a duty to assist those who were unable to care for themselves as well as a duty to exert some kind of control over the other groups. They may be comparable to modern social workers in the criminal justice system and child welfare as government administrators. In England, opposition to the Poor Law system was escalating by the 1800s. There were concerns raised about the system's efficiency and equality. The system of parish responsibility for helping the needy often resulted in unfair and subpar standards. Perhaps even more importantly, many of the poorer areas had "a higher proportion of needy residents and less money to spend on relief than the more prosperous ones," so not only was treatment of the poor unequal from parish to parish, but "the communities that could least afford it usually had the highest poor rates," or taxes. Additionally, taxes in wealthier parishes increased. Poor relief expenditures in England more than doubled between 1760 and 1818, while the population almost doubled[10].

A legislation pertaining to underprivileged labor that was passed in the late 1700s had a role in this, in part. The Elizabethan Poor Law's meaning was altered by a new strategy during a time of economic hardship in England in the middle of the eighteenth century. The Speenhamland Law, as it was afterwards called, established this allowance system. When poverty was at its worst in 1795, the judges of Berkshire convened in an inn in Speenhamland and decided that aid for needy workers and their families should be determined by the price of bread. Every "poor and industrious person" would get a relief stipend of three shillings per week, depending on his or his family's needs at a time when a "gallon loaf" of bread cost one shilling labor. A shilling sixpence would also be given to him for the sustenance of his wife and other family members. He would get a raise in compensation for higher bread prices. Taxpayers paid for the system. This practice quickly spread over the majority of the countryside and even into certain industrial districts, despite never being constituted a legal legislation. By the 1830s, middle class critics regarded this as a barrier to the emerging capitalist economy, which ultimately led to the collapse of the system. The Speenhamland strategy was essentially a "forward-looking measure that provided financial aid to the destitute according to need as determined by the cost of living" and family size, Trattner notes[11].

The Poor Law was also under assault at this time from both traditional economics and the growing industrial interests in England. The working class's natural condition was considered by economists to be poverty. They claimed that owning money and property was a "natural right," unaffected by the government. The state artificially instituted the Poor Law, which levied taxes on the wealthy to fund the upkeep and care of the poor. Members of the ancient landed nobility who first advocated for the poor law system believed that government intervention was necessary to control human affairs, including discouraging labor migration, in order to maintain the stability of the state. The belief that interfering with the market's normal functioning, which included a flexible labor force controlled by supply and demand, would threaten, if not overthrow the economic order, was caused by the rise of a business class and the emergence of a capitalist economy that replaced the state's role in determining the status of labor with the price mechanism. In essence, a self-regulating market economy was taking the role of the Elizabethan Poor Law[12].

Another crucial method for helping the worthy poor under the poverty laws was for families to take them in. A widow, for instance, may be sent to live with a family. This was sometimes done in a rota system: two weeks with one family, two weeks with another, returning to the first, and so on. Another technique was placing underprivileged individuals with families so they could assist with farming, childrearing, and other related activities. The municipality or

another local government agency would pay the family for caring for the needy individual. As a result, unlike in a typical auction, the lowest bidder the family that could provide the person being auctioned with food and clothing for the least amount received care and services [13].

The employment of different institutions, or indoor relief, by governments and communities to address the issues of the underprivileged, ill, old, "idle beggars," and others with specific needs developed through time, much as in the Old World. Able-bodied beggars were put to the poorhouse, or almshouse, instead of being driven out of town as in the past. By developing less expensive care, this new approach sought to reduce the cost of pauperism. Another benefit of this less pleasurable, more affordable care was that it would deter individuals from seeking assistance. According to one estimate, a poor person's yearly expenditures for outside assistance range from \$33 to \$65. Sending that individual to a poorhouse, meanwhile, would only cost \$20 to \$35 [13].

Additionally, slums would develop character. All physically capable convicts were compelled to work, particularly on farms. Alcohol and idleness were forbidden. Officials said that poor children will get an education to prepare them for future employment. Even while the poorhouse was an improvement over the practice of selling people at auction to the lowest bidder, it was still primarily a repressive institution designed to discourage people from seeking help unless they were in extreme need. The orphanage is a different institution that has a lengthy history in America. The first orphanage was created in 1727 by the Ursuline Convent in New Orleans. This was established to provide youngsters whose parents had been killed in an Indian attack a place to live. Bethesda was the second and more substantial orphanage, founded in 1740 by a priest in Savannah, Georgia. In South Carolina, the first public orphanage was founded 50 years later. About 250 orphanages were established between 1860 and 1880, the majority of them by Catholic and Protestant groups. These new institutions tended to be big buildings where strict schedules and daily routines were emphasized, while being an improvement over the poorhouse and other methods of caring for orphaned children [14].

## DISCUSSION

Institutions were mostly shaped by how people with mental illness were treated. Residents of Braintree, Massachusetts, agreed in 1689 to fund the building of a small house where a man in the community could secure his sister and goodwife since both were distracted. This decision was based on a Massachusetts statute that allowed town Selectmen to care for rowdy and distracted individuals so that they would not damnify others. However, institutionalization did not become popular until the well-publicized campaigns of Dorothea Dix. Dix's campaign and its outcomes serve as a prime illustration of how a social welfare problem that was solved in one age may become a disaster in another. Dix is recognized with leading the first significant effort to persuade the federal government to finance facilities that would care for the mentally ill. In fact, Jane Addams is often mentioned second behind Dorothea Dix when we ask students in a starting social work or social welfare class to list significant historical personalities in the field [15], [16]. Dix went to Boston at the age of 12 to live with her grandparents after being born in Maine in 1802. She acquired a quality education there and then pursued a career as a teacher. She had a mental collapse in 1836 after establishing a free school for underprivileged kids and subsequently a private school for females. Following her recuperation, she started teaching Sunday school to female convicts in the East Cambridge jail. She saw the terrible treatment of inmates, particularly those who were mentally ill, throughout this life-altering encounter. According to Trattner, horrified by what she saw apparently experienced a tremendous emotional reaction which led her to

embark upon one of the most remarkable crusades of the century a fight to provide better care for the mentally ill. Many people who were declared mad were housed in almshouses and prisons since at the time private facilities for persons with mental illness were tiny, costly, and selective. Others were kept in cottages, closets, and kennels, often chained. Individual states eventually started to assume greater accountability for persons with mental illness. Many governments created mental hospitals, and in 1890 the state of New York assumed full responsibility for all of its insane poor [17], [18]. Dix, who played a significant role in the development of the state mental hospital in Massachusetts and later encouraged and cajoled state legislators to establish hospitals for the mentally ill in nine other states, served as the inspiration for much of this action in the states. As a true pioneer, she traveled "by train, stagecoach, lumber wagon, and foot over muddy roads and swollen rivers" to reach outlying mental health clinics.

### CONCLUSION

Dix's extensive and thorough study led to the introduction of a measure in Congress in 1848 that would have given the states access to millions of acres of land to aid in funding the expansion of state mental facilities. Dix pushed hard for the law, which was eventually enacted by Congress in 1854 after being proposed many times. The initiative had received significant support from notable people, clergy, and public and private groups. Franklin Pierce, however, rejected the bill on the grounds that he couldn't find any support in the Constitution for making the federal government the main funder of public charity throughout the country. The nation started to return to more personalized tactics like "placing out" destitute and orphaned children and organized charity work with the needy after the construction of institutions like orphanages and mental hospitals. The story Matthew A. Crenson has created about the relationship between the closure of the orphanage and the emergence of a mothers' pension system, which ultimately gave rise to the federal Aid to Families with Dependent Children program, is intriguing. According to Crimson's theory, the governments are accountable, either directly or indirectly, for the religious upbringing of their wards since they established public orphanages or supported private orphanages. "A generation of fraught negotiations. ..The creation of mothers' pensions, which would allow impoverished women to raise their children at home via state payments for financial assistance, was one possible option to avoid these dangers. Reformers concerned about the needs of neglected children created programs where foster families were compensated for caring for children and procedures for overseeing these homes, even though this method wasn't used in most locations until the New Deal. State and municipal institutions did not seem to be the best solution to the issues of reliance and poverty towards the end of the 1800s. Dorothea Dix's system of state mental institutions represented a significant advancement above its predecessors. However, these institutions saw a sharp fall in the 1870s. Patients were being restrained and punished more often, and prescribed care routines were failing. Underfunding had a role in the transformation, as well as the inherent difficulties of "curing" mental illness. Additionally, the patient group was shifting from the severely mentally ill to the elderly and chronically sick.

### REFERENCES:

- [1] H. Salarzahi, H. Armesh, and D. Nikbin, "Waqf as a Social Entrepreneurship Model in Islam," *Int. J. Bus. Manag.*, 2010, doi: 10.5539/ijbm.v5n7p179.
- [2] D. Jung and M. J. Petersen, "We think that this job pleases Allah: Islamic charity, social order, and the construction of modern muslim selfhoods in Jordan," *International Journal of Middle East Studies*. 2014. doi: 10.1017/S0020743814000117.

- [3] J. Benthall, "Puripetal force in the charitable field," *Asian Ethnol.*, 2016, doi: 10.18874/ae.75.1.02.
- [4] M. Luddy, "Women and philanthropy in nineteenth-century Ireland," *Voluntas*, 1996, doi: 10.1007/BF02354158.
- [5] R. Hassan, "Giving and Gaining Philanthropy and Social Justice in Muslim Societies," *Lahore J. Policy Stud.*, 2007.
- [6] P. H. Nyandoro, "Beyond charity: Towards a classic Pentecostal vision for promoting an enterprising spirit in Britain's deprived communities," *J. Eur. Pentecostal Theol. Assoc.*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/18124461.2018.1443735.
- [7] E. S. Margianti, D. A. Haryani, and ..., "Cash Waqf for Poverty Alleviation In Indonesia: Empirical Analyses on Islamic Social Entrepreneurship Model," *ICSB World Conf. ...*, 2015.
- [8] C. Gileard, "Old age in byzantine society," *Ageing Soc.*, 2007, doi: 10.1017/S0144686X07006204.
- [9] M. Konner, "Charity and Power in Early Modern Italy: Benefactors and Their Motives in Turin, 1541-1789", by Sandra Cavallo," *Can. J. Hist.*, 1996, doi: 10.3138/cjh.31.2.295.
- [10] J. Leiby, "Charity Organization Reconsidered," *Soc. Serv. Rev.*, 1984, doi: 10.1086/644236.
- [11] N. Ravichandran, S. Rajashree, Y. Sathyapriya, and A. Jain, "Perspectives on Non-profit Mission and Financing in India," *J. Health Manag.*, 2006, doi: 10.1177/097206340600800204.
- [12] I. N. Muhammad, "Utilization of Endowments (Awqaf) in Financing Community Development Programmes In Kano Metropolis," *SSRN Electron. J.*, 2013, doi: 10.2139/ssrn.2288001.
- [13] H. Salarzahi, S. Kembangan, M. H. Armesh, and D. Nikbin, "Waqf as a Social Entrepreneurship Model in Islam Tanming Permai 1, juta mines condominium," 2010.
- [14] J. Solas, "Deserving to Deserve: Challenging Discrimination Between the Deserving and Undeserving in Social Work," *J. Soc. Work Values Ethics*, Fall, 2018.
- [15] R. J. Biel, "Charitable activities in the shadow of the communist system in the People's Republic of Poland," *Eur. J. Ment. Heal.*, 2009.
- [16] R. Adamonienė and A. Astromskienė, "the Influence of Motives on the Tendencies of Business Philanthropy.," *Econ. Manag.*, 2010.
- [17] V. Timm, "Religious culture and health promotion: care, practice, object," *Rev. Bras. em promoção da Saúde*, 2015, doi: 10.5020/18061230.2015.p149.
- [18] P. Wiepking and R. Bekkers, "Giving in the Netherlands," in *The Palgrave Handbook of Global Philanthropy*, 2015. doi: 10.1057/9781137341532.0019.

## CHAPTER 2

### AN OVERVIEW OF THE CHARITY ORGANIZATIONS TO PROFESSIONAL SOCIAL WORKERS AND SETTLEMENT HOUSES

Debasish Ray, Associate Professor  
 Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
 Email Id-[debasish.ray@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:debasish.ray@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

#### ABSTRACT:

The emphasis has shifted back to using individualized strategies to address issues of dependence, poverty, and other social ills as a result of doubts about the efficacy of massive organizations. Each of these revolutions had a significant influence on how social work as a profession developed. The first was the formation of the Charity Organization Society, which began in England before being brought to America in 1877. Thomas Chalmers, a Scottish cleric who organized relief in his Glasgow parish in the 1820s, built up a district plan that served as a major inspiration for the COS in England. Chalmers assigned a deacon to oversee the poor relief efforts in each region. A similar organization, known as the London Society for Organizing Charitable Relief and Repressing Mendicancy had been founded in England in 1869. The system promoted friendly visiting with the destitute and predicated the dispensing of alms on the needy person's reformation of character.

#### KEYWORDS:

Settlement Houses, Social Welfare, Social Work, Charity Workers, Poverty Alleviation, Social Service.

#### INTRODUCTION

An Episcopal priest in Buffalo, advocated the creation of a similar organization after being impressed by the activities of the London Society. In 1877, the Buffalo Charity Organization was founded. Gurteen said that charitable organizations were the answer to the city's difficulties with indiscriminate relief policies that resulted in indolence, pauperism, and fraud. These policies were caused by overlapping systems of private charities and municipal relief. In the late 1800s, the concept of organizing charity gained widespread acceptance throughout the country. For instance, the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the impoverished established a system of volunteer home visitors who would attend to the moral deficits of impoverished families in addition to their material need. The Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor placed each city ward under the responsibility of an advisory committee which would coordinate relief provision through a system of friendly visitors. The organization's main goals were to ensure investigation of every appeal for assistance, to distinguish between the deserving and undeserving poor, and to blend this "with a judicious mixture of moral exhortation[1].

It was seen as a new beneficent gospel by proponents of the new society. Leaders of the movement considered themselves as missionaries in a noble cause, and they envisioned charity as a "crusade to save the city from itself and from the evils of pauperism. If we don't provide the poor uplifting influences, they'll dominate us with degrading ones, as the New York Charity Organization put it. A conservative view of poverty's causes was mirrored in the COS movement. One of its founders, Josephine Shaw Lowell, believed that individual reliance was one of the worst aspects of contemporary industrial life[2]. Lowell was a reformer who was born into a prosperous Boston family. She emphasized that haphazard generosity must be avoided as it led to the poor's dependence on it and that the reason, they

were in need was "largely because of their own shortcomings, including drunkenness and idleness. Lowell believed that well-to-do visitors, often women, could bring not charity, but kind action, and might serve as excellent moral models for the impoverished. Lowell believed that the answer to the issues of poverty and reliance was to give patient, skillful visiting of the destitute by "dedicated volunteers. Visitors should refrain from offering cash, instead helping "deserving" families obtain employment and providing loans[3].

In the latter half of the nineteenth century, charitable organization organizations proliferated swiftly in American towns. However, it was challenging to maintain the initial objectives of COS leaders. Individual solutions to the intricate issue of poverty were unable to halt its expansion. Additionally, there wasn't enough of a volunteer pool to execute a successful system of pleasant visiting. Charities used hired workers more often to examine applications and visit the needy. A significant precursor to professional social workers were these compensated agents. They were mostly women, much like the previous charitable volunteers. They also often identified as middle class, White, and Protestant. When raising a family took center stage and career possibilities for women were few and far between, the work of a charity worker provided a way out for college-educated women. Charity work was a relatively acceptable job for women because it made use of stereotypically feminine traits like helping others. An outstanding example of one of these women is Josephine Shaw Lowell. In 1843, she was born in a prosperous Boston family. Lowell was raised with a strong sense of the value of public service because to her parents' commitment to social improvement. The Lowells supported abolition, and Josephine joined a group of ladies who helped Union troops. Youngly widowed, Lowell devoted himself even more to social improvement. She was appointed to the Commission of the State Board of Charities by the governor of New York as a result of her work with the New York Charities Aid Association, which included a statewide study of pauperism. She was the board's first female member[4], [5].

Although Lowell seemed to be a self-sacrificing reformer and wore all black, she was really fierce, cunning, and practical. She had strong opinions on the causes of poverty and the best ways to address them. In her 1884 book *Private Charity and Public Relief*, she lays out many of her beliefs and values. Although he was sometimes depicted as having a harsh, moralistic attitude toward the poor, Lowell really had a variety of values and opinions on reliance. She saw inactivity as a significant flaw among the poor and government assistance as a deterrent to doing good, honest work. It took private philanthropy and a warm-visiting strategy to improve the moral character of the underprivileged. She was not sympathetic to drunks, homeless ladies, or women who gave birth to children who weren't theirs[6].

But Lowell also thought that other categories of individuals, such the ill, widows, and orphans, were impoverished by no fault of their own. She believed that in these situations, institutional actions like widows' pensions were suitable sources of solace. She pushed to improve working conditions for women after realizing that one cause of poverty was poor salaries. Lowell understood the significance of environmental elements in poverty, but she also had a tendency to save these insights for the deserving poor, such as those who made it plain that they wanted to work. In essence, she believed that a person's personal character was the most important factor affecting their place in life. Workers at charitable organizations like Lowell were a significant precursor to professional social workers. The COS system's components, such as caseworkers' investigations and one-on-one counseling with moms of low-income families, also found their way into state and federal child welfare initiatives. State boards of charity established the National Conference of Charities and Correction in 1874. This organization served as a forerunner of the American Association of Social

Workers, one of the groups that contributed to the creation of the current National Association of Social Workers[7], [8]. The settlement home was another precursor to contemporary social welfare programs and expert social work. This concept was also brought over from England, like the COS. The social settlement, as opposed to the charity movement, which placed more emphasis on personal flaws, was primarily concerned with the environmental causes of poverty. Although Jane Addams' Hull House is often cited as the origin of the American settlement house movement, the first American settlement was established in New York City in 1887 by a group of Smith College alums. However, Addams' achievements in a destitute immigrant neighborhood on Chicago's West Side caught the attention of American reformers. The little Illinois village of Cedarville was home to the pleasant upbringing of Addams. Her parents were among the second wave of settlers in America; her father arrived on the frontier "to organize and develop what others had discovered and settled." He purchased a sawmill and a gristmill, and in an effort to foster a sense of community, he planted Norway pine seeds on the hill opposite his mills. He made money by investing in banks and railways. John Addams had a strong religious conviction and valued hard effort. He was a Republican who served in the State Senate for many years and played a key role in the development of the state's jail system, insane asylums, and industrial schools[9], [10].

One of a total of eight kids, Jane Addams. When she was two years old, her mother passed away. The family's father was the main figure, while an elder sister eventually took over home administration. He also passed on to Jane a feeling of ambition, purpose, and devotion in addition to a love of reading. Jane was pushed to see herself as an educated lady by her father's second marriage. Addams went to college like an increasing number of other young, wealthy women in her time. One of her friends was Ellen Gates Starr, with whom she would later form Hull House, and despite the fact that they were attending a female seminary in Rockford, Illinois, as opposed to Radcliffe or Vassar, Addams and her companions at Rockford were self-consciously aware that they were college women.

Addams' upbringing had also been marked by a number of diseases. The most severe was spinal tuberculosis, which left her with a small curvature in her back, pigeon-toes, and a slightly bent head as she walked. This tragedy, along with the early death of her mother and the passing of one of Addams' sisters when she was six, may have enhanced her empathy for others who are going through a terrible time in life. After graduating from Rockford, Addams went back to her hometown of Cedarville, where she abruptly became sick and lost hope. She had wanted to continue her education at Smith College, but this now seemed impossible. Her father and stepmother likely contributed to her decision that she was too unwell to finish her academic work since they had never wanted her to go on to Smith. She fell into a deeper depression after her father's unexpected death, and she finally checked herself into a psychiatric hospital. Her failure to balance her academic requirements with her employment goals contributed to some of her problems owing to the feeling of duty she had to her family[11].

She felt healthy enough to go back home after spending many months in the psychiatric institution. She strove to find a new meaning in her life, one that went beyond running the home. She had the same sentiments as many of the first generation of college-educated women who struggled to find fulfilling careers or life goals outside of marriage. She elected, like many other well-to-do young people of her period, to take a European trip as her answer to this deadlock, which was not unusual. Addams visited the typical tourist destinations in Europe for Americans, including museums, cathedrals, and the houses and cemeteries of famous writers and politicians. She did, however, also draw attention to the squalor of

London's East End and the rural poverty of Ireland. In one of her letter's homes, she said, "I am more convinced every day of the value of social life, of its necessity for the development of some of our best traits." She interacted with a wide range of individuals[12].

After spending two more years at home, where she struggled to find a meaningful purpose for her life, Addams left for a second European tour, this time with Ellen Starr and a different companion. For those who are interested in Jane Addams, this tour is the most well-known. Her legendary experience with the bullfights in Spain occurred during this trip. According to folklore, she devoted her life to aiding the poor as a result of the violence of the bullfights. Addams explains it in her book *Twenty Years at Hull House* in the following way:

- a) It's difficult to pinpoint exactly when in my mind the very straightforward design that later evolved into the town first started to take shape. I don't recall mentioning this plan to anyone until we arrived in Madrid, but I think it may have been even before I traveled to Europe for the second time that I gradually came to the conclusion that it would be wise to rent a home in a neighborhood with lots of needs so that young women who had been devoted solely to studying could restore a balance of activity and learn about life from life itself.
- b) We had gone to watch a bullfight performed in the most exquisite Spanish way, and much to my shock and horror, I discovered that I had seen the relatively indifferent killing of five bulls and many more horses. In the evening, the expected and natural response struck, and to my profound dismay, I discovered that I was being judged and condemned by the whole moral predicament that had emerged.
- c) Then, Addams writes in her memoirs of her determination to carry out the idea for what would become Hull House. The plan had, according to her, "become convincing and tangible by the time we had reached the enchantment of the Alhambra, although the details were still most hazy." She recounts the "stumbling and uncertainty with which I finally set it forth to Miss Starr."
- d) The establishment of Hull House was most likely influenced more by Addams' trip to London's Toynbee Hall. A letter of introduction from Canon Fremantle was carried by the future creator of the American community when he arrived at Toynbee Hall settlement in London two months after the renowned bullfight. She had great hopes that whatever difficulties she might have relating to the lives of the impoverished, she would at least have direct experience addressing their problems. Addams believed she had completed her "preparation for life" and was now prepared for the next phase.

By January of the following year, Addams and Starr had discovered a dilapidated old estate in a working-class Chicago West Side neighborhood. Newly arriving Italian, Polish, German, Russian, and Bohemian immigrants lived in the area. Italians made up the majority of the neighborhood at the time. When Addams and Starr initially moved into Hull House, they had hazy ideas about helping the local poor and learning about their living situations as well as being "good neighbors" to them. This notion of "meeting the client where he or she is" was not a terrible one, modern social workers could comment. As Addams and her companion researched the living circumstances of their new neighbors, they started to formulate a detailed plan for both services and change. What they observed helped them to realize that the main causes of the poverty in the area and the need for specific solutions were the exploitation of these recent immigrants from southern and eastern Europe, poor employment conditions and low wages, a lack of educational opportunities, substandard housing, and an inefficient city government[13].

The two women started their work by asking their new neighbors to visit the settlement to hear George Eliot's *Romola* read aloud in Italian and to view Addams' slides of Florentine art, following the Toynbee House tradition of sharing their knowledge of the arts and literature with members of the community. One astonished visitor termed it the strangest thing he had met in his experience according to one of Addams' biographers, Allen Davis. While some of the guests may have enjoyed the lecture more probably, they were baffled by these two cultured ladies and their big house. However, additional neighbors quickly arrived since they wanted a warm setting to gather with their pals in this busy area. They soon brought their kids with them and arrived to Hull House in large numbers. The idea of Addams and Starr was to directly address the needs of the people in their adoptive village by building a nursery and a kindergarten, for example. In response to the immediate need, they paved the way for a novel kind of assistance. Men and women with similar objectives moved in to Hull House to support its activities.

The two founders of Hull House started formulating a precise reform agenda as they continued to examine their neighbors' circumstances and the poverty in the neighborhood. They created a club for working females, a free labor bureau for both men and women, meeting places for local political parties, and a visiting nurse service in addition to the nursery and kindergarten. Additionally, Addams and her associates established a Labor Museum at Hull House, a decision that seems especially refreshing in light of the current climate of periodic outbursts of frenzy about the spike in Hispanic immigration to the United States. In this area, immigrants displayed their aptitude at spinning, sewing, constructing furniture, and basket weaving. This "living" museum left an impression on Hull House's many outside visitors. The pleasure that immigrant children felt when they saw their parents in a position where they were appreciated for their abilities rather than their poverty and struggles transitioning to a new country, however, may have been its greatest gift[14].

Addams and her Hull House coworkers quickly focused on community changes. Addams advocated for sanitary and housing improvements in Chicago after pointing out the absence of essential services offered by the city. Addams decided to work as a municipal garbage inspector after seeing the waste piled up in the streets and alleyways. She and her coworkers established the Immigrants' Protective League and backed labor union activities in an effort to combat the rampant discrimination in employment and other forms of exploitation of immigrants. Hull House also engaged in an intensive program of study, a step that elevated Addams and her associates to the status of contributors to the emerging subject of sociology. Residents of the hamlet examined tenement homes and employment conditions. They tried to foster an environment that would be favorable to governmental and legislative change by publicly disseminating their results[15].

Many settlements were founded in various American cities after the Hull House model, including the Henry Street Settlement in New York City and the South End House in Boston. The Chicago Commons, the second settlement house in Chicago, was established by Graham Taylor, a preacher of the Dutch Reformed Church. A settlement of Irish, Germans, and Scandinavians was home to The Commons. The first American family to reside in an American community, Taylor's wife and kids followed him to the Commons. While most settlements were built in White districts, black Americans also built villages in black communities. In Atlanta, Georgia, Lugenia Burns Hope established a colony. Hope's parents were both married to people of different races. Hope, the eldest of seven children, was forced to leave high school when her father passed away in order to support her family. She first held jobs as a seamstress and accountant before accepting a secretarial position with the Board of Directors of Kings Daughters. The first African American to hold this position was

Burns. Burns wed John Hope, a professor of classics at a college, in 1897. John was appointed president of what would become Morehouse College when the couple relocated to Atlanta. The Neighborhood Union was founded in 1908 by a group of women under the leadership of Lugenia Burns Hope. This was Atlanta's first African American women's social welfare group. By 1914, the Union had built branches all throughout the city with the aim of raising the standard of living in the community and to make the West Side of Atlanta a better place to raise our children[16].

The Progressive Era, a vast social movement primarily associated with the United States, began in the early 1900s and reached its pinnacle with Theodore Roosevelt's victory in 1912. As a Republican, Roosevelt had served as William McKinley's vice president and became president after McKinley's murder in 1901. In actuality, Roosevelt had left a substantial "reform agenda" for the future president; he served a second term from 1904 to 1908 and anticipated that his successor, William Taft, would implement a number of changes. Roosevelt had high hopes for Taft, but he fell short. Roosevelt made the decision to run for president in 1912 after Taft said he would run again, but this time under the guise of a new party called the Progressive Party. A era of social and economic transformation known as progressivism started in America at the beginning of the 20th century. A prior phase of agricultural unrest, according to historian Richard Hofstadter, "was enlarged and redirected by the growing enthusiasm of middle-class people for social and economic reform." This was not a unified movement, but a collection of different impulses and recommendations for change. The Progressive Party was not the only political party touched by the movement; "the whole tone of American political life" was also impacted[16].

The movement occurred at a time when the circumstances of an agricultural civilization were rapidly changing into those of contemporary urban life. A further catalyst for change was the growing diversity of American culture, which was largely brought about by the mass immigration of Europeans, most of them of peasant origin, whose customs, beliefs, and languages seemed to make simple integration impossible. According to Hofstadter's landmark book *The Age of Reform*:

- a) The clash between the two norms developed on one side by the highly moral leaders of Protestant social reform and on the other by the employers, political insiders, and immigrant masses greatly affected the fights of the Protestant Era.
- b) Hofstadter paints a complicated picture of a movement that coupled the need to preserve some traditional agricultural values with the protection of individual opportunity and personal initiative. These aspirations often ran counter to those of political insiders, immigrant groups, and political bosses.
- c) The Progressive movement, which incorporated at least some of the earlier Populist movement, promoted and succeeded in enacting laws that limited patronage in the civil service system on the local and federal levels, improved working conditions for women and children in industry, established community housing codes, established prohibition in various localities, regulated bank reserve requirements, and improved sewage and garbage disposal systems in many locations. Additionally, there were several efforts to adopt federal legislation that would limit immigration, and restrictions were imposed on those who employed immigrants on both a national and municipal level.

The Progressive Movement included a large number of social workers. Particularly active in the colony were Jane Addams and other laborers. Addams, who advocated for better working conditions for children, noted that growing industrialism had gathered together multitudes of eager young creatures from every corner of the globe to serve as a labor supply for the

countless factories and workshops, upon which the present industrial city is based. In her first Christmas at Hull House, Addams offered Christmas candy to a number of little girls refused to take the candy, stating simply that they worked in a can. The first factory legislation in Illinois, which controlled the hygienic conditions of these facilities and established 14 as the age at which children might be worked, was one outcome of the research[17], [18].

## **DISCUSSION**

Prostitution and gin joints were both condemned as abuses by Addams and other reformers of settlements as well as staff members of charitable organizations. The difficulties with prostitution, according to these reformers, went beyond the increase in illegitimacy, the spread of venereal disease, and the dissolution of families. Additionally, they used the "white slave trade" to trap helpless young women. The availability of alcohol in public places also assisted fathers in avoiding the duty of providing for their wives and children. Addams joined the Progressive Party because of her interest in topics like child labor, prostitution, and other social problems. She believed that the party's objectives and conduct seemed to be legal. At the Progressive Party convention in 1912, Addams seconded Theodore Roosevelt's nomination to bring social justice to America[19], [20]. Justice and opportunity for African Americans were issues that disturbed Addams and at least some other members of the settlement movement. In addition to attending a convention of the National Association of Colored Women in Chicago, Addams, one of the organization's founders, extended an invitation to the delegates to lunch at Hull House. Around the nation, there were ten towns that catered to African Americans alone by the year 1910, and at least a few more claimed to service a diverse clientele. Some social work leaders were focusing on the growth of formal education in the profession during the social reform fervor of the early 1900s. By 1910, social work as it was then known had five professional training institutions. Mary Richmond, the head of the Baltimore Charity Organization Society, had advocated for the introduction of professional training in social work as early as 1897. Richmond, a pioneer in the movement for charitable organizations, was enthusiastic about research and the creation of a scientific basis for social work practice.

To get educated young men and women to make a life vocation of charity organization work she believed, was the time[21]. The New York Charity Organization Society reacted to Mary Richmond's and other COS leaders' requests for formal education by founding the New York Summer School of Applied Philanthropy in New York City in 1898. This first set of training sessions for nonprofit employees quickly developed into a full-fledged school of social work. The Chicago Commons settlement's creator, Graham Taylor, began holding lectures there in 1895. With courses provided via the University of Chicago's extension department, the series developed into an institution. The course evolved into the independent Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy in 1908. This was the beginning of the University of Chicago's renowned School of Social Service Administration that exists today.

## **CONCLUSION**

Other institutions immediately followed, including the Pennsylvania School for Social Service, the Boston School for Social Workers, the St. Louis School of Philanthropy, and the psychiatrically focused Smith College School for Social Work. In the field, African American social workers often encountered limited acceptance.

As a result, they created their own social organizations and educational institutions. Famous African American social worker George Haynes graduated with a BA from Fisk University in 1903 and an MA from Yale before taking up the position of secretary for the Colored Men's Department of the International Committee of the YMCA. He assisted in founding the

National Urban League after being the first African American to graduate from the New York School of Philanthropy. Haynes established a program at Fisk where social science students would do fieldwork at the League headquarters in an innovative attempt to educate Black social workers who would later assist in staffing the League.

The American Association of Schools of Social Work was founded in 1919 as social work education programs grew and there was a need to exchange ideas and solve common issues. The structures of these institutions varied; some were undergraduate programs, some were graduate institutions, some were connected to social work organizations, and others were associated with universities. Membership in the organization is restricted to institutions that provide at least one year of graduate training and adhere to predetermined standards for course content. This restriction resulted from a movement to standardize schools in the 1930s that sought to promote the master's degree as the only degree that qualified a person to practice social work.

#### REFERENCES:

- [1] T. V. Naumenko, "Features of the marketing activities of charity organizations," *Rudn J. Sociol.*, 2018, doi: 10.22363/2313-2272-2018-18-1-166-177.
- [2] R. Atan, S. Zainon, and Y. B. Wah, "Quality Information by Charity Organizations and its Relationship with Donations," *Recent Adv. Bus. Adm. Qual.*, 2012.
- [3] S. Yasmin, R. Haniffa, and M. Hudaib, "Communicated Accountability by Faith-Based Charity Organisations," *J. Bus. Ethics*, 2014, doi: 10.1007/s10551-013-1759-2.
- [4] S. Yasmin and R. Haniffa, "Accountability and narrative disclosure by Muslim charity organisations in the UK," *J. Islam. Account. Bus. Res.*, 2017, doi: 10.1108/JIABR-06-2015-0024.
- [5] N. M. Nasir, R. Othman, J. Said, and E. K. Ghani, "Financial Reporting Practices of Charity Organisations: A Malaysian Evidence," *Int. Bull. Bus. Adm.*, 2009.
- [6] S. Wang, "Research on the Collaborative Governance Model in the Charity Organization under Polycentric Perspective," *Open J. Soc. Sci.*, 2014, doi: 10.4236/jss.2014.29044.
- [7] S. Zainon, R. Atan, Y. B. Wah, and R. A. R. Ahmad, "Information disclosure by charity organizations," *Recent Adv. Bus. Adm. Cambridge Harvard*, 2012.
- [8] P. Hankinson, "Brand orientation in charity organisations: qualitative research into key charity sectors," *Int. J. Nonprofit Volunt. Sect. Mark.*, 2000, doi: 10.1002/nvsm.114.
- [9] I. L. Lailyt, O. Komarudint, S. Fadhilah, and A. Azurat, "Progressive learning design strategy to improve impact maturity of charity organizations," in *2018 International Conference on Advanced Computer Science and Information Systems, ICACISIS 2018*. doi: 10.1109/ICACISIS.2018.8618208.
- [10] S. J. Joo, P. A. Stoeberl, and I. W. G. Kwon, "Benchmarking efficiencies and strategies for resale operations of a charity organization," *Benchmarking*, 2007, doi: 10.1108/14635770710761861.
- [11] J. J. McFadden, "Disciplining the 'Frankenstein of pauperism': The early years of charity organization case recording, 1877-1907," *Soc. Serv. Rev.*, 2014, doi: 10.1086/677761.

- [12] T. S. V. Chokkalingam and T. Ramachandran, "The perception of donors on existing regulations and code of Governance in Singapore on charities and non-profit organizations – A conceptual study," *Asian Soc. Sci.*, 2015, doi: 10.5539/ass.v11n9p89.
- [13] M. Omar, A. A., and N. Zaman, "Internet of Things (IoT): Charity Automation," *Int. J. Adv. Comput. Sci. Appl.*, 2017, doi: 10.14569/ijacsa.2017.080222.
- [14] J. Hansan, "Charity Organization Societies: 1877-1893," *Social Welfare History Project*. 2015.
- [15] J. Chang Ahn, S. Sura, and J. C. An, "Intention to donate via social network sites (SNSs): A comparison study between Malaysian and South Korean users," *Inf. Technol. People*, 2018, doi: 10.1108/ITP-12-2015-0307.
- [16] D. S. Siegel, D. Waldmann, and A. N. Link, "A financial sustainability review: change and adaption in the voluntary sector as the economy recovers," *Res. Policy*, 2003.
- [17] O. B. Bu and A. S. Go, "Perceived trustworthiness of online shops," *J. Consum. Behav.*, 2008, doi: 10.1002/cb.
- [18] A. Masae, "From Faith-Based Charitable Organization To Social Enterprise: a Changing Reality of Islamic Charity in Bangkok , Thailand," *Proceeding SOCIOINT14-International Conf. Soc. Sci. Humanit.*, 2014.
- [19] J. Wanuma and R. Wanyoike, "Organizational change and programme delivery at United Nations Children's Fund, Kenya," ... *Acad. J. Hum. Resour.* ..., 2018.
- [20] F. Almeida and A. Cunha, "Digital Donation Platform for Nonprofit and Charity Organizations," *Int. J. Inf. Commun. Technol. Hum. Dev.*, 2018, doi: 10.4018/ijicthd.2018070102.
- [21] Y. Bilgin, G. D. Bilgin, and I. Kilinc, "Strategic Leadership in Civil Society Organizations: A Research on Turkish Charities Performing International Operations," *Voluntas*, 2017, doi: 10.1007/s11266-016-9780-6.

## CHAPTER 3

### EVOLUTION OF SOCIAL WORK AND SOCIAL POLICY CHANGES

Malcolm Firdosh Homavazir, Associate Professor

Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India

Email Id-[Malcolm.homavazir@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:Malcolm.homavazir@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

#### ABSTRACT:

The complex and dynamic interplay between social work's development and parallel social policy developments. This research intends to shed light on the interconnection of these two areas, following their history through time, via a thorough analysis of historical, theoretical, and empirical literature. The study starts by exploring the history of social work and its early development as a field of study committed to solving societal issues and advancing the well-being of individuals and communities. The history of social policy is then traced, emphasizing turning points and paradigm changes that have formed the field of social welfare. The study also looks at how social work practices have changed and progressed in response to shifting social policies, with special emphasis on the mutual impact of policymakers and practitioners. Case studies and real-world examples are used to highlight the crucial role social workers play in promoting policy changes that are in line with their principles and the needs of their clients as well as to highlight the complicated interaction between the two spheres. This review also examines the modern difficulties and chances that social workers confront in a time of globalization, technological development, and changing demography. With an emphasis on creative methods, multidisciplinary cooperation, and the adoption of evidence-based practices, it investigates how social work and social policy are changing to meet the expanding needs of a fast-changing society.

#### KEYWORDS:

Progress, Social, Social Work, Transformation, Welfare, Workforce.

#### INTRODUCTION

The University of Chicago's School of Social Administration, a prominent institution that emphasized instruction for both administration and casework practice in the area of public welfare, was founded with significant contributions from Edith Abbott and Sophonisba Breckinridge. Grace Abbott, Edith's sister, was more of an activist and moved to Washington, DC, in 1917, to lead the U.S. Bureau for Children. The first child labor legislation was to be administered by the Bureau. By the 1920s, social work educators, charity workers, settlement house directors and residents, social work educators, and policy people like Grace Abbott were starting to unite under the wide definition of social work. This new organization was also becoming more confident in its professionalism. Abraham Flexner and Porter Lee were two significant individuals who contributed to the development of professionalism [1], [2].

Flexner served as the General Education Board of New York City's assistant secretary. He was asked to speak on social work's standing as a young profession in 1915 at the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The Conference had been set up in the 1880s by a number of state benevolent organizations working with orphans, mentally ill people, and others and Charities and settlement workers had furthermore joined the organization by the turn of the century. Today, almost every article or book regarding the professionalism of social workers starts out with a quotation from this well-known lecture. Flexner was at the time generally recognized as an expert in graduate professional education. Is Social Work a

Profession?" asked a significant question to the field, and his listeners undoubtedly waited impatiently for his response[3]. Flexner continued by saying that in order to make a profession in the genuine sense, a set of impartial criteria needed to be created. The actions of the organization must only be those that adhere to these guidelines. He assured them that professions were also "definitely practical" and that the activities should be intellectual in character, based on "the laboratory and the seminar, but he saw social work failing not only in intellectual preparation but in the vagueness and "lack of specificity in aim[4]. What was to be made of this amorphous group working in so many fields and types of organizations? Instead of a specific sort of technical expertise, the job required well-informed, well-balanced, tactful, judicious, sympathetic, and resourceful people. He assured the gathering, however, that social work was an important activity. A professional spirit, a humanitarian and spiritual perspective, and altruistic commitment were all that counted. Another well-known lecture, this one by a social work scholar, similarly reinforced the field's goals toward professionalism[5]. At the 1929 National Conference of Social Work, Porter Lee, the dean of the New York School of Social Work, gave a speech. Lee praised the achievements of pioneers in the field of social welfare, and heralded a new period about to unfold, according to a report on his presidential speech. Lee spoke to the audience about how cause has given way to function in contemporary society. Now, zeal would yield to knowledge and training, and sacrifice and flaming spirits to procedures and standards. Social work was evolving from social change to the systematic delivery of social casework and other forms of assistance to those who need it[6].

There's little question that some of Lee's listeners were disappointed by his speech. Many people were still ready to take up their duty as social conscience bearers after being drawn to the work of Jane Addams and other well-known reformers. Others, however, were enthused by the possibility of a psychiatric social work and the new psychotherapy ideas that had started to permeate the field. Perhaps as members of a qualified and respectable profession, social workers would finally discover a new sense of dignity[7].

This rising emphasis in professionalism encouraged social work organizations to become more mindful professionals, along with more general organizations like the National Conference of Charities and Corrections. In the year 1921, the American Association of Social Workers was established. Although it tended to reject settlement and group workers because they sometimes lacked the formal specialized training necessary for membership, this was a large organization that comprised social caseworkers in a range of areas of practice. The types of environments in which social work was done expanded throughout the 1920s. Many now had positions in what were often referred to as private family agencies. Within settlement homes and the YMCA/YWCA, a new style of practice called social work with groups was emerging. The Red Cross' Home military Program, which began rural social work by offering assistance to families of military members and disaster victims in small towns and rural regions in addition to cities, was staffed by social workers as well. The private social agency remained the primary location for social work practice, nonetheless[8].

After the 1929 stock market collapse and the start of the Great Depression, all of this was about to change. Social professionals were sometimes the first to experience the consequences of the Depression as it spread. They met a growing number of jobless people at the many agencies and organizations where they worked. They no longer just served the typical poor; they also served an increasing number of working- and middle-class families. Many social workers gradually changed their viewpoint from an emphasis on individual flaws back to an awareness of the economic and social factors generating reliance as they started to deal with clients who were similar to themselves. In the 1920s and the beginning of

the 1930s, caseworkers developed an interest in Freudian and other psychologically oriented theories; nevertheless, these theories suddenly looked less relevant in light of the widespread economic and social devastation[9].

Social workers were among the first organizations to demand for a government response to the issues of widespread unemployment since President Hoover was sluggish to act in the face of the escalating calamity. They participated in congressional relief hearings and contributed to the creation of social welfare laws. The majority of them supported President Franklin Roosevelt's decision to establish a federally funded relief effort as well as the subsequent development of Social Security, which was designed to meet the financial needs of the elderly, dependent adults, and people with physical disabilities, as well as unemployment insurance. Social worker Harry Hopkins oversaw the public assistance division of President Roosevelt's emergency relief program, while Jane Hoey, another social worker, oversaw it. Following her graduation from the New York School of Social Work in 1916, Hoey had a number of positions in the fields of public welfare and health in New York City. She had served as Hopkins' assistant when he was the New York Board of Child Welfare's secretary. Hoey brought to this new post a solid understanding of municipal and state administration as well as a dedication to public social work. The task of creating government assistance programs for the needy that are required by law fell to the newly established Bureau of Public Assistance. These included the dependent children of unmarried moms who had previously experienced social[10], [11].

Reformers had made an effort to. Three people made comprised Hoey's first crew, a tiny number but one that was eager to carry out the innovative and exciting ideas being created in New Deal Washington. Hoey's responsibility was to assist states in creating their own administration systems for these jointly sponsored initiatives. While many states were beginning from scratch, several, notably in the South, already had child welfare systems in place. On both the state and federal levels, Hoey pushed the employment of professionally educated social workers in child welfare work a practice that wasn't common at the time. She actively opposed governmental efforts to discriminate against African Americans and other minorities while awarding welfare subsidies. She could be persistent in her pursuit of vital assistance for moms and kids. The chairman of the Social Security Board received a severe complaint from a state official. That red-headed devil of yours is in my office. She is advising me to take specific actions. The unwanted response. Even though Hoey's endeavors to advance social welfare were not always effective, she left her mark by instilling professionalism in the majority of state welfare offices as well as the federal organization[12].

During the Depression, a radical social work movement also emerged. American socialist and communist organizations developed from a variety of economic and political backgrounds. The Rank-and-File Movement was a kind of social work. The movement began when underpaid and overworked caseworkers, clerical employees, and public relief workers in Chicago, New York, and other cities formed protective groups or unions to advocate for better pay and working conditions. Professionally educated social workers who were organizing organizations to analyze social issues and address issues of unemployment from a social work perspective quickly joined the movement. A major participant in the Rank-and-File Movement was Bertha Capen Reynolds, a well-known psychiatric social worker and associate dean of the Smith College School of Social Work. She attributed her social activism to Mary Van Kleeck of the Russell Sage Foundation's keynote address at the 1934 National Conference of Social Work, in which she discussed the inherent conflict between capital and labor and how social workers frequently found themselves upholding the status quo[13].

The Rank-and-File Movement was defeated in the early 1940s, but social work also regained interest in individual treatment as a result of a rising national reaction against New Deal reforms and the intensification of the war in Europe and Asia. Many social workers began to believe that government organizations, not commercial ones, should be in charge of providing aid. They believed that social workers could now focus on the more intimate aspects of family and personal concerns. They had the freedom to address these concerns in independent children's and family services, increasing the clientele they served among the middle class. The ideas of Sigmund Freud were quite popular, and many social work educators included them in their curricula[14].

In the 1950s, social work organizations underwent significant changes that reflected the vast range of persons entering the field of social work study and practice as well as a push for coordination within this broad and diverse profession. In order to form the National Association of Social Workers (NASW), five specialized social work groups joined with the American Association of Social Workers in 1955. In addition to addressing fundamental professional issues like ensuring ethical practice, defining the skills and scope of social work practice, and aiding in the planning for adequate and appropriate staffing of social work agencies, this new group aimed to solidify and strengthen social work's identity and recognition as a profession.

Shortly after, the American Association of Schools of Social Work, which exclusively included graduate institutions, and a group of institutions that offered baccalaureate-level social work programs merged to form the Council on Social Work Education. The latter, the National Association of Schools of Social Service Administration, was composed mostly of courses offered by big state universities and a few smaller schools, and its goal was to train individuals to work in the brand-new public social services that were created during the Great Depression. The organization said that stressing graduate school as the main route into the profession of social work was "elitist and impractical in a time of growing staffing needs in the industry[15].

The field of social work has never been monotonous. President John F. Kennedy renewed his commitment to fostering social justice in the 1960s. Poverty in the United States was "rediscovered," in part because to important publications like Michael Harrington's *The Other America*, and the federal government endeavored once again to come up with a comprehensive solution to the issues of the poor. Amendments to the Social Security Acts that boosted federal financing to the states to enhance and expand their services to users of public assistance was the main strategy of the Kennedy administration. These programs significantly expanded the number of social workers employed in public welfare settings and provided extensive social services. The statute encouraged the employment of social workers with master's degrees, and funds were given to public welfare agencies to send staff members to graduate social work programs. Kennedy also pushed the idea of making a personal contribution to others by founding the Peace Corps, which sends Americans especially young people to other nations to aid impoverished areas. Following Kennedy's death, President Lyndon Johnson assumed control of the fight against poverty under the Great Society banner. Johnson considerably increased the federal government's involvement in American social welfare, including both public and private institutions in the administration of the system. Training programs and child care for women on assistance were financed under the Work Incentive Program. The fact that recipients of AFDC may have their benefits terminated if they declined to sign up for job training or accept any job offers made this welfare reform in many respects punitive. By helping women care for their children at home, the program represented a significant change from the original Aid to Dependent Children system.

Insufficient high-quality child care centers, training for employment with fair pay, and other assistance were offered by WIN and later welfare reform initiatives, making this sort of strategy an impractical solution to the poverty experienced by women and children. Johnson also took over in a turbulent environment where the ongoing discrimination against African Americans had led to racial unrest, boycotts, riots, and the emergence of a powerful civil rights movement. Many White Americans joined the Reverend Martin Luther King and "ordinary people" like Rosa Parks in the struggle against entrenched racism. Congress enacted the 1965 Civil Rights Act at Johnson's direction [16].

When President Johnson stepped down, the country had begun to move farther to the right. In 1968, Richard Nixon was elected by Republicans. Johnson's Great Society programs were criticized, but he continued in increasing the federal government's participation in social welfare. The major reason Nixon pushed for welfare reform, according to historian James T. Patterson, was because northern governors were appealing with Washington for help in dealing with a rise in the number of child welfare cases. Nixon pushed for a family assistance program in 1969 that would have provided all families with kids with a minimum of \$500 per adult and \$300 per child annually. In response to long-standing worries about personal accountability for poverty, the program promised especially to sustain the incentive to work and supplant welfare dependency. Critics chimed in right away. Under the auspices of the National Welfare Rights Organization, they comprised social workers and welfare poor activists. George Wiley, an African American professor of chemistry at Syracuse University, founded the lobbying organization. Concerns regarding the workfare elements of the program were raised by the NWRO and other organizations. To keep their funds, adult beneficiaries have to undertake suitable training or employment. Yet grantees and their families were unable to sustain themselves due to a lack of daycare and other facilities [16].

### **The Conservative Shift in Social Policy: Reagan and Bush Era Reforms:**

The conservative social policy tendency started during President Richard Nixon's second term and was maintained by Presidents Gerald Ford and Jimmy Carter. President Ronald Reagan's administration built on and intensified this trend. The economy had been in decline for a decade before to Reagan's victory, and there had been significant increases in taxes and the government debt. The federal budget needed to be balanced, taxes needed to be lowered, and regulations needed to be reduced were all on Reagan's agenda. Additionally, he aimed to downplay the federal government's contribution to social welfare initiatives. Many health and human service responsibilities should return to the state and municipal levels, where they had been placed prior to the New Deal. Early in the 1980s, the Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Acts cut funding for initiatives including Aid for Dependent Children, food stamps, unemployment insurance, and low-income housing. Ironically, Reagan's tax reform raised taxes on the working poor while lowering them for the wealthy.

Many social workers and their organizations had difficulties throughout the Reagan years. With the highest public approval ratings of any president since Franklin Delano Roosevelt, Ronald Reagan was a well-liked leader. Even if the profession made every effort to defend public programs for the underprivileged, it sometimes appeared hopeless. The NASW regularly criticized the Reagan administration's conservative policies and advocated for universal health care and other social changes. Together with other advocacy organizations including the Children's Defense Fund, NASW established the Political Action Committee for Candidate Election (PACE), which is still in operation today. PACE was established to promote political candidates who favored social changes [17]. It was difficult for Bush to finance new government initiatives because of the significant budget deficits he inherited from Reagan, particularly when he had also vowed not to increase taxes. Bush did contribute

to the advancement of social welfare with the passing of the Americans with Disabilities Act and the Child Care and Development Block Grant, which gave financing to regional child care providers for staff development, management, and direct care. Employers were compelled to provide "reasonable accommodations" for individuals with disabilities under this significant piece of law. Discrimination against people with disabilities was also declared unlawful in contexts including work, housing, and education [18].

### DISCUSSION

In 1992, Bill Clinton's victory allowed the Democratic Party to retake the White House. Clinton did, however, share the opposition of Bush and Reagan to expensive and protracted governmental aid. Clinton was leery of providing long-term, costly assistance to the impoverished despite coming from a humbler background than Reagan and Bush and having a personal style that made it possible for him to connect with underprivileged individuals and minorities. He pledged to scrap the current welfare system and make welfare a second chance as opposed to a way of life [19]. The Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunities Act was created and passed as a result, and this was his most significant social welfare reform. Temporary Assistance to Needy Families is a block grant that took the role of the AFDC entitlement. People were not entitled to assistance under TANF. Instead, users of WIN and FAP were required to engage in employment activities, and families may only receive assistance for a total of 5 years during the course of their lives. Clinton's welfare reform did not solve the poverty issues. Quite a few people in poverty were just transferred from welfare poverty to employment poverty. Former welfare clients often had poorer financial circumstances in employment than they had while receiving aid, and few of their positions offered decent benefits like health insurance. In 1999, more than half of individuals who left the assistance lists in favor of work still had jobs that paid less than the poverty line [20].

### CONCLUSION

The administration of George W. Bush has reinstated a more conservative stance on social welfare and concerns. Bush has used the premise that social welfare "is the historic mission of the churches" to justify reducing funding for government initiatives. According to Bush's "faith-based initiative," religious organizations need to be allowed to work with government agencies and utilize taxpayer money for a range of services for those in need. Millions of dollars in government monies have been distributed to organizations that support the president's agenda on abortion and related problems as of 2006 under the auspices of this campaign. Since its early religious attempts to address the issues of poverty, hunger, illness, disability, community breakdown, and other misfortunes of life, social welfare has gone a long way. The field of social work has progressively developed from the humanitarian efforts of religious groups, good Samaritans, and others. While certain motifs and structures have persisted throughout the ages, new concepts and adaptations of traditional strategies are always emerging. We may try to put present problems into perspective and think carefully about the results intended and unintended of our programs and activities by learning the history of social welfare and social work.

### REFERENCES:

- [1] M. Bird, "Social Justice Advocacy in the Belly of the Beast: An Illustration of Policy Change for Social Work," *Affil. - J. Women Soc. Work*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/0886109915592668.
- [2] S. D. Golden, K. R. McLeroy, L. W. Green, J. A. L. Earp, and L. D. Lieberman, "Upending the Social Ecological Model to Guide Health Promotion Efforts Toward

- Policy and Environmental Change,” *Health Education and Behavior*. 2015. doi: 10.1177/1090198115575098.
- [3] S. Zrinščak and S. Lawrence, “Active ageing and demographic change: Challenges for social work and social policy,” *European Journal of Social Work*. 2014. doi: 10.1080/13691457.2014.919088.
- [4] T. Raniga and J. Zelnick, “Social policy education for change: South African student perspectives on the Global Agenda for Social Work and Social Development,” *Int. Soc. Work*, 2014, doi: 10.1177/0020872814527634.
- [5] R. Mahon, C. Bergqvist, and D. Brennan, “Social Policy Change: Work-family Tensions in Sweden, Australia and Canada,” *Soc. Policy Adm.*, 2016, doi: 10.1111/spol.12209.
- [6] Z. A. Morris, R. Anna Hayward, and Y. Otero, “The Political Determinants of Disaster Risk: Assessing the Unfolding Aftermath of Hurricane Maria for People with Disabilities in Puerto Rico,” *Environ. Justice*, 2018, doi: 10.1089/env.2017.0043.
- [7] Y. Hernandez, P. Barbosa, S. Corral, and S. Rivas, “An institutional analysis to address climate change adaptation in Tenerife (Canary Islands),” *Environ. Sci. Policy*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.envsci.2018.07.017.
- [8] E. Van Der Meulen, “Sex work and canadian policy: Recommendations for labor legitimacy and social change,” *Sex. Res. Soc. Policy*, 2011, doi: 10.1007/s13178-011-0069-7.
- [9] M. Fenger, M. van der Steen, and L. van der Torre, “The responsiveness of social policies. Explaining institutional change in three policy domains,” *Int. Rev. Adm. Sci.*, 2014, doi: 10.1177/0020852313517993.
- [10] N. Parton, “From Seebohm to Think Family: Reflections on 40 years of policy change of statutory children’s social work in England,” *Child Fam. Soc. Work*, 2009, doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2206.2008.00582.x.
- [11] K. Brown, “Global environmental change I: A social turn for resilience?,” *Prog. Hum. Geogr.*, 2014, doi: 10.1177/0309132513498837.
- [12] S. Schwan and X. Yu, “Social protection as a strategy to address climate-induced migration,” *Int. J. Clim. Chang. Strateg. Manag.*, 2018, doi: 10.1108/IJCCSM-01-2017-0019.
- [13] D. Brady and R. Finnigan, “Does Immigration Undermine Public Support for Social Policy?,” *Am. Sociol. Rev.*, 2014, doi: 10.1177/0003122413513022.
- [14] I. A. Agyepong and S. Adjei, “Public social policy development and implementation: A case study of the Ghana National Health Insurance scheme,” *Health Policy Plan.*, 2008, doi: 10.1093/heapol/czn002.
- [15] A. A. Cunningham, I. Scoones, and J. L. N. Wood, “One health for a changing world: New perspectives from Africa,” *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*. 2017. doi: 10.1098/rstb.2016.0162.
- [16] M. Mills, R. R. Rindfuss, P. McDonald, and E. te Velde, “Why do people postpone parenthood? Reasons and social policy incentives,” *Hum. Reprod. Update*, 2011, doi: 10.1093/humupd/dmr026.

- [17] J. Paquette, D. Beauregard, and C. Gunter, "Positivism as cultural policy: art and social change in the works of Comte and Saint-Simon," *Mod. Contemp. Fr.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/09639489.2016.1197894.
- [18] F. Wiles, "Developing social work students' professional identity: the role of England's Professional Capabilities Framework," *Eur. J. Soc. Work*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/13691457.2017.1314935.
- [19] S. Woodcraft, "Understanding and measuring social sustainability," *J. Urban Regen. Renew.*, 2015.
- [20] Z. Baber et al., "The New Production of Knowledge: The Dynamics of Science and Research in Contemporary Societies.," *Contemp. Sociol.*, 1995, doi: 10.2307/2076669.

## CHAPTER 4

### AN EVOLUTION AND CHALLENGES IN THE HISTORY OF SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

---

Mukul Bhatt, Associate Professor  
 Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
 Email Id- [mukul.bhatt@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:mukul.bhatt@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

#### **ABSTRACT:**

More than a century has gone since social work was originally recognized as a discipline and a profession. What began as a loosely organized organization transformed into a distinct discipline with its own philosophy, body of knowledge, and set of abilities. The early recognition of the importance of education in defining, validating, and promoting the profession of social work has played a significant role in making this really amazing accomplishment possible. The scope of social work education has greatly increased since its start. Currently, bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees in social work are available. The Council on Social Work Education, the only institution that accredits social work baccalaureate and master's degrees, presently has accreditation for the 645 social work programs that graduated more persons than social work students. In the same year, graduates from PhD social work schools obtained their degrees. With around 63.9% of full-time female faculty members and 24.5% of full-time members who identify as members of racial or ethnic minorities, the faculty currently reflects social work education.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Education, Social work, Discipline, Profession, Accreditation, Curriculum, Training.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

The field of social work has grown in terms of programs, instructors, and students, as well as in terms of the standard, depth, and scope of the curriculum. In order to prepare for the next century of social work, it is essential to remember both the difficulties and successes of previous social work schooling. Some of the challenges that social work education will confront in the twenty-first century include the need to recruit talented students and professors as well as the need to promote communication across social work programs, levels, and membership organizations. The challenges of relevance, sustainability, and accountability are also unique to our time. Social work stakeholders must work together and accept responsibility for the past in order to overcome these challenges and ensure continuous growth and improvement of quality[1].

#### **Social Workers Complete Training**

Even though certain forms of social work had been practiced for a while in the 1800s, social work had gone beyond the stage where simple apprenticeship was adequate training and more formalized education in the field became urgently necessary. Practitioners, the general public, nonprofit groups that employed social workers, and ultimately the government all pushed for education in the United States. Due to the misconception that the educational requirements of the public and private sectors were different, two different types of social work schools were developed. Social service caseworkers and directors looked to the private sector for further training in practice areas pertinent to their job, such as charity, social theory, and social service practice methodology. In the late 1800s and early 1900s, philanthropic organizations

began opening professional social work colleges to satisfy the training needs of those personnel. These organizations would subsequently transform into graduate social work programs. These graduate programs created the American Association of Schools of Social Work, an accrediting organization, which in 1919 had 17 program members[2].

There was a need in the public sector for social workers who were qualified for the particular job as the number of public posts in social service via the Social Security Administration and the Children's Bureau rose. The federal government decided that the social work schools founded by charity organizations did not meet their training standards, therefore it ordered public universities to start social work programs with a focus on the public sector. Public universities established these social work schools as undergraduate social work or social welfare programs, with the majority of the programs being provided in rural areas. The National Association of Schools of Social Administration, which oversaw these organizations, briefly served as an organization for accrediting social work schools[3].

The disparities in the concepts of practice, education, and therefore social work curriculum between the two types of institutions have led to growing divisions in the profession and continuing problems for social work students. The two educational modalities must be merged into a single discipline in order to deliver a comprehensive and coherent education if social work is to exist. In addition to the continued difficulties in bridging the gap between bachelor's and master's degrees in social work, the consolidation of social work education took close to 50 years. The integration of the two accrediting organizations and their programs moved slowly because both certifying organizations were concerned that the interests of their separate institutions, students, and educational objectives would not be best served by a single education organization. This unification was made possible by the Council on Social Work Education's establishment as the only certifying body for bachelor's and master's degree programs in social work[4].

### **Accreditation**

AASSW and NASSA, the certifying organizations for undergraduate and graduate social work programs, joined forces to form the CSWE, which was established in 1952. When CSWE was first founded, there were 59 graduate schools and 19 undergraduate social work departments. To ensure continuity in social work education while seeking and upholding quality in social work institutions, the CSWE was founded. In order to do this, CSWE develops and upholds national accreditation standards for social work bachelor's and master's degree programs, supports faculty development, and promotes social work teaching and research. In its early years, the CSWE prioritized improving the quality of teaching at all educational levels, employing teachers, and identifying the best practices for all educational levels in addition to expanding graduate social work education[4].

A program may be accredited in compliance with the CSWE Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards by the CSWE Commission on Accreditation, a largely autonomous entity. On the COA, there are members of the general public from different social work communities as well as faculty, deans, directors, and social work practitioners. COA members are appointed for tenure of three years by the CSWE president. The CSWE Office of Social Work Accreditation and Educational Excellence provides administrative assistance to the COA and social work programs during the accreditation process. Setting up site visits to the programs, maintaining the accrediting database and website, providing technological assistance to programs, assessing program "self-studies," and scheduling meetings are all examples of this support. The only institution authorized to accredit social work programs is CSWE, according to the Council for Higher Education Accreditation. CSWE had certified

635 social work programs at the COA meeting in June 2006, more than eight times as many as it had in 1952. This total included 456 undergraduate programs and 179 PhD programs. In reality, the U.S. Many areas of program administration still lack female representation, though organizations like the CSWE Volunteer Council on the Role and Status of Women in Social Work Education are working to highlight and close these gaps. The Department of Labor listed social work as a profession with faster than average growth expectations. Over 7,000 professors work in social work education, and more than 65% of them are women[5], [6].

### **Purpose of Social Work Education**

While there are still differences between bachelor's and master's level social work institutions in terms of their missions and educational objectives, there is now a single certifying organization that is assisting in the definition of the fundamental knowledge and abilities required in social work education. Rather than the overarching goal of educating students for practice, the early schools of social work seem to have placed greater emphasis on the kinds of practice that would be most useful to the profession. The objectives of social work education are to increase knowledge of social work, to create competent and successful workers, and to provide leadership in the development of service delivery systems. Social work education is based on a corpus of knowledge, values, and skills and is rooted in the profession's history, goals, and philosophy[7].

The CSWE Educational Policy and certification Standards (EPAS) are the cornerstone for social work baccalaureate and master's level certification. The EPAS specifies the curricular and educational context and promotes academic excellence" and also lists the specific subject areas that must be covered in the baccalaureate and master's degree curricula as well as the resources needed to run a social work program. The EPAS is periodically reviewed by the CSWE Commission on Curriculum and Educational Innovation and the COA; the most recent revision was approved by the CSWE Board of Directors in 2001. The commissions, which are made up of elected social work professionals, such as deans, directors, faculty members, and practitioners, offer their expertise during the revision process by providing guidance on the constantly changing educational landscape, recent advancements in the field, and other pertinent topics[8].

A study for a thorough examination of the social work curriculum was supported in the 1950s by a consortium of corporate foundations and government agencies. The resultant books, Social Work Curriculum Study, assisted in establishing the fundamental information that baccalaureate and master's level social work graduates should possess. The educational policy statement and certification requirements have undergone further revisions that take changes in the industry and newly developing interests into account. Reviews have also modified the policy statement's structure to better reflect the educational continuum and make it less prescriptive. Before formulating and suggesting revisions, the COCEI and the COA were instructed to research educational policy and the contemporary educational environment when it came time to reevaluate the EPAS for 2008. The EPAS is still seen as being prescriptive, and the COCEI is interested in changing the educational policy to make it less so and more welcoming of innovation, according to the commission's 2005 annual report to the CSWE board of directors. The EPAS is being revised by the commissions and will be submitted to the CSWE board of directors in 2008 for approval[9].

### **Social Work Bachelor Degree**

The bachelor of social work (BSW), which typically takes two years of liberal arts undergraduate study and two years in a social work major, is the first professional degree in

social work. According to the EPAS, "generalist professional practice" is the primary preparatory objective for the BSW. Since the 1970s, the definitions of BSW education aims have been mostly consistent in the literature. In the early years of CSWE, baccalaureate social work education remained in a precarious position. It was proposed that the undergraduate-graduate continuum would last for two years and the master's program for two years. The undergraduate-graduate continuum, however, was not resolved for a long time; instead, the curriculum at the two levels overlapped, and a bachelor in social work was not a requirement for master's study. The title may have been written a few years ago to make the reader ponder if this is really the situation. Prior to the 1970s, baccalaureate social work programs may join CSWE, but they weren't completely accredited. The bachelor's in social work was recognized as the first practical degree by the CSWE in 1971 after ideas for the baccalaureate program were ultimately adopted. After then, the U.S. has granted its approval. The Office of Education, the Council on Postsecondary accreditation, and the CSWE created the criteria for bachelor program accreditation in 1974[10].

The concept of advanced standing status emerged as a result of the identification of commonalities in the curriculum being taught in the baccalaureate-level advanced courses and in the master's foundation year, which served to partly reconcile the educational continuum. The second notable change to bachelor social work education was the inclusion of field education as a mandatory for the curriculum. Previously, the majority of the fieldwork at the baccalaureate level had either been observational or had only lasted a few hours. The initial curriculum recommendations given by the CSWE board of directors have been significantly expanded upon in the BSW program. The EPAS currently mandates that bachelor's degree candidates in social work complete a minimum of 400 hours of fieldwork.

### **Goals for a Master's in Social Work Education**

A master's in social work prepares "graduates for advanced professional practice in an area of concentration." When philanthropic organizations first established graduate social work schools in the late 1800s, the goal of "advanced professional practice" remained the same. The typical two-year master's program consists of basic and concentration-level courses. The foundational coursework for master's degrees is mandated by the EPAS, assuring consistency in the information that social work students must learn before graduating from all social work schools. However, master's degrees provide students more freedom to choose their concentration type and the curriculum they will use to complete it. Schools are now able to dynamically reflect changes in the profession's scope, skill needs, and clientele via the specialties and courses they provide in the second year. At the same time as CSWE was focusing on the continuity of education from bachelor's to master's level, the educational system beyond the master's degree was evolving. For many years, certain schools of social work provided a third-year program for students who wanted to continue their education in advanced practice after earning a 2-year master's degree. However, as the number of PhD programs grew, the third-year programs began to diminish[11], [12].

### **The objectives of doctorate social work education**

One or more of the goals of doctorate social work preparation has been identified as training for leadership roles in administration and policy, more advanced and specialized practice, research, and teaching. The two doctoral degrees that were originally offered were the DSW and PhD, but as time went on, fewer institutions provided the DSW, and the PhD eventually replaced it as the most popular degree. Doctoral programs in social work are not accredited by this organization, but many doctorate program directors are members of the Group for the Advancement of Doctorate Education, which "provides a forum for sharing ideas and

strategies and for strengthening members' efforts at enhancing doctoral education. Furthermore, the GADE publishes Quality Guidelines, recommendations for doctoral social work programs that have been approved by the GADE membership. In 2006, 293 students have completed 69 PhD social work programs in the United States [13], [14].

### **Pedagogy and academics**

In EPAS, the major subjects covered in social work courses as well as the format and resources for field training are described. According to EPAS, the depth, breadth, and specificity of knowledge and skills are differentiated according to conceptualization and design, content, program objectives, and baccalaureate and master's levels of educational preparation. EPAS also specifies the foundational curriculum requirements for baccalaureate and master's degree holders and makes recommendations for advanced curriculum for master's degree holders. The knowledge, skills, and ethical standards needed for generalist social work practice are covered in the course material for bachelor social work education. Its foundation is in the liberal arts. Values and ethics, diversity, populations-at-risk, social and economic justice, human behavior and the social environment, social welfare policy and services, social work practice, research, and field education are all part of the foundational level curriculum that is required of baccalaureate and master's students. Graduates of bachelor's and master's programs must demonstrate the capacity to meet the foundation objectives and objectives specific to the program [15].

The fundamental knowledge of social work is supplemented by extra skills and knowledge for social work practice in master's degree programs. The teaching of social work emphases and specializations takes place in the second year of a master's degree. The EPAS only specifies that fields of practice, problem areas, intervention methods, and practice contexts and perspectives are some of the frameworks and perspectives for concentration. From clinical practice to policy and administration, a wide variety of topics may be addressed as a result of the concentrations. Additionally, infusion models have been heavily used in the social work curriculum. Infusion models relating to women and international social work have previously been promoted by CSWE volunteer commissions and listed as EPAS issue topics. According to EPAS, its objectives are accomplished via Preparing social workers to recognize the global context of social work practice, for example. A more recent infusion initiative has been inspired by the National Center for Gerontological Social Work Education, which is funded by the John A. Hartford Foundation and promotes the integration of gerontological social work training into social work curriculum, particularly in foundational material [16].

## **DISCUSSION**

Even though some of the original social work curriculum has changed since the early 1900s, field education has always remained an important component of social work education. Field education has been a vital part of graduate social work education ever since it was first included. Field education was often used at the bachelor's level as observation or as a short period of practice until the CSWE introduced specific time limitations in 1974 [17]. The connection between social work education, the information, skills, and values that students must learn and social work practice, where students must apply their newly gained knowledge, skills, and values, is field education. This step in the educational process is crucial for the development of competent social workers. The relationship between social work practice and education has remained reciprocal throughout the evolution of social work education due to the need to train social workers who are prepared for practice. As social work developed its own body of knowledge and began to create a position within the

academic community, this reciprocity has continued. Actually, the path of social work education reflects the growth and expansion of the whole social work field of practice[18]. Specialization in practice relates to specialization in education, which may be seen in distinctions in dual-degree programs, certificate programs, and graduate specialties in social work, as well as in curriculum and pedagogy. In 1977, Bernard projected that the rise in practice complexity and the emergence of practice disciplines would lead to a rise in specialization. The field of social work is always changing and specializing, and in order to keep up with the changing and growing demand, the curriculum, concentrations, and specialties are also increasing[19].

## CONCLUSION

The need of reciprocity between education and practice is also taken into account by EPAS. By mandating ongoing connection between social work programs and the practice community, for instance, EPAS achieves this goal.

According to EPAS, the program has continuing interactions with external constituents such as social work professionals, people who receive social services, advocacy groups, social service organizations, professional associations, regulatory agencies, the academic community, and the general public. Additionally, field education helps to create durable ties between community organizations and the school by fusing theory with practice.

Third, according to EPAS, professors of social work who teach must have a master's degree in the subject and two years of postbaccalaureate or postmaster's practice experience. The National Association of Social Workers and the CSWE have a long-standing relationship. This organization has the largest membership among professional social workers. The NASW Code of Ethics must be taught in basic courses because of this link. The Code of Ethics outlines appropriate conduct throughout professional employment.

The CSWE has collaborated with the NASW and other sister organizations like GADE, the Association of Baccalaureate Social Work Program Directors, the National Association of Deans and Directors of Schools of Social Work, and the Association of Social Work Boards to set goals and address issues in social work education and practice. Through continuous reflection on the requirements of practice throughout the educational programs, the relevance of social work education will continue to be assured.

## REFERENCES:

- [1] B. M. Dash and R. Botcha, "Social work education through open and distance learning: An Indian Perspective," *Turkish Online J. Distance Educ.*, 2018, doi: 10.17718/tojde.415829.
- [2] R. Sheehan, "Forensic Social Work: Implementing Specialist Social Work Education," *J. Soc. Work*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/1468017316635491.
- [3] V. V. Nadkarni and R. Sinha, "Transforming Social Work Education in India: Integrating Human Rights," *J. Hum. Rights Soc. Work*, 2016, doi: 10.1007/s41134-016-0002-3.
- [4] E. G. Çifci, "Social work profession and social work education in Turkey," *Procedia - Soc. Behav. Sci.*, 2009, doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2009.01.362.
- [5] K. Rutten, A. Mottart, and R. Soetaert, "Narrative and rhetoric in social work education," *Br. J. Soc. Work*, 2010, doi: 10.1093/bjsw/bcp082.

- [6] J. H. Jönsson and A. L. Flem, "International field training in social work education: beyond colonial divides," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/02615479.2018.1461823.
- [7] L. Beddoe, "Social Work Education in Aotearoa New Zealand: Building a Profession," *Practice*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/09503153.2018.1478955.
- [8] K. Leonard, T. Hafford-Letchfield, and W. Couchman, "The impact of the arts in social work education: A systematic review," *Qual. Soc. Work*, 2018, doi: 10.1177/1473325016662905.
- [9] L. E. Foels and J. C. Bethel, "Revitalizing Social Work Education Using the Arts," *Soc. Work Groups*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/01609513.2016.1258621.
- [10] P. Török and Y. Korazim-Korösy, "Interdisciplinarity in social work education and training in Hungary," *Int. Soc. Work*, 2012, doi: 10.1177/0020872811427717.
- [11] R. Duncan-Daston, M. Hunter-Sloan, and E. Fullmer, "Considering the ethical implications of social media in social work education," *Ethics Inf. Technol.*, 2013, doi: 10.1007/s10676-013-9312-7.
- [12] M. Higgins, "Evaluations of Social Work Education: A Critical Review," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/02615479.2015.1068284.
- [13] R. Bhuyan, R. Bejan, and D. Jeyapal, "Social workers' perspectives on social justice in social work education: when mainstreaming social justice masks structural inequalities," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/02615479.2017.1298741.
- [14] A. C. Deepak, B. L. Wisner, and A. D. Benton, "Intersections between Technology, Engaged Learning, and Social Capital in Social Work Education," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 2016, doi: 10.1080/02615479.2016.1154661.
- [15] B. M. Dash, "Social work education through open and distance learning in India: opportunities and challenges," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/02615479.2018.1481204.
- [16] A. Gockel and X. Deng, "Mindfulness training as social work pedagogy: Exploring benefits, challenges, and issues for consideration in integrating mindfulness into social work education," *J. Relig. Spiritual. Soc. Work*, 2016, doi: 10.1080/15426432.2016.1187106.
- [17] C. Bernard, A. Fairtlough, J. Fletcher, and A. Ahmet, "A qualitative study of marginalised social work students' views of social work education and learning," *Br. J. Soc. Work*, 2014, doi: 10.1093/bjsw/bct055.
- [18] M. Wolf-Branigin, "Applying complexity and emergence in social work education," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 2009, doi: 10.1080/02615470802028090.
- [19] H. Morgan, "The Social Model of Disability as a Threshold Concept: Troublesome Knowledge and Liminal Spaces in Social Work Education," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 2012, doi: 10.1080/02615479.2012.644964.

## CHAPTER 5

# OPPORTUNITIES IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION AND ITS BRIDGING GAPS ACROSS LEVELS AND SPECIALIZATIONS: AN OVERVIEW

---

Sweta Kumari, Associate Professor  
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
Email Id-[sweta.kumari@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:sweta.kumari@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

### ABSTRACT:

Numerous opportunities and challenges currently have a considerable impact on the field of social work education. This abstract looks at how social work education is changing, highlighting the opportunities it presents and the efforts being made to address gaps across specialties and educational levels. The continued need for social work education is highlighted by the development of general practice, the expansion of social work into new disciplines, and the rising demand for licensed and qualified social workers. However, it is difficult to maintain graduates in their disciplines and attract a varied student body in order to satisfy this demand. The rise of social work programs has resulted in a demand for more faculty members, particularly those with doctorates, which has led to a shortage of academic positions. By making comparisons to earlier difficulties in social work education, the abstract highlights current issues with faculty and student recruitment, communication between program levels and affiliated organizations, sustainability of funding, accountability and assessment, global education, and curriculum appropriate for the twenty-first century. To address these issues, experts in the area of social work education established the Task Force on Doctoral Education in Social Work in 2005. The Task Force has developed a plan to deal with these pressing problems.<sup>7</sup>

### KEYWORDS:

Student Recruitment, Teaching Expertise, Doctoral Education, Faculty Shortages, Interdisciplinary Practice.

### INTRODUCTION

The pursuit of quality and relevance in the constantly changing field of social work education has never been more important. The opportunities in social work education and its bridging gaps across levels and specializations sums up the main finding of our investigation. This subject looks at the many obstacles and opportunities that affect social work education now and in the future. In solving societal problems, protecting the rights of oppressed groups, and attaining social justice, social work has long been essential. The job of social work is becoming more complicated and important as the global sociopolitical and economic environment undergoes seismic upheavals[1]. As a result, there is a constant need for experienced and skilled social work experts. This innate motivation has caused social work education to progress and broaden in order to equip people with the abilities, information, and moral principles necessary to meet the demands of modern social work practice. Finding a diverse and active student population is one of the biggest issues universities that provide social work education must deal with. To make sure that the profession represents the diverse fabric of the communities it serves, diversity in the student body is crucial[2]. To achieve this diversity, nevertheless, is no easy task given that it calls for interacting with people from diverse backgrounds, ethnicities, and occupations who are enthusiastic about using their social work experience to improve society.

Additionally, employment in the field can not necessarily follow a student's route of social work education. Graduates may decide to choose a different route or may have difficulties that keep them from integrating completely into the sector. These difficulties highlight the need of encouraging student participation in social work programs while also supporting a setting that facilitates their smooth transition into professional practice[3]. There is a growing demand for faculty members to mentor and educate the next generation of social work practitioners in addition to the need for social work education. However, there is a higher demand than supply for qualified instructors, especially for those with PhDs. The survival and expansion of social work programs are significantly hampered by this faculty shortage, particularly those that need people with specialized expertise. The scope of the profession has recently expanded due to the rise in general practice and the diversification of social work. This growth presents exciting new possibilities for social work education to develop and adapt, better prepare graduates for the variety of issues they will face in the field. The applicability of the curriculum and the need for interdisciplinary methods that may close the gap between different educational levels and social work specializations are both prompted by this diversity[4], [5].

Many of the difficulties social work education is now confronting are not wholly new, as the historical backdrop makes clear. Pioneers in the field began to recognize related issues as early as 1966, echoing the ongoing search for solutions to the enduring problems of faculty and student recruitment, communication between program levels and affiliated organizations, financial sustainability, accountability, assessment, global education, and curriculum alignment with 21st-century requirements. The community of social work educators has launched several projects to address these issues and use the available tools. In 2005, the Task Force on Doctoral Education in Social Work was established in an attempt to address the pressing issues surrounding the enrollment of doctoral students and academics[6], [7]. This task force, which is made up of experts from several areas of social work education, has been hard working on initiatives intended to address these grave issues. An attempt is being made to promote collaboration across the numerous levels of social work education, from undergraduate to PhD programs, in recognition of the fact that the success of social work education depends on the combined efforts of all stakeholders. To attract and aid future doctorate candidates, mentoring programs that begin at the undergraduate and master's levels are being promoted. Additionally, given that it is becoming more commonly recognized how intertwined different educational levels are, PhD programs should provide their graduates with the essential teaching abilities needed to fulfil the need for teachers at the bachelor's degree level[8].

Social professionals that are qualified and competent are always needed. That requirement will persist for some time to come as a result of the specialization of social work, its expansion into new disciplines, and its general practice development. However, it has become more and more difficult for social work schools to draw a diverse student body, and those who do enroll don't always go on to work in the profession after receiving their degrees. Additionally, since there are more social work programs, there are also more faculty members required to staff such programs. Although the number of social work PhD programs has grown recently, the number of graduates has only marginally risen. This can make it challenging to fill academic posts that call for doctorates[9]. As more social work academics retire over the next five years, this problem will worsen. Many of the problems social work education is facing are the same one's social work has encountered in the past, as Katherine A. Kendall, then executive director of CSWE, noted in 1966. Today, her observation is still accurate. Among these concerns are the demands for faculty and student recruitment in the field of social work, as well as communication demands between various levels of social

work programs and affiliated organizations. The need for financing or sustainability, accountability and assessment, education in a global context, and curriculum pertinent to social work practice in the twenty-first century are some of the difficulties and possibilities that are particularly specific to this era[10], [11].

A Task Force on Doctoral Education in Social Work was established in 2005 to address the urgent problem of recruiting, particularly the recruitment of doctoral students and social work professors. Leaders in social work education were represented on the Task Force by members of GADE, CSWE, NASW, BPD, NADD, Society for Social Work Research, Institute for the Advancement of Social Work Research, as well as deans, directors, professors, and PhD candidates in the field. Although the Task Force addressed many of the strains on doctorate education, it was often noted that the most urgent issues were finding qualified students and subsequently finding PhD graduates to teach. The Task Force created an action plan and is still working on projects to deal with these urgent issues[12].

### **Agreement between Member Associations and Educational Levels**

The social work educational continuum's problems are still being addressed, and conflict still exists between the various social work education levels. The division of social work education membership organizations for deans and directors of bachelor, master's, and doctorate programs is one indication of this conflict.

These groups are starting to understand how each level's problems and solutions are related, however. In other words, attracting doctorate students requires more than simply marketing to master's grads; mentorship programs that support doctoral study must start in undergraduate and master's social work programs. The necessity for doctorate social work instructors in bachelor programs argues that doctoral programs should include expertise in teaching[13], [14]. The bachelor's, master's, and doctorate degrees in social work are all connected and independent of one another.

Only by working together and coordinating the efforts of all the stakeholders in social work education will social work be able to advance; difficulties at one level must, in part, start with answers at the other levels. To examine some of the continuity and representation concerns, the Leadership Roundtable, a gathering of the primary association stakeholders in social work education, has begun meeting. The discussion on how to work together and maybe share objectives, initiatives, and resources in the future has already started. A social work congress was also organized in 2005, bringing together several industry experts to discuss the "imperatives" for social work during the next ten years. The leadership will work both individually and together to satisfy the demands[15].

### **Funding**

Funding restrictions are another contemporary concern that affects all social work education equally. The variety of money that was originally made available for social work education, particularly at the federal level, is startling. Numerous funding reductions for social work education efforts have occurred in recent years, which have been felt by all social work programs and organizations. Universities have been compelled to make financial cuts in order to stay open, and tiny programs with few students are particularly vulnerable. According to EPAS, a program must have adequate and consistent financial backing in order to be recognized. This is done by having "financial supports that permit program planning and achievement of program goals and objectives." These include a financial allocation and methods for creating and managing budgets. These requirements, in addition to the necessary faculty, advised instructor-to-student ratio, and resource requirements, might cause issues for

programs with low funding. In actuality, a lack of resources has been a major factor in the finding of programs noncompliant with accrediting criteria and the subsequent closure of such programs[16].

### **Accountability**

The problems with social work education are all discussed in the context of rising public expectations for more educational responsibility. Increased evaluation requirements for both public and private funding, a recent focus on "best practices," the development of initiatives like "No Child Left Behind," and the efforts of organizations like the Secretary of Education's Commission on the Future of Higher Education, which has called for more evaluation of higher education at the program, university, and accreditation levels, are all indications of this demand. Students, employers, and funders want to know that what is taught in social work is relevant to professional practice, that what is required for accreditation is being taught by the programs, and that what is necessary for practice is actually being learned by the students. This is in part why higher education is necessary to meet the needs of the public and why accountability is desired. Ensuring responsiveness to all stakeholders in social work education helps to guarantee transparency in program design and results assessment[17].

### **The Twenty-First Century Curriculum**

Continued reciprocity between social work education, practice, and research is necessary in order to be sensitive to the public's needs, as well as to educate students for the kind of practice that is pertinent to the twenty-first century. In response to practitioners, researchers, and the changing environment, the profession of social work is always evolving and growing. It is the duty of social work education to foresee the abilities that social work practitioners will need in the future and to include such competencies into the curriculum.

Through the next century, social work education will continue to expand and advance thanks to the collaboration and cooperation of all relevant parties.

Mentorship programs, starting at the undergraduate and master's levels, are crucial for attracting doctoral students. Additionally, there is a growing recognition that doctoral programs should include teaching expertise to meet the demand for doctorate social work instructors in bachelor's programs. The interconnectedness of these educational levels underscores the importance of collaborative efforts and shared resources to advance the field of social work education and initiatives such as the Leadership Roundtable and the Social Work Congress, which aim to foster collaboration and address the challenges faced by social work education. It emphasizes that only through unified efforts and strategic coordination can social work education fulfill the demands of the profession and prepare a competent workforce for the future [18].

## **DISCUSSION**

For the profession to progress and remain viable, it is crucial to have a conversation about the possibilities in social work education and its capacity to close gaps across levels and specialties. We dig further into several important ideas that emphasize the importance of this issue in our conversation.

### **i. Taking up the Recruitment Challenge:**

The viability of social work education is fundamentally dependent on drawing in a varied and devoted student population. Reaching out to people from varied backgrounds and disadvantaged populations who have a true love for social work is necessary to achieve this

diversity; it goes beyond just increasing enrollment numbers. Strategies need to foster future social work students' enthusiasm and dedication, such as focused outreach, funding possibilities, and mentoring programs.

**ii. Supporting Effective Transitions:**

A social worker's job doesn't really begin until they complete their studies. Many graduates encounter difficulties while attempting to enter the workforce. These difficulties might be brought on by personal circumstances, workplace dynamics, or licensing requirements. Graduates of social work degree programs should have access to continued guidance and mentoring as they make their way through these formative years of their professions [19].

**iii. Addressing Faculty Shortages:**

The expansion and viability of social work programs are severely hampered by the lack of skilled professors, especially those with PhD degrees. Institutions must look at novel solutions to this problem, such collaborative faculty arrangements, collaborations with different academic fields, and mentoring programs for up-and-coming educators. Furthermore, by valuing teaching experience as a crucial component of doctorate study, the need for social work teachers at all levels may be met [20].

**iv. Getting Used to Specializations and Interdisciplinarity:**

In order to guarantee that graduates are adequately equipped for the field's many problems, the curriculum must be adjusted to reflect social work's growth into new fields and the changing nature of general practice. Teachers must stress the value of interdisciplinary cooperation and provide students chances to gain knowledge and abilities that will help them function well in specialized fields. Enhancements to the curriculum, field experiences, and collaborations with experts in adjacent subjects may all help accomplish this [21].

**v. Historical Innovation and Continuity:**

The necessity for ongoing reflection and adaptation is highlighted by the realization that many of the difficulties facing social work education now are reminiscent of those from the past. While history may teach us important lessons, it is crucial that social work education be progressive and adapt to the changing requirements of society. To do this, there must be constant communication and cooperation between politicians, practitioners, and educators.

**vi. Collaborative efforts include:**

The need of stakeholder engagement is emphasized by the connection between social work education levels, from bachelor's to PhD degrees. Mentorship programs that cover the full educational spectrum may support a cogent educational path by spotting and nurturing future doctorate candidates. Collaboration projects like the Leadership Roundtable and the Social Work Congress help organizations communicate and share resources, boosting their ability to tackle problems and capture opportunities [22].

For the occupation to continue expanding and being relevant, social work education's options and ability to fill gaps between levels and specialties are crucial. Social work education has to be flexible, inclusive, and collaborative in order to negotiate the challenging terrain of social work practice in the twenty-first century. Social work education can position itself to meet the evolving demands of society and successfully address the myriad challenges faced by vulnerable and marginalized populations by addressing recruitment challenges, fostering successful transitions, addressing faculty shortages, adapting to specializations, and fostering historical continuity alongside innovation.

## CONCLUSION

The Opportunities in Social Work Education and its Bridging Gaps Across Levels and Specializations illuminates the intricate web of problems and possibilities that surround social work education. Numerous significant findings emerge as this inquiry draws to a close, emphasizing the critical role social work education plays in defining the profession's future. A diverse and committed student body must still be attracted in the first place [23]. The capacity of the profession to reflect the intricate fabric of society it serves will determine its potential to attract individuals from all walks of life. To do this, funding must be provided for mentorship initiatives, scholarships, and targeted outreach. These efforts not only ensure a sizable and varied student body, but also provide fresh perspectives and vigor to the field. Second, there must be a crucial shift from social work education to professional practice in a social worker's career path. Graduates must have the practical skills and assistance in addition to the theoretical knowledge required for success in their field.

Creating mentorship programs and support networks might make it easier for graduates to change careers and boost their retention rates. Thirdly, the shortage of qualified teachers, especially those with PhDs, is a severe issue. Innovative solutions are needed to accommodate the growing need for social work educators, such as collaborative faculty arrangements and the recognition of teaching abilities within PhD programs. Raising the level of assistance and professional development for teachers might potentially improve learning outcomes [24]. The need for curriculum changes is also brought on by the evolving nature of social work practice, as seen by its expansion into new domains and the establishment of specialized specializations. Social work education must be versatile and flexible to guarantee that graduates are prepared for the variety of challenges they will encounter. This adaptation's emphasis on cross-disciplinary collaboration and provision of opportunities for students to acquire specialized skills are important components. Recognizing the historical persistence of challenges in social work education while fostering innovation is a tricky balancing act. The industry must remain adaptable and forward-looking even while it may draw lessons from its past. It will need constant dialogue and collaboration between academics, practitioners, and policymakers to properly determine the future of social work education.

The significance of collaboration is emphasized through the connections between the different social work education levels. The whole range of educational opportunities must be covered through mentoring programs, together with the identification and support of potential doctoral candidates and promotion of a unified academic path. Two examples of cooperative initiatives that serve as forums for shared objectives, initiatives, and resources are the Leadership Roundtable and the Social Work Congress.

These initiatives strengthen the community's capacity to overcome challenges and seize opportunities. The end of this study emphasizes the critical part social work education has in defining the field's future. By addressing challenges with recruitment, supporting seamless transitions, addressing faculty shortages, changing to specialties, and fostering both historical continuity and innovation, social work education may be proactive and adaptive. Finally, it is only through our concerted efforts that social work education will continue to develop a knowledgeable and compassionate workforce dedicated to meeting the pressing needs of individuals, families, and communities in our quickly changing global world.

## REFERENCES:

- [1] N. R. Wooten, "Military social work: Opportunities and challenges for social work education," *J. Soc. Work Educ.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/10437797.2015.1001274.

- [2] J. D. Hawkins, V. B. Shapiro, and A. A. Fagan, "Disseminating effective community prevention practices: Opportunities for social work education," *Res. Soc. Work Pract.*, 2010, doi: 10.1177/1049731509359919.
- [3] J. L. Sniatecki, J. A. Pelz, and T. G. Gates, "Human Rights Advocacy for Students with Disabilities: Challenging Stigma and Promoting Opportunity in Social Work Education," *J. Hum. Rights Soc. Work*, 2018, doi: 10.1007/s41134-018-0058-3.
- [4] L. Racovita-Szilagyi, D. Carbonero Muñoz, and M. Diaconu, "Challenges and opportunities to eLearning in social work education: perspectives from Spain and the United States," *Eur. J. Soc. Work*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/13691457.2018.1461066.
- [5] J. W. Anastas, "Employment opportunities in social work education: A study of jobs for doctoral graduates," *J. Soc. Work Educ.*, 2006, doi: 10.5175/JSWE.2006.200400426.
- [6] B. M. Dash, "Social work education through open and distance learning in India: opportunities and challenges," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/02615479.2018.1481204.
- [7] N. M. Tsang, "Ethos of the day-challenges and opportunities in twenty-first century social work education," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 2011, doi: 10.1080/02615479.2010.501860.
- [8] N. A. Shah, "Social Work Education in Pakistan: Issues and Future Opportunities," *Pakistan J. Appl. Soc. Sci.*, 2018, doi: 10.46568/pjass.v7i1.315.
- [9] M. L. Bessaha et al., "Social Work in Higher Education: Internships in Opportunity Programs," *J. Teach. Soc. Work*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/08841233.2018.1500412.
- [10] P. E. Higham, "Vocational qualifications: An opportunity for professional social work education," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 1999, doi: 10.1080/02615479911220041.
- [11] C. Galambos, "From the editor: The joint social work/nursing caregiver initiative: Opportunities for social work education," *Journal of Social Work Education*. 2008. doi: 10.5175/JSWE.2008.773247701.
- [12] A. T. Rogers, K. J. Gualco, C. Hinckle, and R. L. Baber, "Cultivating Interest and Competency in Gerontological Social Work: Opportunities for Undergraduate Education," *J. Gerontol. Soc. Work*, 2013, doi: 10.1080/01634372.2013.775989.
- [13] I. Taylor and M. Bogo, "Perfect Opportunity Perfect Storm? Raising the Standards of Social Work Education in England," *Br. J. Soc. Work*, 2014, doi: 10.1093/bjsw/bct077.
- [14] R. L. Jackson, D. D. Purnell, S. B. Anderson, and B. W. Sheafor, "The clubhouse model of community support for adults with mental illness: An emerging opportunity for social work education," *J. Soc. Work Educ.*, 1996, doi: 10.1080/10437797.1996.10778448.
- [15] L. M. Sloan, N. F. Bromfield, J. Matthews, and K. S. Rotabi, "Social work education in the Arabian Gulf: Challenges and opportunities," *J. Relig. Spiritual. Soc. Work*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/15426432.2017.1311247.
- [16] S. S. Ngai, "The Politics of Knowledge: Challenges and Opportunities for Social Justice Work in Higher Education Institutions," *eJournal Public Aff.*, 2018, doi: 10.21768/ejopa.v7i1.12.

- [17] P. Bourdieu, "Homo academicus," *Ekon. Sotsiologiya*, 2017, doi: 10.17323/1726-3247-2017-4-91-119.
- [18] J. Mittelmeier, B. Rienties, D. Tempelaar, and D. Whitelock, "Overcoming cross-cultural group work tensions: mixed student perspectives on the role of social relationships," *High. Educ.*, 2018, doi: 10.1007/s10734-017-0131-3.
- [19] A. Lombard, "Global agenda for social work and social development: A path toward sustainable social work," *Soc. Work (South Africa)*, 2015, doi: 10.15270/51-4-462.
- [20] P. Slovák and G. Fitzpatrick, "Teaching and developing social and emotional skills with technology," *ACM Trans. Comput. Interact.*, 2015, doi: 10.1145/2744195.
- [21] K. Hytten and S. C. Bettez, "Understanding Education for Social Justice," *Educ. Found.*, 2011.
- [22] R. Bhuyan, R. Bejan, and D. Jeyapal, "Social workers' perspectives on social justice in social work education: when mainstreaming social justice masks structural inequalities," *Soc. Work Educ.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/02615479.2017.1298741.
- [23] C. Bates, "What influences practice educators in determining appropriate learning opportunities for social work students on their final practice learning placement?," *J. Pract. Teach. Learn.*, 2017, doi: 10.1921/jpts.v15i1.1123.
- [24] S. Grant, L. Sheridan, and S. A. Webb, "Newly qualified social workers' readiness for practice in Scotland," *Br. J. Soc. Work*, 2017, doi: 10.1093/bjsw/bcv146.

## CHAPTER 6

### EVOLVING DYNAMICS AND CHALLENGES IN 21ST CENTURY SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

---

Ameya Ambulkar, Assistant Professor  
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
Email Id- [ameya.ambulkar@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:ameya.ambulkar@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

#### **ABSTRACT:**

At the midpoint of the twenty-first century, it is appropriate to examine the social work practice scope. It is crucial to consider how the boundaries of professional social work have been pushed by the strong, dynamic biological, psychological, social, economic, political, and global variables that influence this field-specific profession.

The limitations of the profession are affected by these dynamics, which include goals, auspices, settings, sanctions, roles/functions, populations, theoretical underpinnings, research, and interventions, at any given time by increasing some and shrinking others. In order to maintain its core objectives and guiding principles, generate, use, and disseminate knowledge, and show the effectiveness of practice interventions, the discipline must be able to adjust to these continuously changing elements.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Practice, Social Work, Contemporary, Profession, Transformation, Trends.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

This overview shows the diversity of postmodern social work practice, which includes a wide variety of goals, settings, tasks, and techniques for micro, mezzo, and macro interventions. For instance, the employment of social workers to help individuals and families cope with the biopsychosocial realities associated with these difficulties has been inspired by the emergence of a new science on hereditary disorders.

The term practice has a wide definition for social workers due to the vast and deep nature of professional social work practice[1].

In fact, one of today's puzzling issues is if there is a link between fixing problems and the decline of the profession.

#### **The Change in the Profession**

Social functioning and change have been this context-specific profession's defining traits throughout its existence. According to Morris, the following might serve as a summary of the social work profession's history and effects:

- a) The roots of the custom may be found in a much larger concern with social development and human needs that has been represented since 1860 by groups like the American Social Science Association and the National Conference of Charities and Corrections.
- b) The first participants were drawn from a wide range of backgrounds, including sociology, emerging economics, other social sciences, lay community leaders, clergy, and agency staff[2].

- c) As a distinct discipline, social work concentrated right once on becoming a profession using the instruments of a social science: academic training to integrate theory and practice, professional organizations with certification bodies, etc.
- d) The profession's declared aims still include the twin purpose of providing customized care and adapting to changing circumstances, but after 1935, the Great Depression and World War II forced the sector to rethink its future[3].
- e) In addition to the huge social and economic changes that followed the Great Depression, the adoption of new concepts in mental health and the alignment of psychological theory with social casework reinforced a number of choices, some of which were almost unconscious[4].
- f) By 1990, the discipline's emphasis was on jobs in interpersonal and mental health, with institutional action and career opportunities remaining mostly on a theoretical level.
- g) At the same time, social work as a profession was associated largely with providing counseling to individuals or serving as auxiliary staff for organizations rather than being "the profession" tied with any one service system.

To sum up, the internal and external forces that shaped this context-specific profession over the 20th century have altered the range of social work practice. It may be shown that as practice is defined by the profession's position in the environment at a particular time, external considerations have a bigger impact on defining practice than the former. However, the field can be commended for its flexibility in responding to pressing unmet human needs in times of crisis at many system levels[5].

### **The Motivation Behind Social Work**

Improve, maintain, and restore social functioning while fostering social justice for all people, including individuals, families, groups, communities, organizations, and vulnerable populations, are the main objectives of social work practice in general. Given the profession's dual goals of promoting social justice and enhancing societal functioning, the tapestry of human realities and cultural conventions that are at odds with that purpose provide difficulties. The given services may be preventative, developmental, remedial, or transformative in nature, depending on the objectives, conditions, and requirements of the company. Micro and macro are the three practice levels for social work services[6].

A configuration of value, purpose, sanction, knowledge, and method, as stated in the working definition, is what sets social work practice apart from those of allied professions and/or fields. Given the rivalry for clients, students, and increasingly finite financial resources, this is or should be in the best interest of social work. According to Bartlett, social work is continually focused on two aspects: reducing social stress and improving social functioning. According to Pinder Hughes, measures to encourage the greatest possible adaptation between individuals and their social settings as well as the beginning of a change process to increase their capacity for development are included in the purpose of practice, both directly and indirectly. Additionally, it involves making the appropriate links between these systems and opportunities, opportunities, and structures, as well as encouraging the efficacy and humanization of service delivery systems[7], [8]. Although the desire to provide individualized support for change is often contested, the social control component of practice is less well understood. Practitioners need to be aware that vague notions make it difficult to specify goals and evaluate success. They also understand that, in certain cases, assisting a

client in adjusting to the social environment might be painful for both them and the client. This issue occurs when the practicing environment is characterized by a shortage of resources as a consequence of tax, budget, and financial allocation cutbacks for human services-related policies and initiatives. To put it another way, attempts are being made to reduce expenditure, eliminate budget deficits, and reduce debt at the expense of the weak, oppressed, and disadvantaged—groups with less power to alter their own circumstances or the environment. Practitioners may experience stress and difficulties as a result of the demands of delivering services to individuals, families, groups, organizations, and communities on the one hand, and resource constraints in the policy practice environment on the other. Values and ethnic imperatives are crucial components of practice in a milieu that is all too frequent[9], [10].

### **Values**

Since social work's inception, the discipline has been stabilized in spite of context changes, continually shifting professional boundaries, conceptual uncertainty, and rapid paradigm expansion because to the profession's shared goals. These humanistic principles are based on considerations for the wellbeing of people and social justice. "Individual worth and dignity, respect of person, valuing individual's capacity for change, client self-determination, providing individual's common human needs, commitment to social change and social justice, confidentiality, seeking to provide individuals with adequate resources to meet their basic needs, client empowerment, equal opportunity, non-discrimination, respect of diversity, and willingness to" are just a few of the many, frequently cited core values of the profession. Social workers have increasingly embraced and campaigned for social justice, which has been dubbed the "organizing value" of the field. The most recent modification of the profession's Code of Ethics seems to corroborate this claim. Few, if any, practitioners question the significance of values[11], [12].

However, there is disagreement about how much weight should be given to such potent principles that might lead to conundrums and disputes over an unlimited number of issues. For instance, personal or social change, family or individual support, discretion or a dedication to one's own or the public's safety, the design and allocation of services, including how they are run and paid for through managed care, or the creation of a client-centered care structure. This suggests that values clarity and value issues will likely continue to be crucial in practice development and discussion for a very long time. Practitioners must continually consider and address their own power and authority needs as well as their own personal and professional convictions, as outlined in the literature. They also need to be aware of the importance of ethical reasoning when helping people or communities assess and navigate contentious, unresolved, and divisive societal issues and policies like same-sex marriage, selective abortion, adoption by nontraditional couples, support for undocumented immigrants, and privacy rights. As they deal with inconsistencies, ambiguities, and often even misunderstandings resulting from prevalent social attitudes, customs, and laws, practitioners are required to comprehend and resolve complicated challenges as part of their professional obligations[13].

### **Ethical Questions**

When faced with competing commitments and principles, practitioners often find themselves confronted with and enmeshed in inescapable ethical issues. The creation and management of policies and programs, the relationships between social workers, and the practice with individuals, families, and groups are Reamer's three main areas where ethical issues can occur. These areas raise issues with client autonomy, confidentiality, honesty, and paternalism. Additionally, when it comes to the practice environment, "diminution in

confidentiality, informed consent, and privacy would create serious difficulties in client services and the value of regulatory compliance would define social workers' behavior more than the professional code" would pose problems. Given the significance and scope of ethical concerns, it is thus logical that rules for ethical decision making have attracted attention in the professional literature[14], [15]. The respondents identified reporting child abuse and disputes over individual vs. family needs as the matters raising the biggest ethical questions for members of one professional correct service organization, such as the American Society of Marriage and Family Therapy. The rating was determined using data from the association's membership poll. Social workers often get training on and exposure to moral standards that promote the interests, welfare, and advancement of their clients. The organizational cultures of service delivery companies, however, may be unfriendly toward client groups who are often in need of assistance or who are expanding and sometimes breaking the law as they struggle with purpose and resource restrictions[16].

### **Relationship of Social and Biological Sciences to a Profession**

The biological, psychological, and social sciences have traditionally provided support for many of the theoretical approaches used in social work. These fields contribute to the profession in terms of knowledge and findings through empirical research. However, since they each have a unique set of interests, they influence, if not outright mandate, how theories are created, questions are made, and cognitive processes are organized. The social scientist is not expected to focus on how concepts and findings are put into practice. However, due to the complex contextual environments in which they work, professionals must focus on objectives like intervention and issue solutions. In contrast to disciplines, professionals must deal with fluid, contextual policy and practice problems that include political processes and the formation of a consequential ethic[17].

### **Psychological Sciences**

Social scientists use study and analysis to attempt to explain "how" and "why" in society. They provide a major amount of the raw materials often used in the theory-heavy BSW and MSW social work programs' human behavior and social environment courses. The HBSE curriculum places a strong emphasis on psychology, behavior, and systems, often at the expense of information that affects the larger environment. Social information is often present, although it is obvious that economic and political concepts are missing. These latter two sectors often overlap and are interconnected in the political economy that supports social welfare policies and services[18].

### **Biological Sciences**

The biopsychosocial approach's "bio" component may be enhanced as a result of substantial advancements in biological sciences that have produced new knowledge. It is feasible to combine existing psychosocial theories of human behavior with findings from cognitive neuroscience and neurobiology.

A body of neuroscience research suggests that social work interventions may change the client's brain's chemistry and structure for the better. This shows that there is little justification for paying insufficient attention to one of the main theoretical conceptions of the biological component of the professions in both education and practice. Self-generated content in social work has developed significantly and quickly as a result of a number of factors, including the increasing acceptance of research methods courses in the curriculum, the increased desire among schools of social work for enhanced scholarship, and the process of professional maturation. However, the profession will still have to pay a price for the

useful knowledge it gains from other professions. To boost the acceptance of social work's expertise by other professions, social work must continuously extend and improve its theory, practice, and research[19], [20].

### **Conceptual Practice Framework**

The craft knowledge required for expert action is what the profession is largely focused on developing. Theoretical abstract knowledge, which is less developed, serves as a foundation for "an effective definition of a profession". The profession has been interested in, and has invested time and resources in, attempting to come to an understanding in regard to a useful concept, framework, paradigm, and/or shared base for quite some time. Due to several critical discussions and articles that followed, which acknowledged that defining argument as communication is an effective method to explain communication, the profession has been praised for working toward a useful definition and increasing conceptual clarity. This lengthy, difficult, but important project really wrote its own history. Early in the 20th century, the discussions between scientific philanthropy and personal issues, which included the Mary Richmond–Jane Addams stances on the case approach to personal issues vs structural transformation to end poverty, served as the foundation of the issue. Flexner's 1915 paper, the Milford Conference papers from 1928, the Hollis-Taylor Report, Bartlett's 1955 analysis, Gordon's working definition, Bartlett's Common Base, the 1976 National Association of Social Workers meeting on conceptual frameworks and the follow-up meeting in 1979, and finally the 2001 Conference at the Kentucky School of Social Work where the aforementioned works were reexamined, are examples of opinion shapers[21], [22].

Harriet Bartlett worked on this topic for many years, and her foundation funded two NASW conferences. The NASW editorial board and publishing committee planned a conference for the middle of the 1970s to review objectives and activities and see if any form of consensus could be established on all of the profession's specialties. Several questions were addressed:

- a) What function does social work fulfill?
- b) What are social work's objectives?
- c) What are social workers now doing?
- d) What should they do not do to achieve their objectives?
- e) What sanctions need to be put in place for social workers?
- f) What resources and skills are available to aid social workers in achieving their objectives?
- g) What is the mission's educational and practical repercussions in terms of the objectives, tactics, and knowledge of the many professions?

In the conference summary, Briar discussed the challenges of formulating a goal or purpose statement, the ongoing debate over values in connection to social change and human development, and the generalist-specialist conundrum. A second conference was planned as a follow-up in 1979 with a specialization-focused theme. The question of whether the profession should advance everyone's quality of life cut across all areas of practice. In the end, this conference failed to develop and promote a common goal and set of ideas, much like its predecessor. At the end of the first session, Briar said that it "is not good when the profession cannot clearly and simply articulate what is common to the activities of all social workers." Unfortunately, the subject has only been fully addressed once since the 1979 summit[23].

Although the social work profession has long been criticized for its shallowness, fragmentation, and poor conceptual base, it has also long been lauded for the variety of practice it encompasses. The assertion made by the late Carol H. Meyer, a professor of social work, that "social workers have had to increase theirs" is still accurate today. Other professional professionals expand their knowledge bases to become experts. As new knowledge from social science, science, neuroscience, and technology coexists with that developed by the profession itself through its own research and theory testing, practice interventions, and monitoring for effectiveness or best practice to meet expanding human needs, what is most pertinent and verifiable, and what can be classified and organized into a taxonomy that is useful for practice?

Given the problems with borders, the biggest issue is really attention. Do social workers have a responsibility to provide for the needs of the rich, middle-class, and poor? a practitioner was questioned. Do we need to worry more about individuals or groups? Which subjectswelfare, social policy, and mental and physical healthdefine the true scope of practice for social work?Should we focus our efforts on broader concerns, such those involving racial and gender equality? Does the existence of disparate approaches to knowledge creation and application, as well as the lack of a unifying component, cast a shadow over the profession? In light of the current circumstances, it would appear crucial for the profession to continue addressing research that is relevant to its objectives and identity, as well as a coherent, convincing conceptual framework and supporting theories. What, therefore, distinguishes social work activities from others? If monopolistic beliefs or viewpoints are not acknowledged, what exactly is the "problematic" aspect of the field? It's "an integrated framework of concepts, propositions, and practices that collectively define the central intellectual problems of a field," in your words. The unit of analysis for this profession is a person's relationship with their environment, which is not difficult. The two systems should interact as positively as powerfully as is physically possible. A weakness is the inability to deal with environmental problems that affect how people function.

## DISCUSSION

Contrary to its direct practice, the profession has given significantly less thought and effort to developing the theories and technology necessary to compete effectively in the macro-domain, which calls for knowledge of and comprehension of economic concepts. It is evident that the field prefers talking about individual variables over "system variables." Hard difficulties, some of which were identified by Morris, Solomon, Tucker, and Gambrill, will need to be addressed before the profession truly embraces its original twin aims of both person and environmental transformation, which have been viewed as dichotomous entities for most of the previous century[24].Without a practical definition, conceptual clarity, and/or a unifying component, the field is more likely to develop a broad variety of concepts, innovations, intervention strategies, and maybe even fads, all of which deepen and foster an eclecticism predisposition. Social work is at a competitive disadvantage compared other disciplines that have seen greater paradigm development, according to the idea that eclecticism is not a "free good" but rather one that comes at a significant cost.

As a result, Tucker argues, social work is restricted in its capacity to get and maintain resources, in the pace at which knowledge is generated and dispersed, then the degree of power and autonomy it has attained, as well as in its capacity to carry out collaborative research and study. There were more speakers on this topic at the NASW conferences besides Briar and colleagues. Reamer noted, however, that no one method should assert hegemony and that multiplicity may enrich practice. He said that instead of encouraging random or indiscipline eclecticism, it should be encouraging the purposeful conceptual viewpoint that

define and serve as pillars for each social worker's understanding of and approach to practice." According to Reynolds, we have competing schools of thought, which are very beneficial in the extensive study they dedicate to one part or another of the whole but wasteful and detrimental in their assumption that no one else knows the truth.

### CONCLUSION

Turner questioned the selection methods used to choose which theories to utilize for intervention and highlighted concern for practitioners who are overburdened with a broad range of ideas. According to Gambrill, the professions' practical description of their objective demonstrates that it is vague, which has made developing a conceptual framework difficult. Inhibitors that encourage elitism and prevent the development of rigorous paradigms include lofty, inspiring, and often impracticable aspirations. Despite Tucker's warning, Gambrill's assessment, and others', the field has not yet found a problematic that may aid in the development of a more solid conceptual framework. It would be false to assert that the many professional efforts toward a common framework and working definition did not contribute to the conceptualization of social work. It was. With the help of Bartlett's definition, Gordon's criticism of it, contributions from others striving for a unified, common basis, and recognizing practice at different system levels and sizes, the profession was guided toward a wider view on practice, which is represented in the generalist approach. The stage was set for a number of scholars to continue their search for a more exact definition and problematic and a point of consensus, with some complimenting the variety of frameworks such as theory in practice and systematic elitism while others arguing for a more thorough theoretical approach.

### REFERENCES:

- [1] D. Saleebey, "The Strengths Perspective in Social Work Practice: Extensions and Cautions," *Soc. Work*, 1996, doi: 10.1093/sw/41.3.296.
- [2] J. Boddy, P. O'Leary, M. S. Tsui, C. M. Pak, and D. C. Wang, "Inspiring hope through social work practice," *Int. Soc. Work*, 2018, doi: 10.1177/0020872817706408.
- [3] R. Eyal-Lubling and M. Krumer-Nevo, "Feminist Social Work: Practice and Theory of Practice," *Soc. Work (United States)*, 2016, doi: 10.1093/sw/sww026.
- [4] H. Ferguson, "Researching Social Work Practice Close Up: Using Ethnographic and Mobile Methods to Understand Encounters between Social Workers, Children and Families," *Br. J. Soc. Work*, 2016, doi: 10.1093/bjsw/bcu120.
- [5] C. Chan, "A scoping review of social media use in social work practice," *Journal of Evidence-Informed Social Work*. 2016. doi: 10.1080/23761407.2015.1052908.
- [6] E. J. Mullen, S. E. Bledsoe, and J. L. Bellamy, "Implementing evidence-based social work practice," *Res. Soc. Work Pract.*, 2008, doi: 10.1177/1049731506297827.
- [7] J. McGovern, "Living Better With Dementia: Strengths-Based Social Work Practice and Dementia Care," *Soc. Work Health Care*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/00981389.2015.1029661.
- [8] D. Jayasooria, "Sustainable Development Goals and Social Work: Opportunities and Challenges for Social Work Practice in Malaysia," *J. Hum. Rights Soc. Work*, 2016, doi: 10.1007/s41134-016-0007-y.
- [9] M. Reisch and J. S. Jani, "The new politics of social work practice: Understanding context to promote change," *Br. J. Soc. Work*, 2012, doi: 10.1093/bjsw/bcs072.

- [10] B. Teater and J. Carpenter, "Independent social work practices with adults in England: An appreciative inquiry of a pilot programme," *J. Soc. Work*, 2017, doi: 10.1177/1468017316637229.
- [11] C. Knight, "Trauma-Informed Social Work Practice: Practice Considerations and Challenges," *Clin. Soc. Work J.*, 2015, doi: 10.1007/s10615-014-0481-6.
- [12] A. T. Ramsey and K. Montgomery, "Technology-Based Interventions in Social Work Practice: A Systematic Review of Mental Health Interventions," *Soc. Work Health Care*, 2014, doi: 10.1080/00981389.2014.925531.
- [13] T. Bent-Goodley, C. N. Fairfax, and I. Carlton-LaNey, "The significance of African-centered social work for social work practice," *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*. 2017. doi: 10.1080/10911359.2016.1273682.
- [14] H. Ferguson, "How children become invisible in child protection work: Findings from research into day-to-day social work practice," *British Journal of Social Work*. 2017. doi: 10.1093/bjsw/bcw065.
- [15] M. D. Dilauro, "Examination of an Integrative Health Care Model for Social Work Practice," *Heal. Soc. Work*, 2018, doi: 10.1093/hsw/hly028.
- [16] W. H. Guo and M. S. Tsui, "From resilience to resistance: A reconstruction of the strengths perspective in social work practice," *Int. Soc. Work*, 2010, doi: 10.1177/0020872809355391.
- [17] W. J. Spitzer and K. W. Davidson, "Future Trends in Health and Health Care: Implications for Social Work Practice in an Aging Society," *Soc. Work Health Care*, 2013, doi: 10.1080/00981389.2013.834028.
- [18] S. P. Pandya, "Students' views on expanding contours of social work practice through spirituality," *J. Relig. Spiritual. Soc. Work*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/15426432.2018.1485072.
- [19] J. Seinfeld, "Spirituality in Social Work Practice," *Clin. Soc. Work J.*, 2012, doi: 10.1007/s10615-012-0386-1.
- [20] W. C. H. Chan, "Assessing meaning in life in social work practice: Validation of the meaning in Life Questionnaire among clinical samples," *Br. J. Soc. Work*, 2017, doi: 10.1093/bjsw/bcv144.
- [21] O. Cariceo, M. Nair, and J. Lytton, "Data science for social work practice," *Methodol. Innov.*, 2018, doi: 10.1177/2059799118814392.
- [22] Z. Mokomane and T. J. Rochat, "Adoption in South Africa: Trends and patterns in social work practice," *Child Fam. Soc. Work*, 2012, doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2206.2011.00789.x.
- [23] A. E. Barsky, "Social Work Practice and Technology: Ethical Issues and Policy Responses," *J. Technol. Hum. Serv.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/15228835.2017.1277906.
- [24] S. Levin, D. Whitsett, and G. Wood, "Teaching MSW Social Work Practice in a Blended Online Learning Environment," *J. Teach. Soc. Work*, 2013, doi: 10.1080/08841233.2013.829168.

## CHAPTER 7

### SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE WITH TRADITIONAL APPROACHES: A REVIEW STUDY

---

Chetana Dilip Asbe, Associate Professor  
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
Email Id-[chetana.asbe@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:chetana.asbe@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

#### ABSTRACT:

Prior to the 1970s, casework, group work, and community organizing were among the strategies used to decide ways to practice. Other practice areas included child welfare, prisons, and medical social work. These many practice areas and methodologies, which were earlier considered useful, have since been revealed to have significant downsides. This strategy was criticized for not handling the person-in-situation mantra conceptually well enough. The methods and settings orientations were criticized for not promoting professional unity but rather for contributing to the historical division between cause and effect and personal and environmental elements. Another complaint was that the casework and group work portions of the methods orientation, in particular, fell short in addressing the needs of the impoverished.

#### KEYWORDS:

Psychotherapy, Social Services, Trauma Therapy, Behavioral Health, Psychosocial Assessment, Intervention Strategies.

#### INTRODUCTION

One result was that the civil rights movement showed more initiative and ingenuity, and the resulting structural change eventually gave birth to impoverished people's movements in urban areas. Nonviolent civil disobedience, the primary civil rights strategy of the 1950s and 1960s, was questioned and lost support as more ferocious social change was desired by younger, harsher voices. Concerns were expressed on a national level when urban civil unrest extended to many cities. Many social organizations were charged of not providing adequate aid to individuals in need. The largest poor people's movement in the nation, led by the chemist George Wiley, the National Welfare Rights group attacked social welfare groups and social work, which functioned as its main professional branch[1]. There have been claims that the therapeutic techniques in use failed to fully meet the requirements of the underprivileged, which called for environmental adjustments to the environment's structure as well as changes to the causes, complexity, and transitions in those individuals' lives. Despite the fact that economic and political disparities, inequities, and deprivation in health care, education, and housing were urgent and crucial issues in the lives of many clients, personal empowerment, social justice, and the development of social capital seemed lost as viable and active parts of the profession's nomenclature or semantics.

Following civil unrest, the War on Poverty and the civil rights movement compelled the profession to adopt a broader strategy and take social science into account. Paulo Freire's book *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, which lamented the conditions of oppressed people around the world and offered awareness-raising and educational strategies for praxis and emancipation, became a topic of discussion in classrooms, organizations, and among those who fight for the underprivileged. Social workers who supported grassroots organizations and fought against opportunistic government institutions like the welfare system and other

bureaucracies made a contribution to the endeavor to help the impoverished[2]. This expanding thought led to a shift in practice. Professional associations began to band together in the past to speak with a louder collective voice and demonstrate more organizational power. Before the move away from methods, the organizational/structural structure of the profession underwent changes. The National Association of Social Workers (NASW) was founded in 1955 to serve as a more effective and cohesive force that encompassed several independent practice groups. Methods' demise was helped in part by the NASW's 1962 decision to reject some of its principles. However, as a consequence, the profession's primary methods of group work and community organizing were diminished[3].

### **Social Casework**

The common practice approach known as casework, which includes crisis intervention, psych behavioral, and problem-solving techniques, has become functional therapy. The various associations' traditional methods of operation, concepts, roles, and organizational cultures did not abruptly disappear or disintegrate. These interests eventually faded, however, and a new, broader language, practice, and skill set emerged, acquiring significance in both the academic curriculum and sector. When Flexner issued his challenge at the National Conference of Charities, there was a drive to address his critique that social work was not yet a profession. This critique was supported by the assertion that there wasn't a method that was sufficiently unifying and internally consistent. Before the 1915 conference, social workers discussed systematizing education and expanding the area of social work. Mary Richmond made a strong academic argument against Flexner as shown by her work *Social Diagnosis*, which laid out a process for the investigation and diagnosis of case difficulties. As a consequence, casework gained pace and relevance, but not without opposition and controversy from Jane Addams and other significant individuals in the settlement movement[4].

The great advances that the new profession of the 20th century achieved in response to this country's quick expansion and transition from an agrarian to an industrial to a technological civilization are the foundation for practice today. Early theoretical methods relied heavily on Freudian-based psychodynamic casework from the 1920s through the 1950s, in particular. Despite being prevalent, this attitude prioritized internal factors above the impact of the external environment on behavior. Early American Freudians are still often cited in clinical literature today. In the decade that followed, there was a profusion of new ideas, such as ego-psychology, systems, family therapy, and ecological factors. The attention and study of the environment, as well as the interactions between people and their surroundings, grew as a result of time. By emphasizing the need of giving individuals and their systems the same amount of attention, systems theory has been acknowledged for its significance in fostering the development of a holistic view on practice[5], [6]. A range of practice philosophies and a number of technologies had experienced significant changes by the latter quarter of the 20th century. For this objective, the ecological systems model proven to be sufficiently all-inclusive. It was vital to include concepts, such as the holistic nature of practice, within a framework to encourage integration. It implies that individuals interact continuously with a range of environmental systems, including other individuals and institutions. Systems participate in reciprocal behaviors, whether they are closed or open systems. If a system is to grow and change, it must be accessible to outside input. For a range of populations with an obvious need for macro, mezzo, or microsystems level intervention, the ecosystems model has evolved to be helpful[7].

The notions of pluralism, equality, and participation, as well as theoretical, cultural, and personal presumptions that affect how clients are seen, have all been included into a variety of more current practice models. According to Berlin, other theorists like Wilkin and

Connolly have focused on the influence of clients' settings and social justice. In the early 1970s, Solomon and Pinder Hughes developed the empowerment paradigm. Devore and Schlesinger oversaw the development of the paradigm for creating an ethnically sensitive practice. Clinical social work that was otherwise effective was hampered by macro environmental systems, according to an experimentally substantiated justice-based approach. Social casework was supported by the major professional organizations and was generally acknowledged. However, it was hard to assess the effectiveness of this strategy or its relevance to the wide range of problems and individuals that social workers often help. Casework has thus had to build a solid foundation and refute its critics. Since then, many methodologically sound research on social work practice have been published[6]. What was once referred to as problem-solving casework is now characterized as direct practice. When the bachelor's degree was recognized as the first professional social work degree in 1974, the practice continuum of generalist and advanced social work practitioners was formed. Practitioners at the BSW level could only have generalist knowledge, skills, and practice; MSW level practitioners could only have advanced knowledge, skills, and practice.

### **For the Most Part**

Concerns regarding the profession's specialization and divide into clinical/psychotherapy and macro/reform increased and came up for debate in the 1970s and 1980s. A review of bachelor's level social work education and a fresh presentation of generalist practice, which blends practice, policy, and research, are the results of study and discussion. The majority of generalist practice was expected to take place at the micro level, but practitioners would still be conversant with and able to apply macro techniques when necessary. According to the Council of Social Work Education, generalist training is required for practice at the bachelor's level. Generalist practitioners provide care at all system levels, including people, families, groups, organizations, and communities. They perform their duties in a range of settings, including clinics, hospitals, neighborhoods, schools, family and children's groups, etc. Effective generalist practice requires a diverse knowledge base, the capacity to exhibit a range of skills, the capacity to assume multiple professional roles, awareness of and assimilation of professional values for application at various client system levels for problem-solving objectives. Systems theory, an important theoretical foundation for generalist practice, emphasizes the interaction, interdependence, and reciprocity within and between systems and subsystems. These experts must be knowledgeable about the data and skill sets required for distinct problem types and system levels. Practitioners are expected to begin by working for an organization or agency under supervision[8], [9].

### **Clinical Social Work**

Reid identifies four significant interconnected long-term changes in clinical social work: increasing treatment variety; short-term modalities; the expansion of action-oriented techniques; and the role of research as a basis for practice. In the context of the rise of interventive methods, strategies, and approaches, eclecticism has developed as a consequence of practitioners striving to blend several schools of thought to give the best treatment for clients. This is shown by a program that used a combination of interpersonal psychotherapy and cognitive-behavioral therapy to treat female depression. Trends toward short-term modalities have been spurred by worries about reducing waiting lists, saving costs, improving services, and having the capacity to keep clients in open-ended treatment. As human service budgets have begun to shrink and managed care models have been imposed by external financing sources, cost reduction is one of them[10]. Practice behavior was controlled by contesting the need of the service, limiting access, and establishing spending limits. Who would get services, what services would be provided, and how much of each would be

provided were ultimately decided by cost control. A stronger research base for practice will benefit clients, practitioners, the government, and society at large through reduced problem impact, enhanced practice technology, decreased costs and reliance on institutional and governmental funding, and real cost savings by fostering social functioning and increasing productivity[11], [12].

### **Work in Teams**

The faculty at Western Reserve University defined group work as goal-directed activity with small groups of people directed at meeting socioemotional needs and accomplishing tasks" in 1927. Units of attention are focused on these systems, group members, the whole group, and/or the group as a whole in order to affect changes in larger systems, such as the environment. Hopps and Pinder Hughes look at certain treatment groups and how they help overwhelmed people take control of their lives and the environment around them. They discuss these positions in great detail. Hopps and Pineridge's claim. Our findings suggest that as a regulating and uplifting force for addressing both personal and communal difficulties, professionally led groups may be playing a larger role and occupying a more crucial place in contemporary society. Groups offer the support structures necessary for survival, empowerment, personal growth, and change. They are a powerful and underutilized resource for the helping professions in resolving the separation and connection famine that many people experience[13].

Group programs were first made available by the YMCA and later the YWCA in the middle of the nineteenth century. This strategy was often connected to the settlement homes throughout the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The progressive reform movement, which was backed by settlement houses, used group practice methods to address issues such as deteriorating urban infrastructure, poor sanitary conditions, subpar and unsafe housing, precarious employment, inadequate educational opportunities, constrictive, if available recreation, police brutality, unfair practices, as well as other quality-of-life issues for immigrants and other poor people who were frequently isolated due to language, cult, and other factors. Jane Addams, the creator of Hull House, and other prominent women believed that by using a group approach, opportunities for informal pedagogy could play a significant role in assisting individuals in enhancing both their own human capital and competencies as well as the social capital of their environment. Black women's attempts to change at the time were not widely acknowledged[14].

Reform rather than alleviation was the primary goal of settlement houses. Employers often were women. They were intelligent and in positions of control. Later on, they were in command in state and federal agencies. However, when the casework method gained dominant, workers in settlement homes were not permitted to practice professional social work. These trailblazing female leaders opened the door for civic participation and professional cooperation. The bulk of the population the settlement house ladies were seeking to reach was White, notwithstanding the excellent job they accomplished. Despite the fact that African Americans had issues that were comparable to those of other groups as well as persistent discrimination and antagonism, they were ignored by these competent, lively aid workers. Even though Addams finally included and helped African Americans, she had to build a "separate" settlement house for them because of the prejudice she experienced. One of the Black women who embraced social change and made names for themselves is Mary McLeod Bethune, who founded Bethune-Cookman College for Blacks and later became Eleanor Roosevelt's friend[15]. Leaders of group projects began pursuing professionalism around the start of the 1930s. Grace Coyle was essential in turning the emphasis to social work, even if she first had doubts about the association. The fundamental principles of the

discipline were developed by a variety of intellectuals, such as Cooley, who concentrated on small group analysis and the social nature of individuals, Baldwin, Dewey, and Kropatin, as well as Mead and Lewin, who reiterated these concepts in opposition to the collective need dichotomy. Without a doubt, John Dewey's advocacy for progressive education had an influence on the ideas of the day. Group work was a method for putting these concepts into small, casual groups.

Group work as a social work practice expanded during the Depression as a result of skepticism about the value, meaning, and objectives of casework in the face of pressing human need. The Great Depression posed a devastating challenge to social work and its institutions. Helping individuals overcome their challenges has always been based on the core goal of eradicating poverty on an individual basis. Little humanitarian groups were unable to cope the significant financial challenges that almost everyone was going through because of the pervasive unemployment. The emergency implementation of public welfare, which was based on entitlement and mass organization to provide everyone in need with money and public work, was sponsored and managed by the federal government. The private social agency made it through, but with less influence in communal affairs and a casework team that is largely focused on understanding individual and family habits and how to help individuals deal with personal difficulties. Mass administration, extensive planning, and last-minute improvisations became the norm [16].

Several caseworkers were dubious about the need, seriousness, and rigor of the method and questioned its worth despite the introduction of group work. During the 1940s, a period of war, foreign unrest, and domestic fear, group workers were cautious not to allow their cause be used as a scapegoat or be connected with a non-American social element. Instead of focusing their time and abilities on social change and action, they chose to further and improve the idea of group work practice. The need for services targeted at helping World War II veterans increased. Even while certain services in regular agencies and organizations continued, group workers pushed for treatment. As a consequence, the goal of achieving social change via groups was decreased, if not abandoned, while interest in groups for treating a group of individuals as a whole increased [17].

### **Treatment and the incorporation of casework and group activities**

Group therapy originally gained popularity in the early 1920s with the emergence of individual responsibility for problems as opposed to collective accountability and duty. Falck identified the move to the mainstream American value and fixation with individualism and methodological individualism as a significant one. Falck continued by saying that family therapy and group therapy had replaced group courses in the nation's social work colleges, and that when casework and group work were combined, "social group work lost a great deal of its preferential relevance as clinically focused social work became even more dominant nearly always conceived of as with or on behalf of individuals even when spoken in group terms." The study of task groups has taken the place of group work in macro practice. Tropp also questioned why group work was being eliminated from social work college courses yet it was still necessary for other professions. For group members with winter diagnoses, the treatment goals. Many theorists have supported the therapeutic approach, including Coyle, Knopka, Redl, and Wineman.

Concerns have been raised about how to ensure that group process occurs as well as how to explain group work as distinct from casework in a group. Others clarified how social group work might be applied to other jobs, helping group work to keep some of its initial goals. Examples of groups in family interventions as preventive, treatment, and task groups, as well

as the treatment of choice, are explored in discussions of practice with American Indians and Alaskan Natives, overwhelmed clients, and women[18], [19]. From the middle of the 20th century until the end, many models were developed, and according to Galinsky and Schopler and Galinsky, these models included the remedial model, later known as the rehabilitative/preventive approach, as well as the reciprocal model, also known as the mediating model, the interactionist model, and the humanistic model. In order to help groups, a variety of theories have been developed, including those that emphasize problem-solving, cognitive behavioral theory, family systems, psychodynamic empowerment, social learning, and communication. Groups were more and more strongly associated by the 1990s with an empowerment approach that assisted members in affecting both personal and environmental change[20].

### **Community Organization**

The NASW didn't publish full research on the concept of this approach until 1962, despite early attempts to integrate community groups within the profession. CO received the same treatment for both group and individual work at that time. Gurin identified important elements of CO as a social work approach, social welfare planning method, and social action. CO was built on the ideals and attitudes of the settlement homes and charitable organizations. Activities related to COS served as the basis for CO and social planning. Community Chests were founded with the intention of providing logical methods for the distribution of cash arising from the World War I relief operations, in addition to defining criteria and standards for fiscal responsibility and programming objectives that corresponded to conventional ideas[21].

## **DISCUSSION**

Community organizing was also the preferred strategy in the profession's early forays towards social change in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Earlier social workers/reformers who were organized at the neighborhood level/house by house identified problems, conducted research on them, produced suggestions and plans for corrective action, established pressure groups, and took part in initiatives to promote change. Saul Alinsky effectively used this tactic in the 1930s and 1940s, particularly in the Chicago neighborhood behind the stock yards. It was as successful in the fight for civil rights in the 1950s and 1960s. The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 mandated the establishment of Community Action Agencies to supervise and manage the many Community Action Programs that were created to assist and renovate older urban neighborhoods that had deteriorated due to previous civil unrest.

Under the greatest practicable participation clause, low-income residents of the area were required to take part in CAP decision-making[22]. CO became less feasible during the 1980s conservative wave as a result of significant budget cuts and a widespread backlash against social support. In response to neighborhood challenges to the status quo, these neighborhood-based change organizations gradually became more conservative and offered traditional social service programs, which caused a reaction that changed the law requiring representation to also include the "establishment."

Over the last 10 years, this strategy has shown to be beneficial for both faith-based and grassroots groups. CO continues to be an important strategy in social work today. Conceptually, it was divided into three models: social action, community development, and social planning. Work with relevant demographic groups in rural, suburban, urban, and/or hamlet- and/or-barrios locations, as well as online, serves as an illustration of this strategy. In order to promote the sense of community, it has been utilized to work with American Indians

in urban and reserve contexts. Successful CO initiatives required a need assessment and the active participation of community members in the planning, implementation, and evaluation processes [23], [24]. Another example is the work done with Mexican Americans, where CO skills were used to bring together community leaders and residents at the local level to develop strategies to reduce tensions and improve relations between the police and civilians.

### CONCLUSION

Working with specific demographic groups in rural, reservation, barrio, urban, and other places requires identifying the problem, mobilizing residents, locating resources to fulfill the need, raising money, establishing coalitions, and advocating, among other things. In an attempt to eliminate prejudice worldwide, women are using the Internet to assist advocacy, networking, and organization. In all initiatives, change progresses from consensus-based to conflict-based to contest-based procedures. Even in the era of cutting-edge technology, there remain strong ties between online and traditional organization. Although CO has been shown to be an effective strategy for addressing community concerns, interventions combining micro and macro systems have eclipsed its effectiveness.

Community organizing is getting more attention because to electronic advocacy, a potent tool for "collective action and communication," which is also attracting new practitioners and citizen groups. In fact, studies have shown that utilizing the Internet for lobbying has had positive results. Community organizing and policy practice are undergoing a revolution as more people use the Internet, which includes web-based techniques, e-mail-based tools, and other approaches.

### REFERENCES:

- [1] V. Papadaki, K. Plotnikof, M. Gioumidou, V. Zisimou, and E. Papadaki, "A Comparison of Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Among Students of Helping Professions in Crete, Greece: The Cases of Social Work, Psychology, Medicine, and Nursing," *J. Homosex.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/00918369.2014.998956.
- [2] D. R. Tillman, D. D. Hof, A. Pranckeviciene, A. Endriulaitiene, R. Markšaityte, and K. Žardeckaite-Matulaitiene, "Social distance from mental illness among counseling, social work, and psychology students and helping professionals," *J. Soc. Action Couns. Psychol.*, 2018, doi: 10.33043/jsacp.10.1.24-37.
- [3] A. Pranckeviciene, K. Zardeckaite-Matulaitiene, R. Marksaityte, A. Endriulaitiene, D. R. Tillman, and D. D. Hof, "Social distance in Lithuanian psychology and social work students and professionals," *Soc. Psychiatry Psychiatr. Epidemiol.*, 2018, doi: 10.1007/s00127-018-1495-0.
- [4] S. Webb, J. Chonody, R. Ranzijn, J. Bryan, and M. Owen, "A Qualitative Investigation of Gerontological Practice: The Views of Social Work and Psychology Students, Faculty, and Practitioners," *Gerontol. Geriatr. Educ.*, 2016, doi: 10.1080/02701960.2015.1009054.
- [5] J. R. Barner, M. J. Holosko, B. A. Thyer, and S. King, "Research productivity in top-ranked schools in psychology and social work: Does having a research culture matter?," *J. Soc. Work Educ.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/10437797.2015.977123.
- [6] M. M. Weissman et al., "National survey of psychotherapy training in psychiatry, psychology, and social work," *Archives of General Psychiatry*. 2006. doi: 10.1001/archpsyc.63.8.925.

- [7] D. C. Russell, "The Social Psychology of Work," *Occup. Environ. Med.*, 1974, doi: 10.1136/oem.31.1.75-a.
- [8] D. D. Murdoch, A. Gregory, and J. M. Eggleton, "Why psychology? An investigation of the training in psychological literacy in nursing, medicine, social work, counselling psychology, and clinical psychology," *Can. Psychol.*, 2015, doi: 10.1037/a0038191.
- [9] M. C. Coutinho, F. de Oliveira, and L. Sato, "Looking at daily life: Pathways for a social psychology of work," *Psicol. USP*, 2016, doi: 10.1590/0103-656420140053.
- [10] T. Morgenroth and M. K. Ryan, "Gender Trouble in Social Psychology: How Can Butler's Work Inform Experimental Social Psychologists' Conceptualization of Gender?," *Frontiers in Psychology*. 2018. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01320.
- [11] B. A. Allan, K. L. Autin, and R. D. Duffy, "Examining Social Class and Work Meaning Within the Psychology of Working Framework," *J. Career Assess.*, 2014, doi: 10.1177/1069072713514811.
- [12] P. H. Hawley and A. Williford, "Articulating the theory of bullying intervention programs: Views from social psychology, social work, and organizational science," *J. Appl. Dev. Psychol.*, 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.appdev.2014.11.006.
- [13] M. H. Bernardo, F. de Oliveira, H. A. de Souza, and C. C. de Sousa, "Linhas paralelas: As distintas aproximações da Psicologia em relação ao trabalho," *Estud. Psicol.*, 2017, doi: 10.1590/1982-02752017000100003.
- [14] F. M. Howard, L. Beddoe, and A. Mowjood, "Interprofessional supervision in social work and psychology in Aotearoa New Zealand," *Aotearoa New Zeal. Soc. Work*, 2016, doi: 10.11157/anzswj-vol25iss4id60.
- [15] M. J. Holosko and J. R. Barner, "Research Productivity in Top-Ranked Schools in Psychology and Social Work: Research Cultures Do Matter!," *Res. Soc. Work Pract.*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/1049731514549815.
- [16] J. Walsh, "Object Relations Theory and Self Psychology in Social Work Practice," *Psychoanal. Soc. Work*, 2004, doi: 10.1300/j032v11n02\_07.
- [17] H. R. Hermes and I. C. Arruda Lamarca, "Cuidados paliativos: Uma abordagem a partir das categorias profissionais de saúde," *Ciencia e Saude Coletiva*. 2013. doi: 10.1590/S1413-81232013000900012.
- [18] D. E. Rast, C. Axtell, and S. Mcglynn, "(Re)Applying social psychology to organizational work, well-being, and leadership," *J. Appl. Soc. Psychol.*, 2016, doi: 10.1111/jasp.12363.
- [19] E. L. Campbell, "Transitioning from a Model of Cultural Competency toward an Inclusive Pedagogy of 'Racial Competency' Using Critical Race Theory," *J. Soc. Welf. Hum. Rights*, 2015, doi: 10.15640/jswhr.v3n1a2.
- [20] E. Matka, D. River, R. Littlechild, and T. Powell, "Involving service users and carers in admissions for courses in social work and clinical psychology: Cross-disciplinary comparison of practices at the university of Birmingham," *Br. J. Soc. Work*, 2010, doi: 10.1093/bjsw/bcp142.
- [21] J. M. Chonody, S. N. Webb, R. Ranzijn, and J. Bryan, "Working with older adults: Predictors of attitudes towards ageing in psychology and social work students, faculty, and practitioners," *Aust. Psychol.*, 2014, doi: 10.1111/ap.12056.

- [22] C. F. Sori and L. L. Hecker, "Ethical and legal considerations when counselling children and families," *Aust. New Zeal. J. Fam. Ther.*, 2015, doi: 10.1002/anzf.1126.
- [23] C. Winfield, N. M. Sparkman-Key, and A. Vajda, "Interprofessional collaboration among helping professions: Experiences with holistic client care," *J. Interprofessional Educ. Pract.*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.xjep.2017.08.004.
- [24] O. G. Noskova, "The condition of psychological sciences of work and workers in modern Russia," *Psikholog. Zh.*, 2017, doi: 10.7868/S0205959217050051.

## CHAPTER 8

### COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY PRACTICE IN AMERICA: AN OVERVIEW

---

Kajal Dipen Chheda, Assistant Professor  
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
Email Id- [kajal.chheda@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:kajal.chheda@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

#### **ABSTRACT:**

Community development has always been a crucial component in reestablishing American communities. After the Great Depression, it became very successful; notable initiatives were the Tennessee Valley Authority, the Works Progress Administration, and the Civilian Conservation Corps. These federally funded programs were welcomed sources of employment and infrastructure enhancement for local and regional institutions. Nearly 30 years later, it was evident that the market circumstances in struggling communities did not provide feasible possibilities for generating the required housing and commercial growth. Following the social turmoil of the 1960s, African American leaders began to employ community development as a successful strategy to help both urban and rural communities recover. It was acknowledged that the emphasis of their campaign should shift from personally targeted legal tactics to socioeconomics. The new slogan was "community self-determination and local control of institutions and resources." African Americans around the nation started community development companies because they wanted to enhance their quality of life and realized that in order to do so, they would need to become involved in community organization.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Government Initiatives, Policy Practice, Social Justice, Urban Communities, Rural Communities, Social Policy.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

These locally based organizations are managed by community boards. Early on, it became clear that although conflict-organizing tactics aided in the development of certain CDCs, a different approach was required to achieve the objectives of raising money for community reconstruction aims. Although community members served on boards, early CDCs depended on financial institutions, charitable organizations, and the government for funding and were influenced by these groups [1]. Instead of working directly with citizens, CDCs had an impact on community via activities like building management and tenant selection. CDCs have had significant success with managing buildings as well as with creating and renovating low-income housing.

A stronger community structure and social ethos were developed since it was realized that housing alone would not change areas. As a result, fresh efforts including community organizing, social services, employment, and economic growth were promoted. The development of CDCs has been greatly aided by partnerships connecting organizations with the community and the community with a greater metropolitan region [2]. In reality, CDCs provide a model for modern strategies for reviving impoverished, suffering areas, i.e., extensive community activities and community development. Community planners, organizers, and policy experts have contributed significantly to community development. There are several effective CDCs around the nation as examples.

## Community Planning

Although it is a major macro approach on its own, planning has been and continues to be a vital part of community organization. It was used in Pittsburgh at the beginning of the 20th century by the country's first council of social agencies in response to the first thorough examination of issues in a significant industrial metropolis. The Pittsburgh Council and others addressed pre-existing social issues and created guidelines to help organizations provide services efficiently. There was little leverage for implementing planning proposals since local councils seldom ever had power over the distribution of monies to agencies. Following the Great Depression, the government had a primary role in resolving socioeconomic issues, necessitating the implementation of significant planning efforts [3]. Before extensive planning was once again focused on resolving social problems, it would take place during the 1960s anti-poverty campaigns. For almost ten years, all new social policy initiatives had to include planning as part of its suggested programming approach. Planning was necessary for program efforts in practice areas, and a logical, goal-centered strategy was used. The unreasonable system-wide aims and objectives of social services made rational planning challenging. By the 1980s, the conservative movement, the trend of decentralization and devolution from national to state/local processes, and market-based processes had eroded the fleeting national interest in rational planning. Block grants enabled the transfer of services from the federal to state levels by the late 1990s. Faith-based projects, a Bush administration policy stance, are now very dispersed at the local level and need even less planning. Inadequate information systems often jeopardize social work rational planning [4]. This gap is being closed in part because to the development of micro and supercomputers, as well as the increasing accessibility of the Internet and other technologies.

## Practice Policy

Policy is increasingly seen as a mechanism for resolving issues. As a result, it shares a systematic body of information, methodologies, and abilities with the other approaches. Large systems are being changed as a result of policy practice in order to benefit people and families. Too often, practitioners disregard the need of knowing and committing to policy practice for the execution of the profession's social justice position. The normal duties of social workers as case managers and therapists fall short of that aim if the concept of social justice is understood to signify a commitment to ensuring equitable access for everyone to fundamental social goods. This is not meant to discount the value of these positions, but rather to highlight the fact that they do not seek to guarantee a fairer allocation of opportunities. Direct participation in the creation and revision of social policy is necessary for the advancement of social justice [5]. Policy planners organize, monitor, manage, and evaluate interventive methods in companies and communities in addition to devising plans and programs to implement policies.

Referral through termination are the first two steps that have been recognized as important to intervention. According to Iatridis, the formulation and implementation planning phases, which are primarily focused on organization and administration, are the most important ones. The examination of the issue, creation of suggestions, dissemination of recommendations, and customer response and well-written policy views are important stages in formulation. Implementation, assessment, and feedback are all stages of the implementation planning process. Policy analysts, policy developers, policy advocates, lobbyists, political coalition builders, expert witnesses, legislative aides/advisors, social workers, and politicians are just a few of the roles and abilities that professionals in this field of activity may play [6]. There is a claim that the profession has not participated in policy practice enough or has not recognized it for the political process that it is. Figueira-McDonough recommends reform via the

legislative and judicial systems, which exhibit formal policymaking processes, as well as community and organizational transformation, which illustrates constituency-based influence, to resolve this conundrum. Political social work is a new field of policy practice that calls for expertise in social welfare, administration, community organization, and human behavior. One is creating instructional strategies for BSW policy courses that expose students to hands-on policy practice [7]. These alternatives increase the prospects available to students, particularly as they provide them early exposure to practical policy practice.

### **Social Management and Administration**

Different methods of administration were immediately apparent, starting with settlement homes and Charity Organization Societies. For a variety of tasks, including certain administrative duties, the former depended on affluent businesspeople who served on boards. Full-time employees created the organizations and chose their board members, who were often rich, college-educated acquaintances, to run the settlement homes. With the enactment of New Deal legislation, notably the 1935 Social Security Act, in the wake of the Great Depression, the organization of social services countrywide underwent a significant change in the 1930s. Large public agencies gained significance, whereas new and private agencies lost their prominence. These vast organizations, most of which were bureaucratic and hierarchical, employed large numbers of people as well as the social workers who staffed them [8]. In the 1960s, a paradigm change took place when new government-sponsored community action groups emerged that were the polar opposite of bureaucratic institutions. President Lyndon Baines Johnson's War on Poverty initiatives promoted citizen involvement, and the 1964 Economic Opportunity Act made it mandatory. Social workers often held executive positions and led in an entrepreneurial, politically engaged manner. Traditional casework services were not a priority.

Later, the focus shifted to program responsibility and assessment, posing a challenge for program administrators in light of this new, politically motivated direction. This worry, however, was overshadowed by the severe budget cutbacks and retrenchment in human services throughout the Reagan and Bush administrations, as well as the Republican Contract on America. The delivery and management of social services adopted privatization as its new name and driving force as a way to lower costs and the size of bureaucracy [9]. Practitioner job opportunities increased in private for-profit businesses, while activities formerly provided by government personnel were farmed out. Partnerships between the public and commercial sectors were promoted, and controlled social and health services expanded rapidly. For financial gain, private organizations promoted their services. These events fundamentally altered executive function and social service management. Concerns exist in this situation about the preservation of customer rights and if they will be forsaken in favor of monetary gain and bottom lines.

The goal of social administration is to provide services via organizations in order to enhance the welfare of all client systems, just as it was in the past. Administrators are seasoned generalists rather than management experts who provide leadership to agencies in the delivery of services and program development. Good managers are able to create a positive work environment for their personnel by using the agency's resources and assets. Equally important to administrators is assisting customers in achieving their objectives [10]. They must be adept at working with task forces to design policies and programs, and they must understand how to present the agency in the community so that it is seen as helpful in carrying out its goal. Always a top concern is finding strategies to make sure that the agency environment supports the achievement of goals and excellent employee morale. Effective leadership requires knowledge of organizational theory, organizational behavior, and power

and influence in organizations, communities, and networks. Executive directors, program administrators, managers, supervisors, program planners and developers, consultants, evaluators, researchers, data managers, policy analysts, advocates, and public relations specialists are among those in charge of running programs and agencies. For an agency to be managed effectively, these tasks must be combined with abilities in fund raising, hiring and developing excellent employees, and collaborating with a board of directors. Leadership, interpersonal abilities, common sense, and integrity are essential in all jobs and activities. Additionally, it is important to keep up with emerging technology that enhance practice as well as rules and regulations that impact governance [10].

Breaking past the glass barrier, people of color and women are assuming executive and senior management positions. In response to the cultural revolution that is threatening society, a highly varied group of social workers, especially women, will give leadership in both academics and practice with a diversified clientele. In the next years, more attention will need to be paid to issues of color, gender, and sexual orientation in leadership and administration. Several relatively recent developments, such as ethnic-sensitive practice and research on practice, have an influence on all practice areas.

### **Ethnically sensitive behavior**

The ethnic-sensitive practice model contends that some fundamental ideas ethnicity, socioeconomic class, and oppression are included into an organizational schema of intervention principles from an ethnocultural viewpoint. The idea that an ethnic group's cultural diversity results in its people experiencing distinctive realities is a key tenet. Understanding these variations helps one better comprehend the reality of the ethnic group. The following are some of the presumptions Schlesinger and Devore make in relation to ethnic-sensitive practice: history influences both the genesis and resolution of problems; the "here and now" is more important than the past or the future; nonconscious phenomena have an impact on family functioning capacity; and ethnicity can be a source of harmony, identity, and strength as well as discord, strain, and strife [11].

A multicultural viewpoint, which requires social workers to appreciate and accept aspects of cultures other than their own, is another element of ethnically sensitive practice. Understanding culture, power, and the connections between the two ideas is still another element of successful practice. For ethnically sensitive practice, the dual viewpoint is equally beneficial and enlightening. According to this method, clients are a member of two systems that they must contend with: the dominant or sustaining system and the nurturing system. The former includes the physical and social surroundings of the family and community, while the latter is the source of power and financial resources. When cultural-practice is included into your evaluation and intervention repertoire at both the micro and macro levels, it is being used effectively [12].

### **Science in Action**

Particularly in the last two to three decades, significant advancements have been realized in research. Since the 1970s, it has been clear that the government is abdicating its duty to provide for the welfare of the public. A message that good motives and good goals are not good enough for an increasingly critical electorate that is opposed to social reform and wants assurance that those programs it funds are working" transformed the attitudes and interests of a relatively wealthy voting public. Demands for demonstrations of practice efficacy at that time outpaced definitions and trustworthy methods for capturing it. There has been a shift away from reflective practice and authority-based practice, like tradition or practice knowledge, as funders and stakeholders demand proof that social work treatments are

beneficial. There were allegations that evidence-based practice was at odds with the profession's core values, thus this progress should not be taken to imply that there was no professional pushback. Skeptics may have been aware that many claims about the efficacy of therapies were refuted by the early systematic assessment studies [13].

Evidence-based practice was one way that social workers and other health and human care experts reacted. Through single-case reviews, attempts to combine practice and research have received some attention, but not enough traction. However, a few more recent research are interesting. For instance, in an attempt to enhance human services for children, Glisson and Hemmelgam looked into the effects of intra- and inter-organizational methods employed for service coordination on service quality and their results. They discovered, among other things, that an agency's organizational climate directly affects the psychosocial functioning of such a needy and vulnerable population, as opposed to: organizational climate positively affected service quality and outcomes; improved service quality does not translate into more positive outcomes; and although both intra- and inter-organizational characteristics affect service quality, increased service coordination lowers quality of service. These and other practice research results demonstrate the need for educators, practitioners, service planners, and administrators to stay current with the status of practice science [14].

As it should be, evidence-based practice has now evolved into the "gold standard" for assessing social work practice. Because EBP has been given a high importance in the profession and among stakeholders, it is thought that this method will help the profession overcome its "depth and breadth issues. These internal and external influences highlight how the profession's procedures, constraints, and obligations are developing and rising to the level of its more seasoned colleagues. The driving factor will be practicing research in the form of outcomes and service assessment.

### **Various Practice Areas**

Historically, the social work profession has assisted marginalized demographic groups. Friendly visitors, forerunners of modern social workers, engaged people in transformative efforts with various motivations, strategies, and levels of success as the late 1800s and early 1900s waves of immigration, urbanization, and industrialization spread across the United States.

The issues of people of color, Native Americans, and others were often left to self-help initiatives that mimicked the mainstream community, despite the fact that new immigrants, women, and children, mostly of European descent, were the focus of mainstream activists. Today's professional social workers deal with a wide range of people and in many different professions. It is hard to talk about every area of practice since so many of them overlap. For instance, according to data from the Department of Health and Human Services, licensed social workers are the most often used providers of mental health services in the country [15]. They provide services in these domains to a variety of groups with various biopsychosocial and financial demands. among the most typical fields or areas:

- a) Services for those who may need political and economic advocacy, such as children, families, the elderly, prisoners, domestic abuse victims, gay, lesbian, and transgender individuals, the homeless, immigrants, women, people of color, and many more.
- b) Acute, ambulatory, inpatient, and private practice behavioral health treatments may be offered in settings for mental health and drug misuse to clients and communities with stated needs.

- c) Child welfare and juvenile services may be offered by governmental, private nonprofit, and/or for-profit organizations. These services include child custody, adoption, abuse and neglect, kinship care, protection, delinquency/gangs, and family services.
- d) Services for communities and neighborhoods these services include uniting communities and neighborhoods around issues like crime, education, and others.
- e) Services connected to criminal justice, such as diversion, forensics, juvenile justice, drug courts, parole, and probation.
- f) Assistance for at-risk groups in the area of education and schools include advocacy, after-school programs, delinquency prevention, special education, and other assistance.
- g) Emergency or disaster services include both direct and indirect services that are offered by the American Red Cross and other relief organizations, such as crisis intervention, resource development, and service coordination for internally displaced and refugee populations.
- h) Environmental justice includes working with communities and groups dedicated to bringing justice to regions affected by industrial pollution and exposure to harmful levels of environmental toxins. It also includes participating in community organizing, advocacy, mobilization, and other activities.
- i) Family service organizations, Planned Parenthood, Inc., and other organizations provide a variety of community-based, religious, and advocacy services that are aimed at improving, fostering, and developing the social functioning of partners, marriages, and families.
- j) Gerontology services include in-home, residential, and advocacy services for elderly citizens as well as physical and mental health care.
- k) Offering advocacy, resettlement, financial, legal, and other services directly and indirectly to recent immigrants and refugees is included in the category of immigrant and refugee services.
- l) International social work includes working as a practitioner, lecturer, or consultant in other host countries and using direct and indirect interventions.
- m) Politicians, lobbyists, advocates, policy analysts, and others who may work at the local, state, and federal levels are among the jobs that fall under the umbrella of policy/legislative practice.

## DISCUSSION

These may be given in primary, institutional, and public health settings. They encompass a variety of acute and ambulatory care, including genetic, prenatal, psychological, HIV/AIDS, nutritional, and discharge planning services. Services offered to current and past troops, as well as to their families, in the context of the military include crisis and support services as well as physical and mental health care. Investigating social issues, documenting the success of social work practice, policy, therapy, and service results are all included in research and evaluation services [16]. Employee support, referral, and other services that may be offered by public, private, or nonprofit organizations are included in the category of occupational social work services. Services for vocational rehabilitation for people with impairments

include work preparedness and therapeutic care. Future social work practice will continue to be impacted by factors that will always shape its limits. Practitioners must be alert to the needs of both established and emerging disadvantaged groups in order to advance social justice and improve social functioning. However, the difficulty of addressing such issues must be seen in light of the profession's primary goal. By doing this, the profession may preserve and increase public confidence, which can increase support for its objectives [16]. Strong evidence about the efficacy and utility of intervention tactics, change theories, and policy approaches is a key component in gaining more trust.

### CONCLUSION

Since the start of this profession in the 20th century, significant developments have been recorded. This chapter identified a number of achievements as well as problems in need of consensus-building and future development. Evidence-based knowledge among students, practitioners, and educators is crucial among them. Continuous focus should be placed on eradicating "isms" and advancing social and economic fairness, in addition to culturally sensitive methods.

If the profession wants related professions to utilize the information produced by social work and advance in the hierarchy of professions, it must continue to promote the refinement of its "problematic" or paradigm and advance theory based on evidence. The understanding of the profession must be advanced by practitioners as well as academics. The profession has to identify itself to the public by using social media to promote the strengths and capabilities of its practice. Finally, everyone should continue to be aware of the practical ramifications of shifting demography. There are also big challenges, such as whether social work practice is dedicated to producing a cadre of professionals who are ready to react, both in this country and overseas, for both new and old categories of vulnerable people. Can the profession see the requirement for elasticity and flexibility to foresee problems in the future and predict where their resources will be needed.

### REFERENCES:

- [1] M. A. T. Quimbo, J. E. M. Perez, and F. O. Tan, "Community development approaches and methods: Implications for community development practice and research," *Community Dev.*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/15575330.2018.1546199.
- [2] R. S. Aquino, M. Lück, and H. A. Schänzel, "A conceptual framework of tourism social entrepreneurship for sustainable community development," *J. Hosp. Tour. Manag.*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.jhtm.2018.09.001.
- [3] A. Kamisan Pusiran and H. Xiao, "Challenges and community development: A case study of Homestay in Malaysia," *Asian Soc. Sci.*, 2013, doi: 10.5539/ass.v9n5p1.
- [4] B. D. Missingham, "Asset-based learning and the pedagogy of community development," *Community Dev.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/15575330.2017.1291528.
- [5] Fariborz Aref, S. Gill and Farshid Aref, "Tourism Development in Local Communities: As a Community Development Approach," *J. Am. Sci.*, 2010.
- [6] J. Lucena, J. Schneider, and J. A. Leydens, "Engineering and sustainable community development," *Synth. Lect. Eng. Technol. Soc.*, 2010, doi: 10.2200/S00247ED1V01Y201001ETS011.
- [7] H. A. Nikkhah and M. Redzuan, "Participation as a medium of empowerment in community development," *Eur. J. Soc. Sci.*, 2009.

- [8] M. M. Mtika and M. Kistler, "Contiguous community development," *J. Rural Stud.*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.jrurstud.2017.01.018.
- [9] S. Z. Bonye, A. Thaddeus, and E. Owusu-sekyere, "Community Development in Ghana: Theory and Practice," *Eur. Sci. J.*, 2013.
- [10] V. A. Beard, "Household Contributions to Community Development in Indonesia," *World Dev.*, 2007, doi: 10.1016/j.worlddev.2006.06.006.
- [11] P. Keyim, "Tourism Collaborative Governance and Rural Community Development in Finland: The Case of Vuonislampi," *J. Travel Res.*, 2018, doi: 10.1177/0047287517701858.
- [12] K. E. Dupuy, "Community development requirements in mining laws," *Extr. Ind. Soc.*, 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.exis.2014.04.007.
- [13] J. Engle, "Stories of tragedy, trust and transformation? A case study of education-centered community development in post-earthquake Haiti," *Prog. Plann.*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.progress.2017.04.001.
- [14] D. P. Jutte, J. L. Miller, and D. J. Erickson, "Neighborhood adversity, child health, and the role for community development," *Pediatrics*, 2015, doi: 10.1542/peds.2014-3549F.
- [15] H. L. Wlokas, P. Westoby, and S. Soal, "Learning from the literature on community development for the implementation of community renewables in South Africa," *J. Energy South. Africa*, 2017, doi: 10.17159/2413-3051/2017/v28i1a1592.
- [16] M. Saayman and A. Giampiccoli, "Community-based and pro-poor tourism: Initial assessment of their relation to community development," *European Journal of Tourism Research*. 2016. doi: 10.54055/ejtr.v12i.218.

## CHAPTER 9

### EXPLORING PROFESSIONS, ETHICAL EVOLUTION AND CERTIFICATION IN SOCIAL WORK

---

Zuleika Homavazir, Professor,  
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
Email Id-[zuleika.homavazir@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:zuleika.homavazir@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

#### **ABSTRACT:**

The American Heritage Dictionary defines a profession as an occupation or vocation requiring training in the liberal arts or sciences and advanced study in a specialized field. The Social Work Dictionary describes a profession as a group of people who use in common a system of values, skills, techniques, knowledge, and beliefs to meet a specific social need. The general public finally acknowledges this organization as having the appropriate credentials to satisfy the specific need and often bestows formal and official recognition on it by means of licensing or other sanctions as the trustworthy source for performing the essential service. Further, according to The Social Work Dictionary, a professional is "an individual who meets the requirements for membership in a particular profession and uses that profession's practices, knowledge, and skills to provide services to a client system, always adhering to that profession's values and code of ethics." This definition alludes to a codified and acknowledged set of principles and standards that guide behavior in the practice of a particular profession.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Ethical Evolution, Professional Ethics, Social Work, Credentialing, Professional Standards, Ethical Standards.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

The profession of social work did not initially exist. Reamer divided the evolution of social work values and ethics into four phases: the morality phase, values phase, ethical theory and decision-making phase, and ethical standards and risk management phase. In the nineteenth century, friendly visitors engaged in social work with the goal of enhancing the moral character of the disadvantaged. In the latter quarter of the 20th century, social work practitioners abandoned this moral focus in favor of developing intervention strategies and techniques, training programs, and schools of thought [1]. By the middle of the 20th century, the social work profession had developed clear ethical standards that governed practitioners' actions. The first Code of Ethics was ratified in 1947 by the Delegate Conference of the American Association of Social Workers. The National Association of Social Workers adopted its first Code of Ethics in 1960, five years after the organization was created via the union of many professional social work organizations.

A greater interest in applied and professional ethics across other professions coincided with the social work profession's rising interest in ethics during the 1970s. As interest in bioethics increased at this time, ethics began to be studied as a separate field. The most recent phase, dubbed the Ethical Standards and Risk Management Period, is characterized by a significant expansion of the ethical standards that should guide practitioners' conduct as well as by a broader understanding of professional duty and negligence [2], [3].

### **The first social work certificate**

The first optional professional certification was made available by the Academy of Certified Social Workers, which was launched by NASW shortly after the Code of Ethics was put into effect. The target audience for the ACSW certificate was social workers with a master's degree and two years of supervised postgraduate social work practice. Social workers who applied, confirmed their degree and supervision, and provided professional references were eligible for certification for the first two years. During this time, NASW developed the exam that would be the last requirement for the ACSW. A survey inquiring about the tasks done by social workers, how crucial it was that they completed them correctly, and how often they did so was used to conduct a job analysis. The test strategy and the test questions were written using the results of this survey investigation. The first ACSW exam was given in 1962 [4], [5].

The NASW determined that the total passing score for the ACSW would be determined by three equally weighted factors in the middle of the 1990s: the number of years of postgraduate experience, a score derived from three numerically rated reference forms provided by social work supervisors and colleagues, and the quantity of correct exam answers. This was done to confirm that the ACSW's eligibility method did not include any prejudice. In the 1960s, 1970s, and far into the 1980s, numerous states accepted the ACSW certification as evidence of qualifications for a social work license in lieu of a national licensing examination. The Academy of Certified Baccalaureate Social Workers, the School Social Work Specialist, the Diplomate in Clinical Social Work, and the Qualified Clinical Social Worker for Inclusion in the NASW Register of Clinical Social Workers are just a few of the optional certifications that the NASW has since developed. A Board-Certified Diplomate in Clinical Social Worker has been available since the late 1980s thanks to the American Board of Examiners in Clinical Social Work. Specialized qualifications are offered by different organizations in case management, marriage and family therapy, drug and alcohol treatment, and other areas [6].

### **Definitions of Licensing Terms**

Any document that certifies a social worker's qualifications is sometimes referred to as a credential. When referring to voluntary recognitions from professional organizations like those indicated in the previous section, this expression is most often employed. They aim to promote the profession and the professional who holds them as having knowledge, abilities, and achievements that go above and beyond the baseline requirements for licensing. Credentialing programs are often administered by private companies. The phrases certification, credentialing, licensing, and registration are used in different nations to describe social work regulation. Although license, which often refers to a more extensive system, and certification, which frequently refers to a less strict regulatory framework, there is no legal distinction between the two words for regulatory reasons. The problem is further complicated by the use of this phrase in titles for social workers who are subject to legal control, such as Licensed Social Worker or Certified Social Worker [7].

The real difference in legal regulation is between a practice act, which determines who is qualified to use the title social worker and defines and regulates practice, and title protection legislation, which limits what social workers who have met the requirements can call themselves, such as Licensed Social Worker. Practice acts specify the permitted professional activities and require that anyone engaging in them be licensed. The use of a regulated title, such as Licensed Social Worker, is only forbidden under less stringent title protection regulations when the user does not meet the criteria. The term registration in the US refers to

a system of voluntary registration with a governmental agency in order to utilize a designated restricted title. Michigan was the final state to have a registration system until it approved a law requiring practice act licensure in 2004. For social workers with a bachelor's degree, certain jurisdictions, including Louisiana, provide a registration procedure. In Canada, registration is the term used to describe the regulation of social work. The compulsory registration programs needed by provincial law in Canada are very similar to the practice act/title protection models utilized in the United States [8].

### **Social worker licenses**

By setting minimum competency requirements and a set of guidelines for acceptable workplace conduct, legal regulation of professions protects the public. By detailing the necessary qualifications and skills, statutory regulation creates the requirements for someone to participate in a profession and identify as a member of that profession. Legal regulation also provides the general public with a road of recourse in the event that something goes wrong with the delivery of services or in the behavior of professionals. A well-defined and unified set of principles and ethics must exist before a profession may be legally governed and held accountable for not just an expectation of knowledge, abilities, and talents, but also for conduct in accordance with a recognized code of ethics. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the first regulated professions were those of medicine and dentistry, which were thereafter followed by those of architecture and accountancy. At the time, social work was only starting to become a profession. The social work profession was first legally regulated by legislation in Puerto Rico in 1934. California was the second state to pass rules governing social work in 1945 and the first to provide clinical social workers licenses. Social worker licenses weren't made available in the next state, Rhode Island, until 1961. Throughout the 1960s, six other states began awarding social worker licenses, including New York and Oklahoma in 1965, Virginia in 1966, Illinois in 1967, South Carolina in 1968, and Maine in 1969 [9].

A draft social work licensing act was prepared by the NASW in 1980 and given to its regional chapters. As part of their duty to advance policy and practice, the NASW chapters took seriously their introduction and promotion of social work licensing statutes. 26 more states passed legislation requiring social workers to have licenses in the 1980s, and by 1992, social workers were governed by laws in every state, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. The last three states to grant social worker licenses were Indiana, New Jersey, and Wisconsin in 1990, 1991, and 1992, respectively. According to the Association of Social Work Boards, there were allegedly close to 400,000 licensed social workers employed in the US and Canada as of 2005 [10].

Most of the time, the only thing these jurisdictional attempts had in common was the attempt to regulate. A patchwork of different regulatory regimes for social work emerged when the first laws were approved. Governments and territories have handled the social work profession in a variety of ways, and they still do. Some jurisdictions only let social workers who have earned a master's degree, a master's degree and two years of postgraduate experience, or two years of experience exclusively in clinical social work to be licensed in one category. Other legal regimes, some of which needed specific clinical practice, regulated social workers with bachelor's degrees upon graduation, master's degrees upon graduation, and master's degrees with two years of postgraduate experience. norms for examinations, supervisory requirements for credentials, and supervisory norms all differed. Additionally, there were a number of places where social workers performed certain tasks without being obliged to have a license, including federal, state, and local governmental organizations [11], [12]. Under the NASW model legislation, a three-tiered licensing framework was established,

with master's social workers receiving a advanced license after completing two years of supervised experience, baccalaureate social workers receiving their licenses upon graduation, and master's social workers receiving their licenses upon graduation. This category and one that was particularly for earning a license to practice clinical social work were treated equally. The need for a specific clinical social work license was driven by the need for parity with other mental health professions in practice, particularly the requirement to be eligible for third-party reimbursement [13].

### **Association of Boards of Social Work**

Sometime in the late 1970s, the NASW called a meeting of staff, volunteers, and social workers who were at the time serving on social work regulatory boards to discuss working together on licensure exams to offer to state boards of social work. Some conference attendees held the opinion that the regulatory boards needed their own organization and that the licensing tests should be independent of the professional association. An organization solely focused on social work licensing was founded in order to promote networking among social work regulators and to share information about the framework and issues related to legal regulation. The main objective of this organization's work swiftly became the development of a national social work license examination program. The organization's founders identified this as a priority objective and employed a psychometrician with the required expertise. In 1981, a social worker employment study was conducted for the first time [14]. In a job analysis survey, social workers are asked to evaluate a list of tasks according to how often they are done, how important it is that they execute the task correctly when they do, and whether or not they should be skilled in the task when they first join the profession.

Before utilizing the data to develop test designs or topic outlines, social work subject matter experts scientifically analyse and appraise the survey results. The 1981 job analysis led to the creation of three national exams that paralleled the NASW Model Social Work Law: Level A for baccalaureate social workers upon graduation, Level B for master's social workers upon graduation, and Level C for social workers with a master's degree and at least two years of practice experience. In 1983, AASSWB first made these exams accessible. For tests to be valid, a job analysis must be performed every five to ten years to keep the subject matter current with practice. In 1990, the AASSWB began offering four exams: the Basic exam for BSW graduates, the Intermediate exam for MSW graduates, the Advanced exam for MSW graduates with two years of generalist experience, and the Clinical exam for MSW graduates with two years of postgraduate clinical social work experience. This was done following the completion of the second job analysis in 1988 [15].

By 1991, all states that required a test for social work licensing were using the AASSWB exams. There have now been two further surveys that are now referred to as practice analyses. As a result of the 1997 exam being completed, exams began in July 1998. Exams were administered in May 2004 after the completion of the most recent practice analysis in 2003. Despite continuing to target the same audiences, the exam categories' names were changed once again to Bachelor's, Master's, Advanced Generalist, and Clinical. California stopped using the national AASSWB Clinical examination in April 1999 and began using its own state-specific test in its place. All other states, the District of Columbia, the Virgin Islands, and two Canadian provinces, Alberta and British Columbia, all utilize the AASSWB tests. These tests are available online at more than 200 ACT Test Centers, the bulk of which are open five or six days a week. Provinces in Canada began to express interest in joining as the original AASSWB's membership grew. The first province to be inducted was Alberta in 1998. At the 20th Annual Meeting of the Delegate Assembly, AASSWB decided to legally

change its name to the association of social work boards. The eight Canadian provinces that are now members of it are Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Quebec, Prince Edward Island, and Saskatchewan. The only full members of the ASWB are the regulating bodies for social work. A representative from each board attends the annual meeting, and each member jurisdiction has one vote. The delegate assembly, which also decides on bylaw revisions, sets the examination fee, and votes on other issues, elects the eight-member board of directors that oversees association business [16].

Over time, ASWB has expanded the range of services it offers to its member boards. Since 1992, when ASWB first began training regulatory board members, three new board member training sessions are now held each year. Social work regulatory boards report on the final disciplinary actions taken against licensed social workers in the Disciplinary Action Reporting System, which the ASWB developed and still maintains. Boards for social work verify license applicants' names against the DARS list. This strategy protects the public by forbidding a social worker who has received disciplinary action in one jurisdiction from relocating to another jurisdiction and applying for a license without disclosing the disciplinary action.

In 1998, the ASWB updated the Model Social Work Practice Act. Every year, it is examined and updated to take into account changes to the legal profession's regulatory environment and the social work profession. The Act has been used as a resource by a number of social work licensing boards to update and enhance existing laws. The ASWB-run Social Work Registry gives social workers a permanent location to store their credentialing data, such as examination test scores, academic transcripts, supervision, and documentation of continuing education, so that each regulatory board can access it to facilitate licensure within its purview. Through its Approved Continuing Education program, the ASWB also certifies individual courses and continuing education programs [17].

### **Professional Regulation: Current Licensing Structure**

Currently, social work may be broken down into up to four parts: BSW, which usually comes after graduating; MSW; independent; and clinical, which comes after two years of specialized supervision. Licenses for social workers in two or more of these categories are offered by the majority of countries. According to the ASWB, 35 states as of 2006 have regulations controlling social workers with bachelor's degrees. The 35 states that oversaw Master's social workers weren't always the same ones. Clinical social workers had licenses from 45 different authorities, whereas independent social workers, who didn't necessarily serve in that capacity, had licenses from 23 different states. Six states provided an associate licensure category in 2006 for social workers who don't have a professional social work degree [18].

## **DISCUSSION**

The situation is a little bit different in Canada. Master's social workers are uncommonly registered in eight provinces under the same title and registration law as baccalaureate social workers, who are registered in all 10 provinces. While social workers are registered for independent practice in one province, clinical social workers are also licensed in two jurisdictions.

The regulatory trends for social work in both the United States and Canada call for a change from title protection to a practice act in addition to title protection, an expansion of the categories of licensure, and the abolition of exemptions from licensure in order to ensure that all social workers, regardless of practice area or setting, are licensed. This satisfies the regulatory boards' obligation to ensure that the general public is served by social workers

who adhere to basic standards and regulations and who are accountable to a governmental body for their work [19]. The typical requirements for licensure include education, supervised experience, passing an exam to show knowledge (minimum competence), references, a good moral character, and fees. BSW or MSW degrees are required for the bachelor's and master's categories of licensure, and some states also need postgraduate experience before granting candidates for these licenses. You need an MSW and a minimum of two years of postgraduate supervised experience to qualify for the independent and clinical categories of license. Certain clinical courses, often in psychopathology, more than two years of supervised clinical practice, and proof for a certain number of hours in a clinical field placement are all required by some jurisdictions [20].

## CONCLUSION

When a candidate for licensure submits written proof that they have met with the board's requirements, they are often allowed to take the licensing exam. As was previously said, almost all US states use the tests developed and overseen by ASWB, with the exception of California.

There are four different sorts of exams that correspond to the requirements for licensure. Exams for the bachelor's and master's degrees are designed to evaluate candidates' expertise after earning a BSW or MSW. The advanced generalist and clinical tests are only open to social workers with an MSW and at least two years of postgraduate experience. For the clinical evaluation, this must be specialized clinical social work experience. The subjects for each of the four tests are chosen by a survey that is conducted periodically typically every 5 to 10 years in order to keep the knowledge being tested current with practice. Social workers are asked to rate a series of tasks based on how often they execute each one, how important it is for them to do so correctly and successfully when they do, and if it is important to know how to do it when first entering the workforce.

The survey was developed by a group of social workers who are subject matter experts. The same committee evaluates the results and seeks advice from subject-matter experts before developing the content outlines for each exam. Licensing may be uncertain and difficult. It is strongly encouraged that social workers get familiar with the requirements for obtaining a license in the locations where they practice. Social work students should get familiar with licensure as soon as possible so they may create their curriculum, supervision, and practicum experiences to meet the requirements.

## REFERENCES:

- [1] P. Loh and B. Shear, "Solidarity economy and community development: emerging cases in three Massachusetts cities," *Community Dev.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/15575330.2015.1021362.
- [2] J. Emel, M. H. Makene, and E. Wangari, "Problems with reporting and evaluating mining industry community development projects: A case study from Tanzania," *Sustainability*, 2012, doi: 10.3390/su4020257.
- [3] U. Okon, "ICT for Rural Community Development: Implementing the Communicative Ecology Framework in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria," *Inf. Technol. Dev.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/02681102.2015.1007819.
- [4] C. Nwapi, "Legal and institutional frameworks for community development agreements in the mining sector in Africa," *Extractive Industries and Society*. 2017. doi: 10.1016/j.exis.2016.11.010.

- [5] S. K. Mengesha, J. C. A. Meshelemiah, and K. A. Chuffa, "Asset-based community development practice in Awramba, Northwest Ethiopia," *Community Dev.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/15575330.2015.1009923.
- [6] M. A. MacLeod and A. Emejulu, "Neoliberalism With a Community Face? A Critical Analysis of Asset-Based Community Development in Scotland," *J. Community Pract.*, 2014, doi: 10.1080/10705422.2014.959147.
- [7] C. P. Scally, "Community development corporations, policy networks, and the rescaling of community development advocacy," *Environ. Plan. C Gov. Policy*, 2012, doi: 10.1068/c111116.
- [8] S. Fulford and S. Thompson, "Youth Community Gardening Programming as Community Development: The Youth for EcoAction Program in Winnipeg, Canada," *Can. J. Nonprofit Soc. Econ. Res.*, 2013, doi: 10.22230/cjnser.2013v4n2a145.
- [9] L. Huang, Y. Z. Dan, J. F. Xu, and M. Tong, "From Concept to Action: Practice and Thinking in Urban Community Development and Community Planning in Chongqing," *Int. Rev. Spat. Plan. Sustain. Dev.*, 2018, doi: 10.14246/irspsda.6.2\_1.
- [10] G. Hameed, A. Saboor, A. U. Khan, I. Ali, and M. K. Wazir, "Impact of Community Development in Poverty Reduction: Reflections of Azad Jammu and Kashmir Community Development Program," *Soc. Indic. Res.*, 2017, doi: 10.1007/s11205-016-1235-3.
- [11] R. P. Adhikari et al., "Applying a community entrepreneurship development framework to rural regional development," *Small Enterp. Res.*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/13215906.2018.1522274.
- [12] C. Blickem et al., "What is Asset-Based Community Development and How Might It Improve the Health of People With Long-Term Conditions? A Realist Synthesis," *SAGE Open*, 2018, doi: 10.1177/2158244018787223.
- [13] J. DeFilippis, "The myth of social capital in community development," *Hous. Policy Debate*, 2001, doi: 10.1080/10511482.2001.9521429.
- [14] H. Mair and D. G. Reid, "Tourism and community development vs. tourism for community development: Conceptualizing planning as power, knowledge, and control," *Leis. Loisir*, 2007, doi: 10.1080/14927713.2007.9651389.
- [15] H. Lauckner, M. Paterson, and T. Krupa, "Using constructivist case study methodology to understand community development processes: Proposed methodological questions to guide the research process," *Qual. Rep.*, 2012, doi: 10.46743/2160-3715/2012.1790.
- [16] R. M. Sail and A. Abu-Samah, "Community Development through Community Capacity Building: A Social Science Perspective," *Marsl. Press J. Am. Sci. Am. Sci.*, 2010.
- [17] A. S. Blanke and N. Walzer, "Measuring community development: what have we learned?," *Community Dev.*, 2013, doi: 10.1080/15575330.2013.852595.
- [18] M. S. Ahmad and N. B. Abu Talib, "Empowering local communities: decentralization, empowerment and community driven development," *Qual. Quant.*, 2015, doi: 10.1007/s11135-014-0025-8.

- [19] H. Nel, "An integration of the livelihoods and asset-based community development approaches: A South African case study," *Dev. South. Afr.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/0376835X.2015.1039706.
- [20] J. R. Owen and D. Kemp, "Assets, Capitals, and Resources: Frameworks for Corporate Community Development in Mining," *Bus. Soc.*, 2012, doi: 10.1177/0007650312446803.

## CHAPTER 10

# AN OVERVIEW OF REGULATORY FRAMEWORK OF SOCIAL WORK

---

Cleston Jacob Dcosta, Assistant Professor  
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
Email Id-[cleston.dcosta@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:cleston.dcosta@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

### ABSTRACT:

The boards that regulate the practice of social work have as their top priority the protection of the public. According to the law, the regulatory board has the power to define and establish the qualifications required for various levels of practice competency, to grant or deny a professional license, to look into allegations of improper practice, and to impose disciplinary sanctions on a social worker who disobeys the rules of the profession. The public's welfare, safety, and health are all impacted by the professional practice of social work. Laws in each of the US and Canadian jurisdictions, combined with social worker education requirements, create the legal foundation for social work practice at the bachelor's, master's, and clinical levels. The prerequisites for licensure are specified in each practice legislation. While some jurisdictions still provide exclusions, the ASWB model law discourages them. Classifications of occupations are the main basis for license exemptions. Regardless of where they really reside, all social workers functioning within the jurisdiction must comply with the standards.

### KEYWORDS:

Evolution, Regulatory, Social Work, Development, Public Safety, Licensing.

### INTRODUCTION

Regulatory bodies outline the scope of practice and expectations for appropriate conduct for each kind of social work license in order to define what actions are prohibited and in violation of the code of conduct. In order to preserve their duty to protect the public, boards have the authority to penalize those who violate the law or its rules, including the authority to ban these individuals from putting the public in risk. The disciplinary rules specify how to file complaints, carry out investigations, decide whether to initiate disciplinary actions, and issue penalties for infractions. There are several reasons for disciplinary action, including the board's finding of unprofessional conduct, practicing outside the applicable scope of practice, doing so without a license, having been convicted of a felony, being disabled, or having another reason that makes it impossible for the individual to practice social work with the reasonable competence required to protect the public [1].

In addition to outlining the conditions for imposing fines, regulations regulating discipline also take into consideration any aggravating or mitigating circumstances and outline the specifications for license restoration. In addition to monetary fines, other penalties include licensing restrictions, practice monitoring by a board-approved practice monitor, obligatory continuing education requirements, license suspension, probation, or revocation. A licensed social worker is considered an impaired professional if they are unable to operate safely because of a mental illness, substance abuse, or addiction. Several jurisdictions offer diversionary programs to help these impaired social workers get well under the supervision of the regulating board, and they often restrict or keep an eye on their practice during this time. Even though some states' NASW chapters provide assistance for practitioners with disabilities, the social worker's final accountability is with the board [2], [3].

## Supervision

When social work practice regulations change, regulatory boards find it difficult to specify the fundamental components of supervision for a certain level of license. Regulatory agencies are increasingly feeling the need to investigate and define what constitutes proper supervision for a candidate for licensure, even though it has long been a matter of debate in social work education and practice. Supervision is one of the final requirements that a candidate must meet to be qualified for a license. The supervisor is accountable to the supervisee, the agency, and the regulatory board for the supervision, practice, and evaluation of the license application. The majority of regulatory bodies have specific requirements, particularly for clinical supervision, which may include the number of hours required, the supervisor's qualifications, the time required for individual and group supervision, any allowances for the supervision of other mental health professions, and, if permitted, the percentage of hours that may be provided by other professionals. Regulatory organizations are establishing and tightening up their standards for clinical supervisors. A license in the same category as the supervision being given is often required by boards, along with a minimum number of years of experience, which is now frequently five in many countries. A list of approved clinical supervisors is provided by several boards. Another issue for regulatory organizations is the appropriate use of monitoring as a tool for punishment. Many disciplinary actions taken against social workers who violate policies or standards of conduct include some kind of monitoring to ensure that the worker understands and complies with the policies [4], [5].

## Public Security

All social work rules continue to have the general public's protection as their top priority. The creation of minimal requirements for the degree levels of bachelor's, master's, and advanced clinical practice as well as the satisfaction of the competency criteria are ensured by regulations governing the practice of social work, such as certification and licensing. A social worker's unethical actions, a violation of professional ethics and standards, or work performed by an unlicensed practitioner may all be reported by clients of social work services. As technology progresses and the need for highly skilled and moral practitioners grows to address the growing demands of complex social concerns, regulatory boards will evolve with the profession and continue to promote the objective of assuring the protection of the public [6].

When it is agreed that regulation is required to protect the public, a profession has reached a critical juncture in its development. In 2007, social work has developed to the point that its importance and impact are recognized, as shown by the fact that it is legally regulated in some capacity in every jurisdiction in the United States, Canada, and a growing number of other countries. A profession must be managed and keep its members accountable for acting morally and correctly when given this type of power and importance. Structure and organizational variation have come up often as the profession of social work has grown and changed. Several large organizations that together represent considerable populations of practitioners and teachers are still being integrated into the business. A reflection of the organization's century-long history, which has been marked by the constant emergence and fragmentation of voices and forces that have never appeared to be able to coalesce around a single core, is the attempt, struggle, and perhaps even crisis to forge a more cohesive voice for the profession. Social work has struggled to establish a solid and politically influential organizational foundation, unlike the American Medical Association and the American Psychological Association. Despite the fact that professional subgroupings in the fields of medicine and psychology represent these professions' extreme diversity, there is nevertheless a strong sense of apparent unanimity when a viewpoint is taken under the banner of the two

fields' historical practice/clinical models: the medical profession, which served as the historical professional template for social work's founding mothers and fathers, and the discipline of psychology. Social work's voice is not as loud or unified as it once was [7].

This chapter provides a historical overview of the development of social work as a profession and as an educational institution in the United States. Similar to medicine, law, and other newly emerging occupational categories, social work emerged in the late 1800s and struggled to establish itself as a distinct new profession during the first half of the 20th century. The history of social work that is chronicled here reflects a recurring motif of approach/avoidance. In order to embrace a still fragmented and sometimes problematic profession via a newly launched national initiative, the profession's leaders were searching for a method to create a unifying voice as it entered the twenty-first century. Finally, the historical record will show that social work's attempts at professional integration have met with little success. In light of history, it is crucial to comprehend professional organizational evolution. It frames objectives and prospects. This chapter describes significant occurrences and pieces of legislation that had a significant impact on the growth of social work organizations [8].

### **The Original Period**

An old, religiously based ethos of comfort and aid that developed into a profession based on several social sciences is the origin of social work. As a response to these elements and a reflection of capitalistic development, urbanization, immigration, and related social pressures that seek to organize society, defined professional categories generally known as professions were created. The earliest institutions to be brought to the North American colonies were the ecclesiastical and social ones that emerged in England during the fifteenth and seventeenth centuries. The discipline of social work started to expand before the American Revolution, but it really took off in the nineteenth century as a consequence of events like the American Civil War. The institutions that would eventually serve as the cornerstone for modern social work and welfare would start to take shape, primarily in the country's growing urban areas. These buildings would provide the foundation for an even faster and more diverse expansion at the beginning of the twentieth century. The record began with the adoption of the Elizabethan Poor Laws of 1601 in England at the start of the seventeenth century [9], [10].

### **Poor Laws in Shakespeare**

The support and comfort provided to the poor and disadvantaged by the early English and European churches served as the model for modern social work. Even if the aid provided was often presented with a judgmental posture and wasn't always ample, wanting to help others existed as one's religious responsibility. Furthermore, it is generally acknowledged that the Elizabethan Poor Laws established the legal and institutional foundation for social work and welfare. These laws integrated a number of earlier coordinated responses to the poor in England going back to 1495. The Poor Laws effectively established the first semblance of an organized, secular response to the issue as a result of changing economic structures, displaced populations brought on by natural disasters like the poor harvests that hit rural England at the time, and the challenge of increased dependency and social needs. In order to establish some control and order amid the rising demands for both financial and dependent care as a result of the social dislocation caused by various social and communal forces, the Poor Laws established categories and rankings for people who were eligible for public assistance as well as the nature and structure of the aid to be provided by the local authority. The act also created the first recognized official post in charge of addressing and supervising help to the dependent and impoverished, the role of "overseer" of the poor. However, it's important to

keep in mind that the overseer was a local person who was appointed to the role and who practically worked for free. Early American social work would be influenced by the volunteer concept throughout its historical growth and evolve into an important part of it [11].

The fundamental laws were essentially untouched until 1834, when parliament adopted the Poor Law Amendment Act. The workhouse phenomena that Charles Dickens so powerfully described in several of his writings was founded by the 1834 Act. The official legislative actions and the corresponding attitudes influenced the early responses to the poor in the American Colonies as well as into the nineteenth century, when the first organized efforts to address poverty, dependence, and indigence were made. This act was a reactionary measure designed to put an end to the growing belief that public relief provision had created a large class of indolent poor through the provision of "outdoor relief." This has ramifications for the eventual evolution of organized social work in the United States.

### **Association for the Improvement of Unfavorable Situations**

Early social welfare policies and procedures were based on Elizabethan England's values, which were spread to the American colonies. The Association for the Improvement of the Conditions of the Poor in New York City was established in 1843, making it perhaps the first significant social welfare organization in the nation before the Civil War. The AICP conducted studies on the conditions of the dependent and poor using volunteers. Women made up the bulk of the volunteers because of their social status, which gave them the leisure to do such unpaid community service. The volunteer's major role in the AICP was described, but it was fundamentally distinct from that of the English overseer. The predominance of women and the fact that the designated jobs are structured as volunteers would continue to be crucial elements of social work's organizational evolution, which would be both a mixed blessing and a barrier to gaining full professional status. The AICP created the "friendly visitor" concept, which would subsequently serve as the cornerstone of the Charity Organization Society, which would emerge some 40 years later [12], [13].

### **Changes throughout the Middle Ages**

The 10 years before to the American Civil War saw a number of key organizations and occasions that would later influence the development of social work. In Massachusetts, the first facility for youngsters who were "idiotic and feeble-minded" was founded in 1850. In 1851, Bryan Mullanphy founded Traveler's Aid in St. Louis, Missouri. When the Children's Aid Society of New York was established in 1853 by the Reverend Charles Loring Brace, it became the first organization to place children outside of an institutional environment. In Baltimore in 1855, the first Young Men's Hebrew Association was founded. In Boston that same year, a former sea captain named Thomas C. Sullivan established the first YMCA in the United States. The Origin of Species, which outlined Charles Darwin's theory of evolution, was published in 1859. Such a book is significant for the development of social work since it contributed to the transition of the basis for understanding human difficulties from a predominantly religious morality-based approach to a more objective, scientific one. Controversial works like Darwin's ruminations would have a long-term effect on society by encouraging a stronger emphasis of knowledge over sentiment and, in turn, by encouraging the change toward professionally based science that would begin to take shape at the turn of the century.

### **The Civil War**

It is obvious that the Civil War was a catastrophic event for the still-developing country, both during the actual conflict and thereafter. However, there were considerable and eventually

positive impacts, just as with earlier cultural upheavals of a like kind. A couple of these results might have a big impact on how social work and social welfare are developed. The Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, commonly known as the Freedmen's Bureau, was established by Congress after the American Civil War and was governed administratively by the War Department. A contentious creation that perfectly portrayed the turbulence of the time was the Freedmen's Bureau. It was established and is run from inside the former Confederate states to provide a wide range of services to Civil War refugees. Despite its mixed record of accomplishment in these areas, the Bureau did provide a wide variety of emergency food, housing, medical, and educational help to former slaves and some low-income White individuals who were displaced by the conflict. The Bureau ran at full capacity between 1865 and 1868 until being finally dismantled in 1872 when President Andrew Johnson was successful in cutting its budget. The Freedmen's Bureau was the first entity founded by the federal government to provide social services to a target group via government employees. In response to the Great Depression, Roosevelt's New Deal would not be implemented until the 1930s, at which point an equivalent government program would emerge [14].

### **Urbanization and Immigration: A National Perspective**

The Civil War, there was a dramatic rise in the number of nonprofit organizations and associations, coupled with the continuous growth of major cities and the influx of new immigrant populations. These organizations have their roots in the enduring presence of religious and benevolent motives that go all the way back to the beginnings of social welfare in the early Middle Ages. Another significant motivator for these organizations was the need to exert some degree of social control over the very real problems and fears brought on by rising urbanization. The growth of these organizations didn't necessarily mean that the problems were solved, but it did show that social dependence and poverty concerns were getting greater attention. The several severe economic crises that occurred in the middle to late 1870s put a significant strain on the still-emerging private philanthropic volunteer sector.

One response to the recognition of the limits of the voluntary charity groups was the establishment of more rational formal institutions. The League for Social Services and the American Institute of Social Services were founded to develop and offer more organized, efficient solutions to social welfare challenges. These reform organizations began establishing the foundation for the newly created profession of social work. The State Boards of Charities of four states founded the Conference of Boards of Public Charities in 1874 as a branch of the American Social Sciences Association. Five years later, in 1879, the Conference changed its name to the National Conference on Charities and Corrections. During the same five years, the first Charity Organization Society was established in Buffalo, New York. According to Alexander, the four guiding principles of the COS are as follows: comprehensive applicant screening; centralized registration to avoid service and aid overlap; collaboration amongst the several relief organizations; and significant use of volunteers acting as friendly visitors [15].

A number of themes regarding forces that would be elements of social work's overall professional development also emerged as these organizational entities grew. These themes included the relative contributions of paid professionals and volunteers, the roles of women and men in the profession's development, and the beginning of the continuum between social treatment and social justice. This continuity would become the center of internal tension as social work became a greater and more structured, scientific business and particularly as it sought to be recognized as a profession. The COS movement grew largely as an urban, Eastern regional phenomenon due to its growing focus on logical organizational principles.

The Irish Emigrant Society, the Hebrew Benevolent Society, and the White Rose Home for Girls all saw a rise in membership as a consequence. Up until the 1870s, the primary service providers for newly arrived urban immigrants were sectarian self-help groups. The desire to really help those in need without engaging in the moral "preaching" that defined much of the COS movement's moral uplift emphasis was a key driving cause for many of these initiatives. Furthermore, the self-help groups tended to be volunteer-based, while the staff model that emerged from the COS movement was more focused on hiring paid employees. These groups often resisted COS's attempts to develop social work [16]. The latter two decades of the nineteenth century saw significant organizational changes that provided a strong foundation for the developing field of social work in the twentieth century. During the 1880s, a number of significant organizations were created that would go on to play a critical part in the development of the social work profession and the expansion of the delivery of social services in the United States. In 1880, the Salvation Army immigrated to the United States from England, and in 1881, Clara Barton established the American Association of the Red Cross. Locally, Booker T. Washington's founding of the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute was a noteworthy event. Alexander said the Tuskegee Institute a leading black educational institution that provided industrial training as a means to self-respect and economic independence for African Americans.

### DISCUSSION

At the same time as the COS movement was expanding, settlement houses, a comparable social service organization, began to appear in American cities. Toynbee Hall in London is one of the most notable examples of this movement's immigration from England. The settlement house concept required setting up a facility in the area where the work was to be concentrated, and the employees, still predominantly volunteers, resided in the home or in the nearby community while working to supply mostly material services. This was in contrast to the COS method, which had centralized offices for service coordination and organizational streamlining. The COS movement built a social treatment model base, which served as the foundation for the social action community organizing and development emphasis, or, to put it another way, the other end of the social treatment social justice spectrum [17]. On New York City's Lower East Side, the Neighborhood Guild was founded in 1886, becoming the city's first settlement house. Jane Addams established Hull House in Chicago in 1889. The Nurses' Settlement, subsequently known as the Henry Street Settlement, was founded by Lillian Wald in 1893. It was believed that the profession of social work would be in jeopardy due to the expansion of the settlement house movement. Contrarily, the settlement house was focused on addressing not only the needs of the individual but also the surrounding social and economic circumstances that were seen as contributing to the individual problems, while the COS was oriented toward addressing the needs and improvement of the individual, perhaps broadening the perspective to include the family. In conclusion, it is clear that the COS movement was less concerned with social action and change than the movement for settlement houses. When seen from the perspective of the present, this discrepancy may not seem to be much different, but given the historical background of the time, there was obviously tension between the two ways. At the turn of the century, there were over a hundred settlement houses functioning throughout the nation, with 32 of them situated in New York State alone [18].

### CONCLUSION

In the last 10 years of the nineteenth century, two important works were produced that shed more light on the suffering of the urban poor and highlighted the institutional and organizational answers to these social and economic challenges. Jacob A. Riis' novel *How the*

Other Half Lives was published in 1890. American Charities by Amos G. Warner was published in 1894 as a follow-up to Riis' renowned book, which was a documentary and photographic account of housing conditions in New York City slums. Warner's was the first book to formulate the principles of relief" and provide a thorough analysis of charities in the United States. At the turn of the century, social service groups saw a substantial increase, and the first Federation of Jewish Charities was established in Boston at the same time. The conclusion that specialized training was necessary to successfully address the challenges posed by the population's expanding need and dependence came at the end of the nineteenth century, as a result of a growing network of social service organizations and a body of specialized research devoted to understanding the causes of poverty and dependence. While the concept of the altruistic, unselfish worker still played a significant role in social service work, it was clearer that the activity needed specialized knowledge and the associated training. The desire of other occupational groups, such as physicians, to become professionals also grew more obvious as the new century got under way. The field of diverse social work therefore addressed the need to increase the level of knowledge and scientific competency of persons who want to be considered social workers. As a result, formal education and training in social work started.

#### REFERENCES:

- [1] T. Archibald, G. Sharrock, J. Buckley, and N. Cook, "Assumptions, conjectures, and other miracles: The application of evaluative thinking to theory of change models in community development," *Eval. Program Plann.*, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2016.05.015.
- [2] T. Elliman, M. Grimsley, A. Meehan, and A. Tan, "Evaluative design of e-government projects: A community development perspective," *Transform. Gov. People, Process Policy*, 2007, doi: 10.1108/17506160710751995.
- [3] J. Sumner, "Eating our way to sustainability? Leisure, food and community economic development," *Sustain.*, 2018, doi: 10.3390/su10051422.
- [4] K. Kumsap and R. Indanon, "Integration of community forest management and development activities: Lessons learned from Ubon Ratchathani province," *Kasetsart J. Soc. Sci.*, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.kjss.2016.08.002.
- [5] R. R. Meade, "The re-signification of state-funded community development in Ireland:1 A problem of austerity and neoliberal government," *Crit. Soc. Policy*, 2018, doi: 10.1177/0261018317701611.
- [6] S. K. Ha, "Housing, social capital and community development in Seoul," *Cities*, 2010, doi: 10.1016/j.cities.2010.03.004.
- [7] B. D. Motilewa, R. E. K. Worlu, C. L. Moses, C. G. Adeniji, G. M. Agboola, and A. I. Oyeyemi, "Survey data on employees' perception of the impact of community development initiatives on the corporate image of oil and gas firms in Nigeria," *Data Br.*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.dib.2018.06.077.
- [8] M. Shaw, "Community development and the politics of community," *Community Dev. J.*, 2008, doi: 10.1093/cdj/bsl035.
- [9] L. Misener and N. Schulenkorf, "Rethinking the social value of sport events through an asset-based community development (ABCD) perspective," *J. Sport Manag.*, 2016, doi: 10.1123/jsm.2015-0203.

- [10] R. Gallardo, A. Collins, and A. C. North, "Community development in the digital age: Role of extension," *J. Ext.*, 2018, doi: 10.34068/joe.56.04.26.
- [11] R. O. Fasasi and D. Heukelman, "ICT: performance evaluation of community development worker's in South Africa on e-skills\*," *Inf. Technol. Dev.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/02681102.2017.1283285.
- [12] L. Saldivar-Tanaka and M. E. Krasny, "Culturing community development, neighborhood open space, and civic agriculture: The case of Latino community gardens in New York City," *Agric. Human Values*, 2004, doi: 10.1007/s10460-003-1248-9.
- [13] C. A. Wheeler, "Barriers to community development in distressed cities: A case study of Camden, New Jersey," *Community Dev.*, 2016, doi: 10.1080/15575330.2016.1202295.
- [14] J. Gordon Nembhard, "Community Development Credit Unions: Securing and Protecting Assets in Black Communities," *Rev. Black Polit. Econ.*, 2013, doi: 10.1007/s12114-013-9166-6.
- [15] X. Ucar, A. Planas, H. Nunez, and A. L. Berne, "Participatory evaluation and community development: A Spanish case study," *Rev. Cercet. si Interv. Soc.*, 2016.
- [16] I. B. Franco, J. A. P. de Oliveira, and S. H. Ali, "Peace with Hunger: Colombia's checkered experience with post-conflict sustainable community development in emerald-mining regions," *Sustain.*, 2018, doi: 10.3390/su10020504.
- [17] G. Eweje, "The role of MNEs in community development initiatives in developing countries: Corporate social responsibility at work in Nigeria and South Africa," *Bus. Soc.*, 2006, doi: 10.1177/0007650305285394.
- [18] V. Ziakas, "Fostering the social utility of events: an integrative framework for the strategic use of events in community development," *Curr. Issues Tour.*, 2016, doi: 10.1080/13683500.2013.849664.

## CHAPTER 11

### ORGANIZATION AND FOUNDATIONS OF SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION: A REVIEW STUDY

---

Vinima Gambhir, Associate Professor  
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
Email Id- [vinima.gambhir@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:vinima.gambhir@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

#### ABSTRACT:

Later in the century, it became evident that more was required to combat poverty than merely free time and a good heart. According to Alexander, Dr. Francis G. Peabody instructed Harvard University students in 1885 in *The Ethics of Social Reform: The Questions of Charity, Divorce, the Indians, Labor, Prisons, Temperance as Problems of Practical Ethics-Lectures, Essays and Practical Observations*, which was listed as philosophy. As the twentieth century got under way, the philanthropic activity that would later be called social work experienced a rapid pace of development of a conscious professional identity as well as a broad diversity of organizational infrastructure, both in the realm of education and in the sphere of services. The New York COS founded the first social work training school in the summer of 1898, which is often regarded as the start of formal study and preparation. This program operated as an annual summer course for agency staff. The Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy was established in 1903 by Graham Taylor in reaction to the continuous popularity of the New York project. After joining forces with the University of Chicago, this institution's name was changed to School of Social Service Administration. The curriculum of the New York Summer School program was expanded to a one-year program in 1904, and the name was changed to the New York School of Philanthropy.

#### KEYWORDS:

Curriculum Ethics, Fieldwork Practice, Skills, Social Justice, Sociology, Training.

#### INRODUCTION

The National Consumers League was created and established in 1899 in New York by Florence Kelley. In order to foresee the growth of scientific awareness, the League stressed the necessity for verifiable truths to guide action as a basic approach to social activity. The League's design also accounted for the recent development of nonprofit organizations coordinating to address social problems. This latter coordinating focus is definitely a result of Josephine Shaw Lowell's efforts in New York City to battle the conditions that existed in sweat factories by fighting for better working conditions and placing limits on the number of hours that girls may work [1]. Another example of the efforts to systematize humanitarian action and provide the foundation for an organizational structure is the 1899 book *Friendly Visiting among the Poor*. This brochure, produced by Mary E. Richmond and sold under the name *Charity Workers*, demonstrated the early insight that selfless humanitarian work had a purposeful underpinning [2].

In the last year of the nineteenth century, New York City established the National Conference of Jewish Charities, reflecting the time's clear urban emphasis on humanitarian endeavors. The NCJC was a manifestation of the emerging organizational concept of alliance and cooperation. The NCJC's mission, according to Alexander, was to coordinate the growing network of private Jewish social services that were emerging in metropolitan areas. Settlement house organizations in New York and Chicago worked together to form the National Child Labor Committee in 1904, and they took on the principal sponsor and

organizer duties for the inaugural White House Conference on Children, which was held in 1909. This change may have been a result of the obviously accelerating momentum toward the formal emergence of charitable work as a field of professional and policy action [3]. In 1904, Robert Hunter also produced a comprehensive examination of poverty. According to Hunter's book *Poverty*, which gives a profile of the issue of indigence, one in eight Americans, or around 10 million individuals, are poor. Because of the continuing private concentration of agency/charity work and the rising recognition of the need to coordinate services, the first community welfare council was founded in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, in 1908. The Pittsburgh Associated Charities served as a prototype for what would later evolve into United Way-affiliated urban planning committees. In the same year, the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America began to set up its network of social services. The early years of the new century saw a steady stream of improvements in the education and training of humanitarian work. All of these efforts, which followed the first ones in New York and Chicago, helped to establish social work as an emerging profession and had an impact on what is now known as formal social work. In addition to several initiatives to address urban poverty and related immigration issues in the growing urban regions, there were substantial efforts on behalf of the African American population [4], [5].

At Fisk University in Nashville, Tennessee, Dr. George Edmund Haynes launched the first social work training program specifically for African American professionals in 1910. This crucial educational institution was founded after a series of other key organizational endeavors, some of which also featured Dr. Haynes and centered on the African American community. Haynes and Eugene Kinckle Jones founded the National League on Urban Conditions Among Negroes in 1907. The Committee on Urban Conditions Among Negroes, the Committee for Improving the Industrial Conditions of Negroes in New York, and the National League for the Protection of Colored Women were merged to form ULUCAN. Haynes oversaw ULUCAN as its executive director from 1911 until 1918. Jones became the organization's first executive director when it changed its name to the National Urban League in 1918 [6].

In the midst of these important organizational developments, a further crucial event took place in 1915 at the National meeting of Charities and Corrections meeting. Abraham Flexner was invited to present at the conference on the topic of "Is Social Work a Profession?" Flexner was well known for his extensive study on American medical education, which helped create the paradigm for the nation's university-based medical schools. Flexner said "no" when asked this. In his six-point model, Flexner outlined the qualities that must exist in order for a profession to be considered legitimate. For the remainder of the century, the development of social work would be significantly influenced by this occurrence. The six essential elements, according to Lowe, were mental processes, a scientifically based learning foundation, concrete and specific goals, an educationally communicative approach, self-organization, and altruistic motivation. The effect would be most noticeable when social work tried to build its practice/skill orientation. Both the field's organizational growth and the area of educational organization would be impacted by the task of determining the core practice and uniqueness of social work. Essentially, many of the innovations developed before to Flexner may be seen as addressing larger systemic social issues related to poverty, together with an unwavering faith in moral propriety [7], [8]. To put it another way, even though the organizational development that has been discussed thus far reflects efforts to bring structure and organizational order to the efforts to combat poverty and indigence, these efforts and their practitioners assumed that a sense of positive and unwavering morality would somehow trickle down to those less fortunate than they whom they served. The Flexner event would give social work a major impetus to begin more carefully identifying

what it did that was really special, which would lead to the field beginning to more critically scrutinize itself. A formal educational business, an expansion of scientific practice activities, and a huge organizational structure to support and enhance these aspects would all develop over time [9].

### **1917 to 1930**

There was tremendous growth and consolidation for between World War I and the beginning of the Great Depression. social work with a focus. The industry undoubtedly made an effort to disprove him after the 1915 Flexner decision that determined social work was not a profession. Additional factors that pushed social work to seek out more formal organizational structures included the ongoing influx of immigrants into urban areas, the dispersal of the population across the country into the Midwest and West, and the aftermath of World War I, when the country was forced to confront external challenges. As a consequence, a sizable core of organizations with a national orientation emerged between 1917 and 1930.

Leiby stated that the concept of deliberate and constructive casework was greatly influenced by Mary Richmond's *Social Diagnosis*, which was released in 1917. Even though it may not have been a direct response to Flexner's assertions that social work was not a profession in 1915, Richmond's book significantly increased our understanding of the critical function that social work plays in identifying its unique skills. The groundwork laid by this book would also have a big influence on the theory and development of social work education and training, a sector that is still in its infancy. Given the upcoming developments and challenges in deciding whether social work was to be a public social welfare endeavor or a more clinical therapeutic oriented activity, it is ironic that the first state department of public welfare was established in Illinois the same year as the publication of *Social Diagnosis*. Accordingly, as noted in the introduction, certain characteristics of the identity struggle that were evident in 1917's developmental and structural initiatives may be considered as a premonition of the profession's ongoing identity conflict [10]. Between 1917 until the onset of the Great Depression, social work largely formed its institutional and educational foundation, and throughout the remainder of the 20th century, the profession placed a strong emphasis on integrating the many components. From 1917 until 1929, social workers "established legitimacy... by founding significant national organizations," for example:

- a) The National Jewish Welfare Board was created in 1917, and the National Conference on Charities and Corrections changed its name to the National Conference of Social Work.
- b) In 1918, the Community Chests and Councils of America, the American Association of Hospital Social Workers, and the National Association of Jewish Center Workers were all founded.
- c) In 1919, the Community Chests and Councils of America and the American Association of Organizing Family Social Work were established; the latter would later develop into the United Community Funds and Councils of America before becoming the United Way in 1970.
- d) In the 1920s, organizations like the Child Welfare League of America and the National Conference of Catholic Charities were established.
- e) The National Social Workers Exchange reconstituted as the first national organization for professional social workers in 1921, changing its name to the American Organization of Social Workers.

- f) The formation of the AASW was associated with the establishment of the Social Work Publicity Council, which served as the primary organization for interpreting social issues and social work. The council produced the Channels monthly and special bulletins and served as a clearinghouse for concepts and materials on public relations.
- g) The Maternity and Infancy Hygiene Act was approved by Congress, the Commonwealth Fund launches the campaign for child guidance clinics, and emphasizes the crucial role of social workers by constructing demonstration clinics for child guidance. The United States also funded the first national mother and child health program.

During the same period, significant organizations with a focus on professional practice were also established in addition to national organizations and associations. The American Association of Medical Social Workers was established in 1918, followed by the National Association of School Social Workers (originally known as the National Association of Visiting Teachers) in 1919, and the American Association of Social Workers (possibly the most important organization) in 1921 [11]. The AASW was the first national organization to represent the then-emerging profession of social work, and it would go on to play a crucial role in deciding how to practice, educate, and draw the lines that would separate amateur social work from professional social work. A very specific organizational reaction to Flexner's notion of what constituted a profession was the creation of the AASW. The mission of AASW was to act together, shall endeavor through inquiry and conferences to develop professional standards in social work. The obvious focus on the casework approach as the primary practice method was another significant aspect of the creation of the first national professional organization.

National practice standards and conscious identification with a defined profession came to the fore, and it was only natural that attention would begin to turn to the issue of professional training and education. The founding of the Association of Training Schools for Professional Social Work in 1919 marked a significant advancement in the structure and formalization of social work education. An early accrediting body was founded by a coalition of fifteen social work schools, and it rapidly decreed that new schools could not be recognized unless they were an integral part of a recognized institution. This partnership signified the leaders in social work's formal commitment to higher education. With the formalization of social work training, which is important in the history of social work, the choice of whether social work preparation should be agency-based or university-based was eventually decided [11], [12].

The formation of this first educational institution, like the AASW, may also be seen as a response to Flexner's 1915 decision, which stated that a profession needed a certain kind of training. As was previously noted, the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy was founded in 1903; however, in 1920, it changed its name to the Graduate School of Social Service Administration and relocated to the University of Chicago. The Atlanta School of Social Service was established in the same year by the Institutes of Social Service connected to Morehouse College's Neighborhood Union. The direction of E made it possible for this institution to expand. Franklin Frazier established the first social work program in the US that was only open to African Americans in 1924. The Whitney M. Young Jr. Foundation presently operates this establishment. The social work program at Clark Atlanta University [13].

Education and Training for Social Work, the first comprehensive research on social work education, was finished and published in 1923. The lead researcher on this study, James H. Tufts, a professor of philosophy at the University of Chicago, produced the report,

"Education and Training for Social Work." The Tufts research was the first of five initiatives to review and rethink the educational philosophy and framework for social work that were launched. The Tufts study's educational research approach was crucial in helping social work continually define and revise its objectives [14].

An important milestone was the separation of the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers from its prior affiliation as a section of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers in 1926. The first social work school received professional accreditation from the American Association of Schools of Social Work the following year. At the first international gathering of philanthropists, charity organizers, social workers, government officials, and others in Paris in 1927, the global congress of social work was founded. This incident signaled the start of social work as a growing worldwide profession. Later, it would be replaced by the International Council on Social Welfare [15].

The National Conference of Social Welfare created a study committee in 1925 to examine the problem of the rapidly expanding variation in social work practice. The purported Milford Conference report was submitted in 1928 and made public in 1929. The Milford Conference Report generally referred to casework as mainstream social practice. According to Lowe, the Milford Conference position "did not stem the tide of specialist association formation, but it represented a symbolic statement asserting that casework was the foundation for future professional development regardless of the particular or specialized setting," and it spread the notion that the process in social casework and the tools of the social worker should essentially be the same for all fields of practice.

The Russell Sage Foundation sponsored the 1929 publication of *The Social Work Year Book*, the predecessor of *The Encyclopedia of Social Work*. More significantly, social workers were counted as professionals in the national census that was being conducted at the time, proving the success social work had in its attempts to be accepted as a profession. According to Lowe, social work had gathered many of the essential elements needed by the Flexner position for professional legitimacy by the end of the 1920s, when the stock market had crashed and the Great Depression was about to begin. One result of this trend is the rising perception of social work as treatment rather than a social change activity.

In its most basic and fundamental sense, generosity supports a cause. Now, it is a responsibility to provide assistance in a timely way regardless of the situation. The fights for widow's pensions and workmen's compensation include many of the elements of the cause. The administration of these benefits is now a feature of organized community life in the vast majority of American states. According to Lee, the unquestioned "conventional American belief that economic depressions were temporary and unemployment hardships were personal" persisted despite the shift in social work from cause to function as a result of the global and domestic economic downturn. Social workers relied on the ideas and approaches to addressing social need that they had established over the previous 30 years in accordance with this worldview, including the centrality of well-managed private charity and its enhancement via the use of skilled social casework. The organizational framework of social work was still being built, and as a result, it was in many ways completely unprepared for the challenges that would arise as the nation faced with the Great Depression [16], [17].

### **1930 to 1950**

It is apparent that the Great Depression of the 1930s had a tremendous influence on every structure in the country. Wenocur and Reisch, who also note that "The social welfare system that emerged as a response to the Depression transformed social work," helpfully discuss the challenges posed by the shift toward state sponsorship of social assistance. The public sector

has replaced the commercial sector as the dominant player in social work. Given the purportedly quick growth of a public welfare sector, one organizational development that was favorable was the founding of the American Public Welfare Association in 1930. People who had previously been excluded by the private, casework-focused individuals who had previously dominated the organizational service environment were united by this organization. By 1931, the APWA had positioned itself as the leading advocate for social work's engagement and involvement in the expanding public sector and was in a position to ensure social work's participation in the new public-sponsored environment [18].

## DISCUSSION

President Herbert Hoover signed the Emergency Relief and Construction Act even though it was a fairly conservative piece of legislation because it contained a clause allowing the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to lend money to states for relief efforts, bringing the federal government into the field of humanitarian aid. The AASSW began the formal accreditation of social work educational programs located in universities with the requirement that such programs should have a minimum curriculum requiring at least one academic year of professional education uncompressing both classroom and field training. This had two meanings: first, it represented the development of strict academic standards for professional membership; and second, it stipulated that those who wanted to become social workers had to have finished college and return for an extra year of study. In other words, the paradigm for social work education has changed from undergraduate to postgraduate for job entry [18]. Given that 1932 was the worst year of the Great Depression and that the public welfare sector would continue to grow at an even faster rate, the structure of social work education had produced a rather high educational barrier for professional certification. Two well-known national social welfare organizations were established: Goodwill Industries of America and the Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds. When Franklin D. Roosevelt was elected president in 1933, the mythical period known as the New Deal officially started. Roosevelt began a sequence of governmental action that resulted in the establishment of a whole new level of public financing and service delivery with more than 13 million unemployed people and a mostly shut-down banking sector. In March, the Civilian Conservation Corps Act was adopted, creating a government-sponsored initiative that provides unmarried and jobless young men between the ages of 17 and 23 with training and employment opportunities. Harry Hopkins, a social worker, was given the power to provide states direct financing and matching payments for the provision of public aid by the Federal Emergency aid Act, which was adopted in May and created the Federal Emergency Relief Administration [19], [20]. The quick establishment of these two government initiatives laid the stage for similar developments for the remainder of the decade.

## CONCLUSION

The Health, Education, and Welfare Act, as it was formally called, encouraged maternity and child welfare, aided dependent children, formed the Social Security Board, supported public health, helped the blind, and provided financing to states for the management of unemployment benefits. Jane M. Hoey, a social worker, developed the Federal Bureau of Public Support, which provides federal and state support to the elderly, the blind, and dependent children in line with the law. In 1935, the Works Projects Administration replaced FERA as well. Within a month, the National Youth Administration was also created, with the WPA's main objective being to provide job help rather than home relief. Both initiatives attempted to provide funding for education and employment "for able-bodied but destitute workers work," respectively. Social worker Aubrey Williams, who oversaw the National Youth Administration, continued the tradition of social workers having significant roles

throughout this pivotal period of social welfare expansion. This organization later became the Annual March of Dimes, whose funding of polio research would lead to its ultimate eradication. These very important governmental social aid organizations were founded while other organizational advancements progressed. In order to better represent the growing complexity of social work practice, the National Conference on Social Work was restructured to include group work, a significant aspect of social work. A year later, these social work professionals established the American Association for the Study of Group Work. The 1930s came to a conclusion with the passage of the Housing Act, which provides loans and subsidies to state and municipal governments. It was the first time that housing for tenants who weren't only government employees had been funded. The previously existing Works Projects Administration was renamed the Works Progress Administration in 1938, and it continued to provide very important work-based relief opportunities up until 1943.

#### REFERENCES:

- [1] K. G. Amakye, "Understanding community development in Sekyere Central District, Ghana," *Bandung J. Glob. South*, 2017, doi: 10.1186/s40728-017-0042-9.
- [2] N. J. Glickman and L. J. Servon, "By the numbers: Measuring community development corporations' capacity," *J. Plan. Educ. Res.*, 2003, doi: 10.1177/0739456X02250314.
- [3] T. C. Nguyen and M. Rieger, "Community-Driven Development and Social Capital: Evidence from Morocco," *World Dev.*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.worlddev.2016.10.013.
- [4] J. Demeshane and H. Nel, "Applying the process of appreciative inquiry in community development," *South. African J. Soc. Work Soc. Dev.*, 2018, doi: 10.25159/2415-5829/3599.
- [5] H. L. Harmon and K. Schafft, "Rural School Leadership for Collaborative Community Development," *Rural Educ.*, 2018, doi: 10.35608/ruraled.v30i3.443.
- [6] M. F. Mbah, "Towards the idea of the interconnected university for sustainable community development," *High. Educ. Res. Dev.*, 2016, doi: 10.1080/07294360.2016.1144570.
- [7] O. F. Nuzuli, Y. A. Gani, R. N. Pratiwi, I. Hanafi, and A. Fitrianto, "Policy implementation of local communities development-based waste management in Banjarbaru, South Kalimantan, Indonesia," *Asian Soc. Sci.*, 2015, doi: 10.5539/ass.v11n18p279.
- [8] C. Ukomadu, "The Role of Social Media in Community Development in Nigeria: The Owe Unity Forum (Oaf) Model," *IOSR J. Humanit. Soc. Sci. (IOSR-JHSS)*, 2018.
- [9] A. H. Sulaiman, J. Othman, H. H. Hamsan, B. A. Samah, and J. L. D'Silva, "Community development and its influence on community policing," *Am. J. Appl. Sci.*, 2012, doi: 10.3844/ajassp.2012.968.973.
- [10] A. A. Samah and F. Aref, "People's Participation in Community Development: A Case Study in a Planned Village Settlement in Malaysia," *Marsl. Press World Rural Obs.*, 2009.
- [11] R. Valaitis and L. O'Mara, "Enabling youth participation in school-based computer-supported community development in Canada," *Health Promotion International*. 2005. doi: 10.1093/heapro/dah611.

- [12] B. van Schalkwyk, C. Schoeman, and J. Cilliers, "The interface between rural communities in South Africa and their urban counterparts: The significance for sustainable rural community development in the Vaalharts area," *WIT Trans. Ecol. Environ.*, 2014, doi: 10.2495/SC140381.
- [13] S. Yalegama, N. Chileshe, and T. Ma, "Critical success factors for community-driven development projects: A Sri Lankan community perspective," *Int. J. Proj. Manag.*, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.ijproman.2016.02.006.
- [14] G. Kirwan and D. Jacob, "Addressing barriers to healthcare access for Roma: A community development approach," *Administration*, 2016, doi: 10.1515/admin-2016-0020.
- [15] R. Turvey, "Green economy and development in small urban municipalities: towards sustainable community development," *GeoJournal*, 2015, doi: 10.1007/s10708-014-9566-6.
- [16] R. Eversole, "Remaking participation: Challenges for community development practice," *Community Dev. J.*, 2012, doi: 10.1093/cdj/bsq033.
- [17] A. Rogers, D. Radcliffe, S. Babyack, and T. Layton, "Demonstrating the value of community development: An inclusive evaluation capacity building approach in a non-profit Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander organisation," *Eval. J. Australas.*, 2018, doi: 10.1177/1035719X18803718.
- [18] A. R. Arikawei, "African socialism in Tanzania: Lessons of a community development strategy for rural transformation in developing countries," *Mediterr. J. Soc. Sci.*, 2015, doi: 10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n4s2p540.
- [19] B. W. Chrisinger, "Reconsidering the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program as Community Development," *J. Nutr. Educ. Behav.*, 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.jneb.2014.10.005.
- [20] M. Hudon and C. Meyer, "A Case Study of Microfinance and Community Development Banks in Brazil: Private or Common Goods?," *Nonprofit Volunt. Sect. Q.*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/0899764016643609.

## CHAPTER 12

### ELABORATION OF THE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION AND TRAINING: AN ANALYTICAL REVIEW

---

Meena Desai, Assistant Professor  
 Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India  
 Email Id- [meena.desai@atlasuniversity.edu.in](mailto:meena.desai@atlasuniversity.edu.in)

#### **ABSTRACT:**

The structure of social work education and training underwent a substantial sequence of changes in the context of the developing New Deal and the key role that social work was playing in it. As previously said, social work's educational leadership was adopting rules that were supporting a clear route toward university and even postgraduate training being essential for anybody desiring to become a member of the profession at the same time as the Great Depression was having a significant influence on the U.S. economy. Wenocur and Reisch noted that the motivation of the private charity workers had a significant impact on how the public welfare system evolved. They were successful in getting the public to hold the standards of the more prominent private agency as the gold standard.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Practice Skills, Professional Development, Social Work Programs, Student Learning, Supervision, Training Opportunities.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

A variety of training and educational methodologies had to be developed due to the quick expansion of a public-sponsored public welfare framework and the rising need for a variety of skilled professionals, from entry level administrative chores to more complex caseworkers. However, as stated by Wintour and Reisch, educational authorities were attempting to set ever-higher standards of prerequisite education and succeeding. According to Lowe, leadership pushed social work toward the adoption of a professional model during the 1930s in the setting of the Depression and the expanding public welfare sector, thereby defining the fastest-growing range of viable vocational opportunities as nonprofessional [1]. By 1935, the AASSW had established a minimal curriculum and a rule that only social work programs connected to AAU member colleges would be given official accreditation. By the end of the decade, the AASSW had decided that a 4-year undergraduate degree followed by a 2-year postbaccalaureate master's degree was the minimum educational need to be recognized completely professional in the field of social work. Despite this organizational focus, a variety of skilled and knowledgeable personnel were urgently needed to manage the extensive public welfare framework. Social work, however, seems to shy away from taking on these responsibilities by dismissing them as purely administrative and/or bureaucratic [2].

The National Association of Schools of Social Administration was founded in 1942 by a group of social work educational leaders working together with local public welfare authorities in reaction to this shift away from local public welfare. Promoting an undergraduate, entry-level social work degree was NASSA's main goal. The NASSA-affiliated educational institutions tended to be public and dispersed outside of the traditional Eastern/Urban areas that had traditionally dominated the field. The social work field reached its pinnacle of organizational significance in the 1930s, which is evident in the roles performed in the Roosevelt administration during the creation of the New Deal's social programs. Additionally, as previously mentioned, social workers played an important role in

shaping new social programs and serving as program directors for initiatives like FERA, the Federal Bureau of Public Assistance, and the National Youth Foundation under the WPA. Throughout the decade, a large number of additional social work leaders participated in policy creation [3].

The 1940s, however, were a time of fresh difficulties for the profession as a result of its organizational and educational variety. The AASW had challenges in the organizational sphere over membership concerns and the definition of a professional. This specific problem was greatly influenced by the field's explosive expansion in the 1930s. The structure of social work education was altered by the variety within the field of social work. The rank-and-file movement, which first appeared in 1931 and exercised an intriguing counterforce inside the profession throughout the decade, must be discussed before turning attention to the 1940s. The rank-and-file movement had its roots in the social reform movement, which Porter Lee had proclaimed dormant in 1929, just before the Great Depression's economic catastrophe [4]. Wenocur and Reisch provide the following summary of the rank-and-file movement:

- a) The Rank-and-File movement helped push social work to accept political action as a legitimate professional function in support of a national system of public protections between 1931 and 1942. Rank and file social workers exerted a powerful, politically progressive counterforce to the profession's attempts to control the emerging national social welfare industry. The Rank-and-File Movement peaked in 1936 with over 15,000 members, the bulk of whom worked for government relief organizations and lacked formal social work training.
- b) The internal issues that professional social work would face throughout the majority of the rest of the century and how they would affect key organizational choices and consequent structures are briefly described in this outline. A sizable public social welfare company that employed people who were seen as social workers or welfare workers but who the profession itself did not regard to be "professional" social workers brought the profession into the 1940s. The AASSW's 1937 decision to limit professional qualifications to a 2-year postgraduate degree resulted in the classification of thousands of public welfare workers as being beyond the scope of the profession. This division in the social work field was directly addressed in 1942 with the founding of NASSA, as was previously mentioned [5].

The country's involvement into World War II would be necessary for the economy to fully recover, opening up new career prospects. Alexander described a number of new groups that emerged in the 1940s in direct reaction to the nation's involvement into World War II:

- a) The National Jewish Welfare Board, National Catholic Community Service, National Traveler's Aid Association, Salvation Army, YMCA, and YWCA were the six volunteer organizations that made up The United Service, which was established in 1942 to coordinate services offered to military personnel and defense employees. Additionally, the Lanham Act, which provided 50% matching payments to local communities for use in operating daycare facilities and family day care homes, was responsible for establishing the first daycare for children of working moms in the United States. The National Maritime Union formed the Unitedseafarers's Service, whose director was Bertha C. Reynolds, to provide merchant seafarers medical, social work, and other services. As was previously said, 34 undergraduate social work programs at land grant colleges came together to establish NASSA [6].
- b) The National Social Work Council, which was established in 1923, was reorganized as the National Social Welfare Assembly in 1945. The World Health Organization,

the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, the International Labor Office, and the International Refugee Organization were among the organizations that were brought under the umbrella of the United Nations in April, along with the Economic and Social Council, to provide "international machinery for the promotion and social advancement of all peoples" and coordinate their efforts. The Girls Clubs of America was also established.

The Big Brothers of America was established in 1946. The National Mental Health Act, the Full Employment Act, and the Hospital Survey and Construction Act were all approved into law. Each of these three pieces of legislation had an impact on how social work was set up and practiced. The growth of inpatient hospitals gave the promotion of hospital/medical social work a boost. The National Mental Health Act increased the status of the profession and helped social work advance as a clinical treatment-oriented activity, but it also heightened the already-existing tensions between proponents of public versus private practice. The Full Employment Act was a policy declaration that claimed an economic service objective that would incorporate certain sections of the profession, even if it was not entirely achieved [7].

The Association for the Study of Community Organization was established in 1946, and the American Association originally established in 1936 became the American Association of Group Workers. These two organizations reflect the social work profession's continued development as it approaches mid-century, as well as providing additional evidence of the diversity that is causing problems for the profession's unity. The leadership of the social work profession faced significant challenges as it reached the 1950s in both the organizational and educational spheres. Although beyond the scope of this chapter, the formation of associations that concentrated on group work and community organizations marked the end of a protracted internal debate over the scope of social work. As a consequence, the profession faced fragmentation and the need to redefine its core identity as it reached the second half of the 20th century. As a result of the profession's response to these problems, important organizational choices and structures were made. Once again, the profession saw the start of an era of development and growth akin to the 1930s [8].

On one hand, the profession started the 1950s strong. A survey of 75,000 social workers was conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the results were based on 50,000 responses. The Social Security Act has also been expanded to include programs for the chronically handicapped, Aid to Dependent Children, and lastly, Old Age and Survivor's Insurance. The National Council on Aging was established, which may indicate a greater understanding of the aging of the population of the country. But these measures compelled the profession to clean house. In terms of education, the AASSW collaborated with NASSA and funded a significant study of social work education that became known as the Hollis-Taylor Report. The Council on Social Work Education was established in 1952 as the only entity with duty and power to accredit social work programs as a consequence of the study, which was published in 1951 and helped to unify the educational sector. Although undergraduate training was not completely acknowledged as professional, the conflict between undergraduate and graduate proponents was at least temporarily resolved with the founding of CSWE. As a consequence, this problem would come up again at the end of the decade and wouldn't be fixed until 1974, at least in terms of structure [9].

The 1950s are sometimes described as a calm, conservative era in the history of our country, one that was marked by a society that was recovering from the effects of the Great Depression and World War II and experiencing wealth that had never before been seen in the nation. Whether or not such description is correct, the decade was undoubtedly active in

terms of social work and significant breakthroughs. starting in 1952 with funds for specific projects supplied by the U.S. statewide initiatives for medical and social care to unwed mothers to be developed and coordinated by the Children's Bureau, and the U.S. The issue of growth was made very apparent by the International Conference on Social Welfare Committee.

A number of things happened in the middle of the decade that had an impact on the future and organizational life of social work. During 1953, the U.S. The establishment of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare marked a maturing of the country's commitment to providing social welfare services dating back to the New Deal of the Roosevelt period. It also brought the nation's primary social welfare institutions into the presidential cabinet level. On a local level, Rutland Corner House in Brookline, Massachusetts, opened its doors in 1954, becoming "the first urban transitional residence for mental patients." These organizational service providers gained importance as mental health treatment received more and more attention well into the 1960s and 1970s [10], [11].

The principle of "separate but equal" segregation in education was abolished by the U.S. Supreme Court's decision in the case of *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Shawnee County, Kansas*. Even if it wasn't put into practice right away, it undoubtedly had a significant impact on social work and the whole country. The socioeconomic changes that resulted from this choice affected the direction of much of social work, especially in terms of reviving the profession's social action components.

### **Community Organization Research Group, Social Work Study**

According to Wintour and Reisch, the Council on Social Work Education was established in 1952, the positive results of cooperative action on professional issues during World War II, the push by various membership associations for inclusion in AASW, and the apparent advantages of increasing organizational resources to influence local and state legislation as well as the postwar market for social work services were all factors that led to the creation of NASW. The profession also needs to create some clarity on its identity and public image. In spite of the fact that the profession considered itself to be a casework-oriented activity within the many sectors represented by the organizations that joined forces to establish NASW, social work was still very much associated with public welfare work in the public's perspective. Only a small percentage of the 75,000 social workers in the country who worked in public assistance had formal training. Furthermore, as Wenocur and Reisch point out, the NASW's membership criteria strengthened the certification standards established by the Council on Social Work Education, which had been established a few years earlier, for the profession's continued use of a graduate degree as the entrance point.

Social workers in Puerto Rico established the National Association of Puerto Rican Hispanic Social Workers in line with the trend of national organizations and probably as a move to underline their distinctive position within the country's national makeup. Congress approved the Civil Rights Act in 1957, three years after *Brown v. Board of Education*, creating the Commission on Civil Rights. This Act strengthened federal enforcement authority and powers and was the first of its kind since 1875. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 has its roots in this Act. Through this Act, social activism would be further encouraged and develop into a significant aspect of social work in the 1960s [12], [13].

The profession was dealing with some of the same organizational problems it had at the start of the decade as the decade came to a close. The procedures leading to the founding of NASW and CSWE were in motion as the 1950s got under way. The National Commission on Practice's *A Working Definition of Social Work Practice*, published by NASW at the end of

the decade, outlined the fundamental elements of social work practice: values, purpose, sanction, knowledge, and method. The Social Work Curriculum Study, published by CSWE in 1959, was hailed as a "milestone in the development of effective educational programs for professions" and contained 13 volumes. The profession was still fundamentally defining itself by the end of the decade.

### **1960 to 1980**

For social work, the 20-year period from 1960 to 1980 marks a journey that reflects the immense social and economic upheaval in the nation. According to Wenocur and Reisch, the rise of professional social work grew quickly between the mid-1950s and the mid-1980s as a result of the government's ongoing increase in social welfare funding. The amount of money spent on social welfare programs expanded in both the public and private sectors: "Between 1960 and 1983, social welfare expenditures in the public sector, including education, went from \$52.3 billion to \$641.7 billion, or more than 55% of total government spending. Additionally, funding for the volunteer social assistance sector increased, going from \$4.03 billion to \$28.5 billion [14].

The social welfare/public policy arena was characterized as being very active and swinging from the activism of the 1960s through the social pullback of the Reagan years, starting in 1961 with the passage of the Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offenses Control Act and ending in 1983 with the passage of the Social Security Amendments. The NASW formed the Academy of Certified Social Workers "to promote standards for professional social work practice and the protection of social welfare clients," in line with its well-known focus on advancing standards for the profession. It calls for a master's degree in social work and two years of practice under the supervision of an Academy of Certified Social Workers member. Given the apparently abrupt emphasis on poverty that would occur in the 1960s with the War on Poverty, this organizational reaffirmation of the master's level for professional social work practice posed some fascinating issues.

This crucial decade for the profession was characterized by an almost bewildering assortment of occasions, starting with Michael Harrington's *The Other America*'s release in 1962. Almost all governmental acts in the domain of social legislation were relevant to social work practice. The passage of the Civil Rights Act, the Food Stamp Act, and the Economic Opportunity Act in 1964, as well as the Manpower Development and Training Act, Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Mental Health Centers Construction Act, and other significant laws, presented social work with a significant challenge to expand its practice beyond the traditional clinical fields of casework-oriented practice. 1965 saw the U.S. "Closing the Gap in Social Work Manpower" a report from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, was significant for social work in two ways: first, it projected a clear need for social workers to address the range of populations being covered by the increase in governmental-sponsored social programs [15].

With the passing of the Comprehensive Health Planning and Public Health Services Amendments, the Veteran's Readjustment Benefits Act, and the Narcotic Addict Rehabilitation Act in 1966, the decade continued the already well-established trend of increased governmental activism in the social welfare sector. The Child Health Act, which was enacted in 1967, significantly increased government support for the nation's healthcare system. The American Hospital Association sponsored the formation of the Society for Hospital Social Work Directors in 1966. It later changed its name to the Society for Social Work Administrators in Health Care in 1993, perhaps reflecting the high level of attention given to health care policy and services.

Numerous new professional groups were established in 1968, mirroring the racial and ethnic conflicts that prevailed in the wider society and adding to the ongoing process of change and battles with diversity. They were the Association of American Indian Social Workers, the National Association of Black Social Workers, the National Association of Puerto Rican Social Service Workers, and the Asian American Social Workers [16].

President Nixon proposed the Family Assistance Plan in 1969 as the political landscape changed under a Republican administration and in response to the growing challenge of the Vietnam War. This plan included a guaranteed annual income in place of the public welfare system, which Nixon all but claimed had failed. In the end, the planned proposal was not adopted as law. However, because of the political and ideological battles, a chance may have been missed to fundamentally restructure public and family welfare support. The NASW acknowledged the undergraduate social work degree in 1969, capping a fight that had started in the very beginning of the profession's existence. This was a highly significant event in the professional organizational sphere. An NASW national membership poll led to the decision to recognize the undergraduate degree. In 1970, the ruling was put into practice. However, CSWE did not start accrediting the bachelor degree until 1974.

The Republican government launched a process of negating many of the 1960s-era projects as the 1970s got underway in response to the quick speed of social development. The vastly enlarged human services sector brought about by the surge in government funding for the broad variety of programs launched throughout the 1960s was putting fresh strain on the profession. The social work profession saw a number of significant advancements throughout this time. The objective assessment was first introduced by the NASW in 1971 as a way to create national standards for social work knowledge and practice. This test, which was connected to the already-existing Academy of Certified Social Workers accreditation, served as the prerequisite for licensing. The founding of the National Federation of Clinical Social Workers, which subsequently changed its name to the National Federation of Societies for Clinical Social Work in 1976, was significant and not unconnected to this move [17], [18].

The National Institute on Drug Abuse was founded in 1972 "to provide leadership, policies, and goals for the total federal effort to prevent, control, and treat narcotic addiction and drug abuse" as a result of the rising knowledge and concern around substance misuse. The same year, the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) took action to include social workers in the Professional Standards Review Organizations established as part of the Social Security Amendments. By taking this move, social work positioned itself as a major participant in the local and state organizational structure when it comes to serving Medicaid, Medicare, and mother and child health program clients. Similar to this, the 1973 Health Maintenance Organization Act, which authorized government funding to support and promote group medical practice, contained social service components and criteria as a result of NASW involvement.

As previously mentioned, CSWE started accrediting undergraduate social work schools in 1974. According to Wenocur and Reisch, "Recognition of the BSW as the professional entry degree was probably the single most significant change in the internal structure of social work enterprise." The proponents of undergraduate professional education have at long last succeeded in securing a solid position within the overall social work organizational framework. At the time and as now, as the industry works to unite, the choice to include this level of training was divisive. The social welfare movement that began in the 1930s was redefined during the rest of the decade by a number of social laws. Title XX of the Social Security Act, often known as the Social Service Amendments of 1974, established a level of government assistance for several levels of service delivery at 75%. The program and its

financial match were a crucial resource utilized to improve social work education, especially at the undergraduate level. NASW played a vital role in the policy-making process. The profession continues to be successful in getting social work services incorporated in a number of pieces of federal legislation, such as the Health Professional Educational Assistance Act and the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. There were social work service provisions in both pieces of legislation. The Health Professional Assistance Act provided money to educate social workers in health care management, policy analysis, and social work. It also featured the first reference of schools of social work in federal health law [19].

Political activity for Candidate Election was established by NASW in 1976, dedicating the social work profession to political engagement as a professional duty. In a symbolic way, Porter Lee's 1929 claim that the concept of "cause" was irrelevant to the field of social work was reversed by this action. The Rural Social Work Caucus was established to assist rural social workers, and PACE endorsed "Carter and Mondale, the Democratic Party candidates for president and vice president, initiating the NASW Political Action for Candidate Election program to raise funds for political action. The establishment of the International Code of Ethics for Professional Social Workers was another significant event that occurred in the year commemorating the American Revolution. The Code was approved in the Puerto Rico Assembly of the International Federation of Social Workers, which was attended by 52 national professional social worker organizations. It was written by Chauncey A. Alexander, then Executive Director of NASW. The NASW was successful in creating the American Association of State Social Work Boards, a grouping of state boards and authority, in the last year of the decade. "Empowered to regulate the practice of social work within their own jurisdictions" is how the Social Work Boards describe their authority. The main step toward complete regulation of the profession by the profession itself was this proposal. It is fair to argue that by taking this move, social work as an organized profession has finally put all of the necessary foundational elements in place. The process has been ongoing since 1898, when a training program for nonprofit employees was first requested [19], [20].

## DISCUSSION

Beginning in the latter two decades of the twentieth century, there has been an increasing push to scale down the federal government's involvement in the overall social welfare sector. According to Alexander, the Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act, which was passed in 1981, marked the beginning of a federal policy reversal on general welfare responsibility for human services, cutting federal programs via block grants while seeming to decentralize authority to the states. ... Title XX of the Social Security Act is amended by the Social Service Block Grant Act, which was approved by Congress on August 13 and is a component of the Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act of 1981 [21]. This act decentralizes authority to the states and consolidates social services systems.

The discovery of HIV and AIDS was a very significant event in 1981, and the profession was challenged and responded by actively learning about this health threat and ultimately assuming important leadership roles in both service delivery and research.

This was just as the country and the world had begun to absorb the significance of the virulent epidemic. The Tax Equity and Fiscal Responsibility Act, passed in 1982, started "severe reductions in service provisions of Medicare, Medicaid, Utilization and Quality Control Peer Review, Aid to Families with Dependent Children, child support enforcement, supplemental security income, and unemployment compensation." This continued the cuts enacted by the Reagan administration and the trend started under the Nixon administration [22].

## CONCLUSION

The National Network for Social Work Managers was established in 1985 in the midst of this difficult time of programmatic and financial cutbacks as "a professional society to advance knowledge, theory, and practice of management and administration in social services and the social work profession and to obtain recognition of social work managers, NASW establishes the National Center for Social Policy and Practice to analyze practice data and make recommendations on Suzanne Dworak-Peck founded the NASW Communications Network in 1988 as an affiliate organization to promote socially responsible media programming and accurate representation of social problems and professional social work. For technical media support, the network makes use of a computerized network of several hundred social workers. Also in 1988, The Civil Rights Restoration Act overturned the *Grove City College v. Bell* ruling from the Supreme Court and made it clear that if any program received federal funding, all four major civil rights laws pertaining to gender, disability, age, and race had to be interpreted to forbid discrimination across entire organizations. The 1990s began with the legal regulation of social work in 50 states and other jurisdictions, the development of the NASW School Social Work Specialist Credential for objective testing and certification of school social workers, and the transformation of the NASW Press from the organization's publications division. Following these developments, the NASW Academy of Certified Baccalaureate Social Workers was founded in 1991 to provide social workers with bachelor's degrees in social work objective examination and certification. After the Flexner ruling on the profession in 1915, social work finally resolved all past loopholes and inadequacies with this certification action. In essence, the profession had developed organizations, rules, and procedures that answered all of Flexner's suggestions. Even yet, the profession faced persistent problems and conflicts over fragmentation vs unity as it reached the twenty-first century. The chronological timeline that came before it identified a number of milestone events and choices; the section that follows offers some additional discussion of the ongoing tensions in the profession, which are primarily acted out between and within the professional organizations and those that represent the interests of the social work educational enterprise.

## REFERENCES:

- [1] T. Feldhoff, "Shrinking communities in Japan: Community ownership of assets as a development potential for rural Japan?," *Urban Des. Int.*, 2013, doi: 10.1057/udi.2012.26.
- [2] U. E. Chigbu, "Repositioning culture for development: women and development in a Nigerian rural community," *Community, Work Fam.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/13668803.2014.981506.
- [3] D. Howard-Wagner, "'Moving from transactional government to enablement' in Indigenous service delivery: The era of New Public Management, service innovation and urban Aboriginal community development," *Aust. J. Soc. Issues*, 2018, doi: 10.1002/ajs4.53.
- [4] A. Iswadi, A. Owen, L. Garniati, and J. Sugardjito, "Marine renewable energy: Opportunities and challenges for community development in coastal area of Indonesia," *Int. J. Serv. Technol. Manag.*, 2018, doi: 10.1504/IJSTM.2018.094440.
- [5] U. E. Ite, "Changing times and strategies: Shell's contribution to sustainable community development in the Niger Delta, Nigeria," *Sustain. Dev.*, 2007, doi: 10.1002/sd.294.

- [6] D. Bashir, "Women empowerment through community Development programs in Balochistan," *Bi-Annual Res. J. "BALOCHISTAN Rev.*, 2018.
- [7] M. Stone and G. Wall, "Ecotourism and Community Development: Case Studies from Hainan, China," *Environmental Management*. 2004. doi: 10.1007/s00267-003-3029-z.
- [8] J. Murdoch, C. Grodach, and N. Foster, "The Importance of Neighborhood Context in Arts-Led Development: Community Anchor or Creative Class Magnet?," *J. Plan. Educ. Res.*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/0739456X15599040.
- [9] A. Abu Samah and F. Aref, "Community Development Programmes in Malaysia," *Nat. Sci.*, 2009.
- [10] G. S. GRIFFITH and L. BODDY, "Fungal decomposition of attached angiosperm twigs I. Decay community development in ash, beech and oak," *New Phytol.*, 1990, doi: 10.1111/j.1469-8137.1990.tb00526.x.
- [11] J. H. Cohen, "Textile, tourism and community development," *Ann. Tour. Res.*, 2001, doi: 10.1016/S0160-7383(00)00060-8.
- [12] Y. L. M. Sitorus, "Community driven development in traditional communities in papua," *J. Reg. City Plan.*, 2017, doi: 10.5614/jrcp.2017.28.1.2.
- [13] I. T. Sanders, "Theories of Community Development.," *Rural Sociol.*, 1958.
- [14] C. M. Chen, M. C. Hong, and Y. H. Hsu, "Administrator self-ratings of organization capacity and performance of healthy community development projects in Taiwan," *Public Health Nurs.*, 2007, doi: 10.1111/j.1525-1446.2007.00643.x.
- [15] M. Ahmadi, H. S. Hashim, A. F. Mohamed, N. Moharamnejad, and E. Shamshiry, "Quantitative models for participation evaluation in community development: A theoretical review," *World Appl. Sci. J.*, 2013, doi: 10.5829/idosi.wasj.2013.25.02.2173.
- [16] J. Onyx and R. LEonard, "The conversion of social capital into community development: An intervention in Australia's outback," *Int. J. Urban Reg. Res.*, 2010, doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2427.2009.00897.x.
- [17] J. Crawshaw and M. Gkartzios, "Getting to know the island: Artistic experiments in rural community development," *J. Rural Stud.*, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.jrurstud.2015.12.007.
- [18] D. Vanleene, J. Voets, and B. Verschuere, "Co-producing a nicer neighbourhood: Why do people participate in local community development projects?," *Lex Localis*, 2017, doi: 10.4335/15.1.111-132(2017).
- [19] J. J. Green, "Community Development and Social Development," *Res. Soc. Work Pract.*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/1049731515627194.
- [20] H. Xue and D. S. Mason, "Sport events, urban regimes, and community development: a case study of Nanjing, China," *Manag. Sport Leis.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/23750472.2018.1470901.
- [21] A. Giampiccoli and O. Mtapuri, "Role of external parties in Community-Based Tourism development: Towards a new model," *African J. Hosp. Tour. Leis.*, 2017.
- [22] R. E. Thibault, "Between survival and revolution: Another community development system is possible," *Antipode*, 2007, doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8330.2007.00556.x.