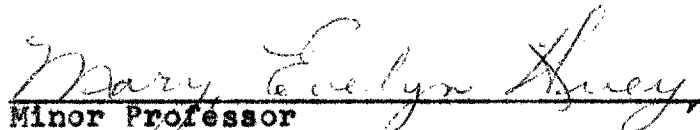


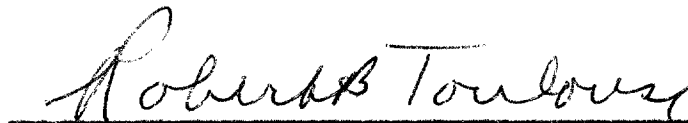
THE PROFESSIONALIZED BUREAUCRACY:
A STUDY OF CONFLICT AND ACCOMMODATION OF
ORGANIZATIONAL MODELS IN THREE
SOCIAL WORK AGENCIES

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement and Significance of the Problem

In modern urban industrial societies occupational behavior is characteristically organized in formal bureaucratic patterns. The rise of bureaucracy was analyzed in Weber's classic work, Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft, in which he describes the bureaucracy as a "rational legal," hierarchical structure of authority among individuals working for common goals.¹ In bureaucracy the specialized activities of large numbers of workers are combined to achieve a wide array of social ends. As occupational behavior has become increasingly specialized, diverse activities have been organized within single bureaucracies, and varying forms of bureaucratic structures have developed under both public and private auspices in response to new and reorganized occupational functions.²

¹Max Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization, translated by A. M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons (New York, 1947), pp. 329-330. This is the English title given by the translators to Part I of Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft. A further explication of the bureaucratic model appears on pp. 6-7 of this study.

²For a discussion of the social process of the allocation of occupational functions, see Everett C. Hughes, "The Study of Occupations," Sociology Today: Problems and Prospects, edited by Robert K. Merton, Leonard Broom, and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. (New York, 1959), pp. 442-458.

A second form of organization of occupational behavior has also become increasingly important in modern societies. This form of organization is especially associated with occupational groups that are categorized as professions. Professional occupations exhibit certain distinguishing characteristics, one of which is the professional association. The professional association controls occupational behavior in a manner that is distinctly different than the bureaucratic type of control. The professional authority structure is a collegiate one--an association of "equals," whereas a bureaucracy is hierarchically structured--an association of "unequals."³ Bureaucracies and the professions, then, are contrasting modes of organization which exhibit distinctive patterns of authority relationships.

The professions were historically "gentlemen's occupations."⁴ They also have been termed "free professions," a designation which refers to their relative freedom from outside authority. Some of the professions were and are still composed entirely or primarily of independent, fee-taking practitioners. Such a professional man is a "self-employed" individual, and control of his occupational behavior is

³A further discussion of professional occupations and professional associations appears below on pp. 8-10.

⁴T. H. Marshall, "The Recent History of Professionalism in Relation to Social Structure and Social Policy," Canadian Journal of Economic and Political Science, V (August, 1939), 325.

exercised by his professional colleagues. The number of persons engaged in professional and technical occupations has expanded until in 1960 it comprised 11.2 per cent of the labor force.⁵

In many instances the processes of bureaucratization and professionalization have "crossed paths." The development of new areas of expert knowledge and new service organizations to carry them out have led to "the professions . . . being socialized and the social and public services . . . being professionalized."⁶ During this process professional persons have been increasingly employed in bureaucratic organizations which can coordinate and effectively use professional talents. Kornhauser estimates that:

With the exception of teachers, journalists, and clergymen, the main salaried professions increased more than ten times between 1900 and 1950, while the labor force only doubled and the total professions quadrupled. During the same period, those professions in which many or most practitioners are self-employed increased less than the labor force in the case of lawyers, musicians, pharmacists, and physicians, or less than the total professions in the case of architects, artists, and dentists.⁷

When professionals are salaried by bureaucratic organizations, there is a potential conflict between the two types of control, which both claim a sphere of authority over the

⁵U. S. Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1966, 87th ed. (Washington, 1966), p. 229.

⁶Marshall, op. cit., p. 333.

⁷William Kornhauser, Scientists in Industry (Berkeley, 1962), pp. 4-5.

behavior of occupational members. Authority conflicts are accommodated to different degrees and in different manners as a response to the characteristics of the particular occupations and organizations involved.

One example of such an accommodation is the social work agency, a bureaucracy which not only employs professionals but is "built around" professionals. As might be expected, because of the specific nature of social work, agencies vary in some significant respects from other bureaucracies composed primarily of professional persons. In addition, there are several varieties of social work agency, which conform more or less closely to bureaucratic and professional models of occupational organization.

The three social work agencies constituting the focus of this study vary in the degrees to which they exhibit the characteristics of the two organizational patterns. The study deals with determining the relationship of the social workers' conceptions of their occupational role to (1) their conformity to professional values and (2) the degree of bureaucratization of the employing agency. Five facets of the occupational role are conceptualized in this study. The first two facets concern the workers' relationships to the social work profession: to professional training and to membership in professional associations. The next role conception is reflected in the workers' views of the supervisor's proper function. The last two role conceptions deal with the workers' view of the

bureaucracy: their commitments to the agency and their conceptions of the effectiveness of their agency.

The purpose of this research is to determine whether or not meaningful differences exist along these dimensions in the manner in which social workers view their work role, and whether or not any such differences are related to the bureaucratic and professional nature of the agencies and their employees. The analysis will attempt to define the points at which the bureaucratic organization conflicts with professional patterns of organization and attempt to discover the mode of accommodation which results from these conflicts. These dimensions of the accommodation of bureaucracy and professionalism in a specific setting should have importance for the further understanding of the factors operating in such processes. Social work, as a profession, will undoubtedly continue to undergo many changes, and the social work agency is probably the social structure most affected by these changes. Other similar occupations and organizations, too, will undoubtedly evolve new patterns of social organization to carry out their functions. It is likely that these organizational structures will include elements of both the professional and the bureaucratic authority patterns. The modifications of the professional and bureaucratic control structures which result are considered to be social innovations with both practical and theoretical importance.

Review of the Literature

Bureaucratic and Professional Authority

Bureaucratic authority.--A bureaucracy is a major type of formal organization⁸ which was described by Weber in the early years of this century. Weber's formulation specifies the following seven characteristics of a bureaucratic, or "rational legal," authority structure:

The following may thus be said to be the fundamental categories of rational legal authority:--

(1) A continuous organization of official functions bound by rules.

(2) A specified sphere of competence. This involves (a) a sphere of obligations to perform functions which has been marked off as part of a systematic division of labor. (b) The provision of the incumbent with the necessary authority to carry out these functions. (c) That the necessary means of compulsion are clearly defined and their use is subject to definite conditions.

(3) The organization of offices follows the principle of hierarchy; that is, each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one.

(4) The rules which regulate the conduct of an office may be technical rules or norms. In both cases, if their application is to be fully rational, specialized training is necessary.

(5) In the rational type it is a matter of principle that the members of the administrative staff should be completely separated from ownership of the means of production or administration.

(6) In the rational type case, there is also a complete absence of appropriation of his official position by the incumbent.

⁸Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations (San Francisco, 1962), p. 1, define a formal organization in these terms: "What formal organizations all have in common is that a number of men have become organized into a social unit--an organization that has been established for the explicit purpose of achieving certain goals."

(7) Administrative acts, decisions, and rules are formulated and recorded in writing . . . The combination of written documents and a continuous organization of official functions constitutes the "office" which is the central focus of all types of modern corporate action.⁹

The first three characteristics listed above specifically describe those basic dimensions of the organization of occupational functions in the bureaucracy that were outlined above. The bureaucracy is a structure of unequals in that it involves a hierarchy of authority. The activities of the organization are systematically broken down into "spheres of obligation to perform functions," which are coordinated by an administrative apparatus. In one sense, each of these spheres of obligation constitutes an occupation. Hughes' definition of an occupation, for example, emphasizes this same concept of differentiation of function.

Division of labor, one of the most fundamental of all social processes, finds one of its most explicit expressions in occupations. . . .

An occupation, in essence, is not some particular set of activities; it is the part of an individual in any ongoing system of activities.¹⁰

In a bureaucracy, various occupational positions are combined in a structuring of authority which operates impersonally, according to universalistic rules, and (most importantly) so that the legitimated authority of the superordinate governs the activity of those below him in the hierarchy.

⁹Weber, op. cit., pp. 330-333.

¹⁰Hughes, op. cit., p. 445.

Professional authority.--An occupation is more than the position of one individual in an "ongoing system of activities," however. An occupation becomes a social grouping in that many individuals performing similar functions are socially defined as belonging to the same occupational group. It is in this sense that Caplow discusses the characteristics of occupational institutions. After defining such institutions as "the network of circumstances within each occupation which determine the roles of its members,"¹¹ he lists the following nine structural characteristics exhibited by occupational institutions:

. . . the manner of recruiting, the evaluation of seniority, the evaluation of merit, the control of occupational behavior, the control of extra-occupational behavior, the formation of occupational attitudes, the occupational culture or internal ethos, the occupational stereotypes or external ethos, and the rate of growth or decline.¹²

Such occupational institutions have differing degrees of social reality; i.e., their separation into distinct groupings is variably defined by occupational members and by outsiders. To further complicate the situation, occupations can be combined into broader classifications or types. The professions constitute one such more general classification.

The basic characteristic of the professions is their collegiate control structure. The significance of this structure

¹¹Theodore Caplow, The Sociology of Work (Minneapolis, 1954), p. 101.

¹²Ibid., p. 102.

is explained by Blau and Scott as follows:

A final characteristic of the professions is their distinctive control structure . . . Professionals typically organize themselves into voluntary associations for the purpose of self-control. As Goode explains, "the larger society has obtained an indirect social control by yielding direct social control to the professional community, which thus can make judgments according to its own norms." Professional control appears to have two sources. First, as a result of the long period of training undergone by the practitioner, he is expected to have acquired a body of expert knowledge and to have internalized a code of ethics which governs his professional conduct. Second, this self-control is supported by the external surveillance of his conduct by peers, who are in a position to see his work, who have the skills to judge his performance, and who, since they have a personal stake in the reputation of their profession, are motivated to exercise the necessary sanctions. Professionals in a given field constitute a colleague group of equals. Every member of the group, but nobody else, is assumed to be qualified to make professional judgments.¹³

The two primary elements of collegiate control, then, are (1) standardized professional training and (2) organization into a colleague group of equals. The training is basic to the establishment of professional control in that such training establishes the criteria for entrance into the circle of authority as well as establishes an operational definition of the sphere of competence of the profession, and hence the limits of its authority. Wilensky's discussion of the process of professionalization through which occupations typically go in acquiring professional standing also emphasizes these two characteristics of professions. He specifies four events

¹³Blau and Scott, op. cit., pp. 62-63.

which mark the progress of professionalization: establishment of a training school, combination to form a professional association, political agitation to establish formal licensing and certification regulations, and development of a formal code of ethics.¹⁴

Conflicts between bureaucratic and professional authority.--After defining the nature of the professional control structure, Blau and Scott contrast bureaucratic with professional authority in these terms:

It is clear that [the professional] type of control structure differs greatly from that employed in bureaucratic organizations. The source of discipline within a bureaucracy is not the colleague group but the hierarchy of authority. Performance is controlled by directives received from one's superiors rather than by self-imposed standards and peer-group surveillance, as is the case among professionals. This difference in social control . . . is related to that between expertness and discipline . . .¹⁵

Etzioni also discusses the conflict between bureaucratic and professional authority, but he emphasizes the role of professional knowledge.

. . . the ultimate justification for a professional act is that it is, to the best of the professional's knowledge, the right act. . . . The ultimate justification of an administrative act, however, is that it is in line

¹⁴Harold L. Wilensky, "The Professionalization of Everyone?" The American Journal of Sociology, LXX (September, 1964), 144-145.

¹⁵Blau and Scott, op. cit., p. 63, also discuss similarities between professional and bureaucratic institutions. Such similarities (e.g., objective criteria for action), however, are not the primary focus of this study.

with the organization's rules and regulations, and that it has been approved--directly or by implication--by a superior rank.¹⁶

In Kornhauser's study of scientists employed in industry the use of knowledge is an underlying factor. He describes the major task of the professional person, or expert, as creative work requiring intellectual judgment and autonomy (i.e., freedom from outside control). He contrasts this function with the coordination function of the bureaucratic organization.¹⁷ He also describes two ways in which the two structures of authority are accommodated in industrial organizations.

First, industrial research groups have sought to institutionalize the teaching function. Expert authority, lacking the disposition of punishment and rewards that characterizes executive authority, is dependent on the willingness of the professional to assume the role of teacher.

Second, the strategic deployment of scientists and engineers throughout an enterprise tends to reduce resistance to research resulting from conflicting perspectives on innovation.¹⁸

Such a situation occurs when the professional man "invades" the bureaucratic domain of modern industry. However, other bureaucratic organizations have been created specifically for professional personnel. The modern hospital, for example, is organized around its professional staff rather

¹⁶Amitai Etzioni, Modern Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, 1964), p. 77.

¹⁷Kornhauser, op. cit., p. 195.

¹⁸Ibid., pp. 192-193.

than absorbing it, as the modern factory tends to do. In such combinations of the bureaucratic and professional models as the hospital, the authority structure of the organization is modified somewhat from the "pure" bureaucratic type.

Etzioni classifies formal (bureaucratic) organizations according to the way in which they handle knowledge and the relationship of professionals to the organization. Production organizations, such as the industries described by Kornhauser, Etzioni terms non-professional organizations. He then discusses the professional organization, which he further subdivides into the full-fledged professional and the semi-professional organization. These are defined and distinguished as follows:

Knowledge is produced, applied, preserved, or communicated in organizations especially established for these purposes. These are professional organizations, which are characterized not only by the goals they pursue but also by the high proportion of professionals on their staff (at least 50 per cent) and by the authority relations between professionals and non-professionals which are so structured that professionals have superior authority over the major goal activities of the organization . . . For certain purposes it is useful to distinguish between those organizations employing professionals whose professional training is long (5 years or more), and those employing professionals whose training is shorter (less than 5 years). The former we call full-fledged professional organizations; the latter, semi-professional organizations. Generally associated with differences in training of the professionals in these two types of organizations are differences in goals, in privileges, and in concern with matters of life and death. "Pure" professional organizations are primarily devoted to the creation and application of knowledge; their professionals are usually protected in their work by the guarantee of privileged communication, and they are often concerned with matters of life and death. Semi-professional organizations are more concerned with

the communication and, to a lesser extent, the application of knowledge, their professionals are less likely to be guaranteed the right of privileged communications, and they are rarely directly concerned with matters of life and death.¹⁹

According to this classification scheme, social work agencies are semi-professional organizations. Etzioni notes, however, that social work agencies do not completely conform to his definition of semi-professional organizations.

The social work agency is less typical since it applies knowledge but is semi-professional in the fairly short training involved, in the fact that no questions of life and death are involved, and that privileged communication is not strictly maintained (e.g., vis-a-vis the courts).²⁰

Scott discusses two types of professional organizations, the autonomous and the heteronomous. These are similar to Etzioni's full-fledged professional and semi-professional organizations, but Scott distinguishes between his types solely on the basis of the structuring of authority.

Professional organizations are those in which professionals play the central role in the achievement of the primary organizational objectives. Such organizations are regarded as autonomous if the administrative sector delegates the organization and control of most of the professional activities within the organization to the staff of professionals, and as heteronomous if the administration retains control over most professional activities.²¹

¹⁹Etzioni, op. cit., pp. 77-78.

²⁰Ibid., p. 88.

²¹W. Richard Scott, "Reactions to Supervision in a Heteronomous Professional Organization," Administrative Science Quarterly, X (June, 1965), 65.

He describes the heteronomous professional organization further in these terms:

In the second type of professional organization, called "heteronomous," professional employees are clearly subordinated to an administrative framework, and the amount of autonomy granted professional employees is relatively small. An elaborate set of rules and a system of routine supervision controls many if not most aspects of the tasks performed by professional employees, so that it is often difficult if not impossible to locate or define an arena of activity for which the professional group is responsible individually or collectively.²²

The social work agency can be described, then, as a professional organization (of the bureaucratic family) of the heteronomous or semi-professional subtype. To further explore the social work agency in these terms, it is necessary to examine social work as a professional occupation. The accommodations of the two types of authority within the agency structure can then be made more clear.

The social work profession and the social work agency.--

Social work is one of the more recent professions to gain its professional status. Wilensky specifies the dates in its process of professionalization as follows: first training school--1898; first national professional association--1874; first state license law--1940; formal code of ethics--1948.²³

There is one characteristic of social workers which makes their designation as professional somewhat problematic,

²²Ibid., p. 67.

²³Wilensky, op. cit., p. 143.

however. This characteristic is the large number of "un-trained" people who are employed as social workers. In 1960, according to a survey conducted by the Department of Labor, only 20 per cent of all employed social workers had completed two years in a graduate school of social work, and only 33 per cent had had any graduate social work training at all.²⁴ As a result of the lack of trained professionals, there are at present many programs in operation and under consideration designed to divide tasks into those considered to require the more expert workers and those which are not. The more demanding tasks are then assigned to trained social workers.²⁵ This process of subdividing professional functions is described by Wilensky as typical of professionalization.

It is in the further self-conscious definition of the core tasks that a pecking order of delegation occurs. The doctor allocates much of his job to less trained nurses and laboratory and X-ray technicians; the nurses, as they seek to professionalize, allocate much of their less attractive work to practical nurses, aides, and nurse assistants; and these, in turn, allocate some of their chores to ward helpers. A similar tendency exists among all professional groups in short supply--dentists, teachers, engineers, scientists, and social workers, all of whom are redefining their functions

²⁴U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960 (New York, 1962), p. 39.

²⁵Laura Epstein, "Differential Use of Staff: A Method to Expand Social Services," Social Work, VII (October, 1962), 66-72. Margaret M. Heyman, "A Study of Effective Utilization of Social Workers in a Hospital Setting," Social Work, VI (April, 1961), 36-43. Verne Weed and William H. Denham, "Toward More Effective Use of the Nonprofessional Worker: A Recent Experiment," Social Work, VI (October, 1961), 29-36.

upward and at the same time are sloughing off their dirty work, that is, their less-technical or less-rewarding tasks.²⁶

However, this process is not yet in an advanced stage in social work. And meanwhile the "untrained" professional social worker remains a contradiction in terms. The principle of collegiate control is less appropriately applied to such workers. In addition, the official professional association, the National Association of Social Workers, largely excludes them from membership.²⁷ Controls associated with the major professional association, then, do not apply directly to these workers. In order to distinguish between social workers with graduate training and those without graduate training, the latter will be referred to hereafter as semi-professional.

Without professional association controls over the occupational behavior of the majority of social workers, it is not surprising that they are largely employed in organizations which exert rather extensive control over their behavior.²⁸

²⁶Wilensky, op. cit., p. 143.

²⁷There are, of course, numerous local, state, and national social welfare associations other than the NASW in which membership is more open. However, such voluntary associations cannot be said to exercise direct control over the occupational behavior of their members.

²⁸A few social workers operate as independent fee-taking practitioners. However, they are likely to label themselves as "psychotherapists" or "analysts," and their professional status has been questioned in professional articles. See Sherman Merle, "Some Arguments Against Private Practice," Social Work, VII (January, 1952), 12-17.

Although the semi-professional employees of a social work agency are subject to bureaucratic control, it is the professional personnel, with graduate training, who typically hold the positions of authority. Etzioni says, "Thus while the semi-professionals are more supervised than the professionals, supervision is more often conducted by their own kind."²⁹ Scott's study centers around this same phenomenon of professional supervision. However, Etzioni and Scott come to quite different conclusions as to the effect of bureaucratic control through professional supervisors upon the subordinate social workers. Etzioni suggests that:

. . . the semi-professional subordinates tend to adopt the full-fledged professions as their reference group in the sense that they view themselves as full-fledged professionals and feel that they should be given more discretion and be less controlled. Teachers resent the "interference" of principals and many principals try to minimize it. Social workers rebel against their supervisors.³⁰

Scott describes social work supervision in contrasting terms.

Social workers, unlike many professionals, do not view supervision as superfluous if not insufferable, but as a professional necessity. . . . It is apparent . . . that the term "supervision" is used in a special sense by the profession; the role is defined as being that of an educator rather than an administrative superior.³¹

²⁹Etzioni, op. cit., p. 89.

³⁰Ibid.

³¹Scott, op. cit., p. 70. Also see Harold L. Wilensky and Charles N. Lebeaux, Industrial Society and Social Welfare (New York, 1958), pp. 237-238. Both Scott and Wilensky and Lebeaux cite several articles in professional social work journals which discuss social work supervision in these terms.

Scott studied ninety-two social case workers in a public welfare agency to determine their reaction to the system of supervision. He found that:

. . . exactly half of the workers in the agency regarded routine supervision as "a good arrangement." However, when workers were differentiated by type of supervisor, 77 per cent of the (twenty-two) workers under professionally oriented supervisors in contrast to 45 per cent of the (forty-two) workers under less professional supervisors felt that the arrangement was a good one.³²

In addition, Scott's findings suggested that "there is some tendency for the less professional supervisors to undersupervise their trained workers so that they [the trained workers] desire more control."³³

Hence, it appears that not only do social workers fail to "rebel" against their supervisors, but that the more professional the training that a caseworker receives, the more supervisory control he deems desirable. Such findings suggest that the model of the professional man chafing under bureaucratic control does not hold for social workers. The system of supervisory control performs professional functions for both the trained and the untrained worker, and it is organized so that the more professional worker supervises the less professional, or semi-professional, worker. The professional peer group, in effect, utilizes the authority of the bureaucratic structure to perform an essentially professional function, that of training.

³²Scott, op. cit., pp. 74-75.

³³Ibid., p. 81.

Socialization of Professional Norms

Scott deals with a second facet of the conflict between bureaucratic and professional authority, loyalty of professional employees to the bureaucracy as opposed to commitment to the profession.³⁴ This part of the problem is perhaps best discussed in connection with the socialization of professional norms vis-à-vis reference groups. Professional norms, of course, are basic to the professional authority structure, as discussed above. In order for the professional group to maintain control over its members, it must effectively perpetuate its values and standards of behavior. Thus, the professional man is assumed to have "internalized" the norms of his peers who oversee his work. Much occupational research has been concerned with the socialization³⁵ of professionals. Virtually all of these studies deal with socialization as it

³⁴Blau and Scott report data from two studies: one is Scott's study of County Agency, from which his 1965 article is derived; the other is Blau's study of City Agency.

³⁵"Socialization . . . refers to the learning of social roles. In its application to the medical student, socialization refers to the processes through which he develops his professional self, with its characteristic values, attitudes, knowledge, and skills, fusing these into a more or less consistent set of dispositions which govern his behavior in a wide variety of professional (and extra-professional) situations. Socialization takes place primarily through social interaction with people who are significant for the individual . . ." Robert K. Merton, "Socialization: A Terminological Note," The Student-Physician: Introductory Studies in the Sociology of Medical Education, edited by Robert K. Merton, George Reader, and Patricia L. Kendall (Cambridge, 1957), p. 287.

occurs in the professional training institution.³⁶ Professional training is seen as providing more than the knowledge and skills of the occupation. While learning to perform the occupational techniques, the professional trainee also learns the norms and values of his anticipated occupational role.

The problem involved in the application of such an analysis to social work is obvious; a minority of the occupational members have undergone such professional training. How, then, are they socialized into their occupational role? How do they learn the professional techniques and norms? Or, indeed, do they learn them at all? There are two primary sources for socialization of occupational behavior in a setting such as the social work agency. The first of these is the organization itself. As described earlier, the social work agency is composed primarily of semi-professionals. Relationships with experienced case workers and with supervisors, who have more often received professional training, serve the function of teaching neophytes their expected role behavior and professional values. The function of the supervisor as an educator has been referred to above.

The second source of professional socialization is the voluntary professional association. Even though the

³⁶In addition to The Student-Physician, see Howard S. Becker and others, Boys in White (Chicago, 1961) and David Gottlieb, "Processes of Socialization in American Graduate Schools," Social Forces, XL (December, 1961), 124-131, as only a few examples of such studies.

semi-professional caseworker is not likely to belong to the NASW, there are numerous social welfare associations to which she³⁷ may belong. Contact with members of the profession in associations outside the employing agency may also serve the socialization function. Professional publications, meetings, and conferences serve as additional mechanisms for formal presentation of the professional role.

Professional reference groups.--Both these sources of professional socialization may be broadly termed reference groups. Each satisfies Eisenstadt's definition of a reference group as "a group with whose norms we identify ourselves."³⁸ In this case, a reference group would set and maintain standards for the individual's behavior. A professional reference group may be "internal" (within the employing organization) or "external" (e.g., professional voluntary associations).

Blau and Scott utilize reference groups as a variable in studying professional orientations and bureaucratic orientations among social workers. Their analysis follows empirical research dealing with similar orientations of other professional people in bureaucratic settings. The first of these earlier studies is Gouldner's research in a small private

³⁷In 1960 the majority (59 per cent) of social workers were women. U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, op. cit., p. 5.

³⁸S. N. Eisenstadt, "Studies in Reference Group Behavior," Human Relations, VII (May, 1954), 194.

liberal arts college. Gouldner utilized Merton's terms, "cosmopolitans" and "locals,"³⁹ to designate two types of professionals in a bureaucratic setting. Cosmopolitans were those "low on loyalty to the employing organization, high on commitment to specialized role skills, and likely to use an outer [or external] reference group orientation."⁴⁰ Locals, on the other hand, were those "high on loyalty to the employing organization, low on commitment to specialized role skills, and likely to use an inner [or internal] reference group orientation."⁴¹

In contrast to Gouldner's findings, a study of nurses by Bennis and others indicated that:

The cosmopolitans [those interested in nursing skills] did not refer to an external group, did maintain high in-group loyalty, and were motivated toward organizational commitment. The locals [those interested in administrative jobs], on the other hand, were interested in external groups (nursing associations), showed lower loyalty than the cosmopolitans to the work group, and were less interested in developing professional skills.⁴²

Blau and Scott explain these contradictory findings as follows:

³⁹The terms "cosmopolitan" and "local" were used by Merton to describe community leaders. Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure, 2nd ed. (Glencoe, Ill., 1957), pp. 387-420.

⁴⁰Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles--I," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (December, 1957), 290.

⁴¹Ibid.

⁴²W. G. Bennis and others, "Reference Groups and Loyalties in the Out-Patient Department," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (March, 1958), 496.

These differences between the conclusions of Gouldner and Bennis can be explained by suggesting that the crucial underlying factor is . . . the nature of the limits of professional opportunity. If there is little opportunity for advancement within the profession, regardless of the organization by which a professional is employed, a commitment to professional skills comes into conflict with aspirations for advancement. Such limits apply to nurses, whose major opportunities for advancement involve forsaking nursing practice and going into administration, or possibly into teaching. . . .

If, on the other hand, there is ample opportunity for advancement in a profession but this opportunity is much more restricted in some organizations than in others of the same type, commitment to the profession comes into conflict with loyalty to the organization and encourages a cosmopolitan orientation.⁴³

They then derive the following hypothesis:

We suggest, then, that a commitment to professional skills will be associated with low organizational loyalty only if professional opportunities are more limited in the organization under consideration than in others with which it competes for manpower. In other words, only if it is the structure of the organization rather than the structure of the profession that restricts opportunities for professional advancement do we expect professional commitment to be accompanied by a cosmopolitan orientation.⁴⁴

To explore this hypothesis, Blau and Scott report findings from Scott's study (cited above). They ascertained differentials in training and reference group orientation and related these variables to other professional characteristics and to organizational loyalty. Their findings suggested that (1) professionals (those with some graduate training and outside reference groups) were less loyal to the organization

⁴³Blau and Scott, op. cit., p. 70.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 71.

than were bureaucrats (those with no graduate training and internal reference groups) and (2) "professionals were in all cases most likely to exhibit professional characteristics, bureaucrats least likely, and mixed types tended to be intermediate."⁴⁵

In other words, their data indicated that an outside reference group orientation is associated with the socialization of professional norms. It also demonstrated that such an orientation was associated with low commitment to the social work agency. In contrast, the bureaucratically-oriented social worker typically uses the agency as her reference group and is in less agreement with professional norms. The more professionally-oriented (or "cosmopolitan") social workers, then, perceived some conflict between their commitment to social work professional practice and their loyalty to their social work agency. Blau and Scott explain the findings in terms of the hypothesis concerning professional opportunity.

Since the opportunity for doing professional casework was not as good [in the public welfare agency] as in private agencies, professional commitment motivated workers to hope for positions in private agencies, thus making them less loyal to their present employer.⁴⁶

Intra-agency socialization.--Blau and Scott do not directly consider the socialization of professional norms within

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 68.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 71.

the social work agency, although Scott's discussion of social work supervision does so implicitly. A question is raised about the manner in which the characteristics of the agencies affect the professionalization of the semi-professional worker. There is one piece of research which provides some background for dealing with this problem. Thomas studied the effects of organizational size upon several aspects of AFDC⁴⁷ workers' role conceptions, including role consensus, breadth of role conception, and ethical commitment.⁴⁸ He found that workers in the smaller agencies scored highest on all three variables. Thomas also reports positive associations between age and experience and these variables. In the analysis of his results, he suggests the possibility that the rural setting of the small agencies may account for the differences.⁴⁹ However, it is also plausible that the differences in authority structure, associated with agency size, may have influenced the social workers' role conceptions. Because the present study, unlike that of Thomas, is confined to an urban setting and includes agencies of different sizes, as his study did also, analysis of the results can be compared to Thomas' findings.

⁴⁷Aid to Families with Dependent Children. See Chapter II, p. 31.

⁴⁸Edwin J. Thomas, "Role Conceptions and Organizational Size," American Sociological Review, XXIV (February, 1959), 30-37.

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 37.

Hypotheses

This research is concerned with ninety-nine social welfare workers in three public welfare agencies in a Southwestern metropolitan area. The two largest of these agencies are actually two divisional offices of a larger bureaucracy similar to the County Agency studied by Scott.⁵⁰ One of these social work agencies administers Aid to Families with Dependent Children (hereafter referred to simply as "AFDC"), one of the categorical Public Assistance programs. The other is the Child Welfare division, which is slightly larger than the AFDC section of Public Assistance. Both AFDC and Child Welfare workers were included in Scott's study, as well as workers in the Old Age Assistance, Aid to the Needy Blind, and Aid to the Permanently and Totally Disabled programs. These latter three groups were not included in this study for reasons explained in the next chapter.

Although Blau and Scott combined AFDC and Child Welfare workers in most of their analysis of Scott's research, they do mention several differences between AFDC (or Public Assistance, in general) and Child Welfare.⁵¹ In some respects, the Child Welfare division exhibits more professional characteristics and less bureaucratic characteristics than does Public

⁵⁰In this instance the agencies are termed the State Department of Public Welfare, due to a somewhat different regional organization pattern.

⁵¹Blau and Scott, op. cit., p. 78.

Assistance. The primary differences between the AFDC and Child Welfare agencies utilized in this research are as follows:

- (1) In Child welfare, assignment of cases is determined on the basis of the nature of the case rather than on a strictly geographical basis, as in AFDC.
- (2) There is more emphasis on casework services in Child Welfare and contrasting emphasis on policies and rules in AFDC.
- (3) The level of professional training is higher for Child Welfare workers than for AFDC workers.

On the basis of such differences, the AFDC section is classified as the most bureaucratic of the three social work agencies under consideration.

The third agency to be examined is a small general assistance agency which is similar to the City Agency studied by Blau. This agency is relatively flexible with regard to formal rules and procedures, and its degree of hierarchical differentiation is low. It is considered to be the least bureaucratic of the three agencies, because its authority structure is the least developed.

The first variable to be employed in this research is the extent of agreement of social workers with professional values. The scale used to measure agreement with professional norms is described in Chapter II. Exposure to graduate social work training is not used to designate a professional

orientation because of the small number of trained workers employed in the three agencies under discussion. Because the professional orientation of professional-organization employees has been more extensively researched, the hypotheses related to this variable (and the "cosmopolitan" model) will be presented first.

It is hypothesized that those workers who most agree with professional norms will (I-A) suggest higher training requirements for caseworkers and for supervisors; (I-B) belong to more outside professional groups; (I-C) favor more professional supervision; (I-D) be less committed to their agency; and (I-E) view their agency less favorably.

When considering the second variable, the degree to which the employing agency exhibits bureaucratic characteristics, the formulation of hypotheses is not so simple. At the outset, it can be predicted that social workers in the most bureaucratic agency will (II-A) agree least with professional norms and (II-B) suggest lowest training requirements for caseworkers and for supervisors. However, when considering their view of their agency and its effectiveness, the two variables under discussion come into conflict. If the model of the bureaucratically-oriented "local" is used, the remaining hypotheses would be derived as follows. Social workers in the most bureaucratic agency will: (II-C) belong to fewer outside professional associations; (II-D) favor less

professional supervision; (II-E) be more committed to their agency; and (II-F) view their agency more favorably.

But these hypotheses rest on the validity of hypothesis II-A, that the more bureaucratic the agency, the less professional the workers. If, however, there is a significant amount of agreement with professional norms in the most bureaucratic agency, is it not possible that the professionally-oriented workers view their agency as more limiting because of its more bureaucratic nature? If this were the case, three of the six hypotheses would be reversed. Workers in the most bureaucratic agency would be expected to (II-C) belong to more outside professional groups, because of their dissatisfaction with the internal bureaucratic orientation; (II-E) be less committed to their agency; and (II-F) view their agency as less effective in pursuit of professional norms. Although these are certainly plausible deductions, the former set of hypotheses will be retained due to their closer conformity to the "cosmopolitan"- "local" model, which Blau and Scott concluded is applicable to social workers in similar agencies.

CHAPTER II

THE SETTING AND METHODS OF RESEARCH

The Three Social Work Agencies

The ninety-nine social workers (eighty-two caseworkers and seventeen supervisors) who are the subjects of this study are employed in three separate public welfare agencies. The first of these agencies is a small general assistance agency of thirty-nine employees (including the clerical staff) serving a metropolitan county in Texas. It is composed of the following professional positions: a director, six casework supervisors, and twenty-one caseworkers. This agency is charged with administering financial assistance to needy persons who are not eligible for the categorical Public Assistance programs described below.¹ The General Assistance Agency, as it is termed hereafter, is the one public agency in its geographical area which is able to meet emergency financial needs, largely because of its more flexible structure and certification procedures. Like Blau's "City Agency," it serves as "'a court of last appeal' for the city's [In this case, 'county's'] needy."² Because of the nature of its

¹There are a few cases in which clients are served by both this agency and the categorical assistance programs.

²Blau and Scott, op. cit., p. 255.

services, bureaucratic rules and regulations are more flexible in the General Assistance Agency than in the two larger agencies. A manual of rules including financial eligibility requirements is provided the professional employees, but latitude is allowed in their application. Salaries and educational requirements for caseworkers are comparable to those in the other two agencies.³

The second agency selected for this research is, more correctly, the AFDC⁴ section of the Public Assistance Division of the Texas State Department of Public Welfare. Only the AFDC workers in one regional office, serving primarily the same metropolitan county as does the General Assistance Agency, are utilized.⁵

³The range is approximately \$500 to \$600 per month, plus travel expenses, in all three. A bachelor's degree is required for workers and supervisors, and three of the six supervisors in the General Assistance Agency hold the MSW degree. No educational stipend program for graduate study is offered.

⁴Aid to Families with Dependent Children

⁵In addition to the AFDC program, other sections of the State Department of Public Welfare also administer Old Age Assistance, Aid to the Needy Blind, and Aid to the Permanently and Totally Disabled, or "adult" programs. There are two major reasons for omitting workers in the adult programs from this study. First, social casework services (non-financial) are not routinely required in the adult programs. In AFDC, however, casework services have been required in all cases since 1963 (in this particular state). Hence, the average caseload in the adult programs is four to six times that in AFDC. Second, because of the differences in the type of services provided, questionnaire items could have less easily been made comparable for administration to workers in all programs.

The professional staff of the AFDC Agency is composed of a regional director (with authority over other programs as well), an assistant regional director (especially for AFDC), seven AFDC supervisors and thirty-two AFDC workers. The regional Public Assistance Division, within which the AFDC section operates, employs approximately 175 persons. The administrative hierarchy is, of course, more extensive when account is taken of personnel in the state central office. There are five hierarchical levels between the Assistant Regional Director and the Commissioner appointed by the state governor. Also organized within the state office are several specialized professional departments (e.g., Medical Services and Training). It is from the state office that the regional agency receives communications concerning agency policy changes and other more specific administrative communications. All caseworkers are provided with two large loose-leaf manuals, the Manual of Services and the Forms Manual, which are constantly being revised. The AFDC Agency, as it is described here, is very similar to the County Agency studied by Scott.⁶

The training program for the State Department of Public Welfare includes a one-month agency-administered training course which is provided for all caseworkers upon entering the agency. The course includes some small amount of information concerning social casework methods in general (e.g.,

⁶Blau and Scott, op. cit., pp. 254-257.

interviewing techniques), but primarily provides details of the assistance programs which the employee will help to administer. Further in-service training programs are provided from time to time for caseworkers. Educational stipends for study in a graduate school of social work are offered for caseworkers (and supervisors) with the bachelor's degree.

The third agency is, more correctly, the Child Welfare Division of the Texas State Department of Public Welfare. This agency serves the same metropolitan county as do the other two agencies. It is spatially separate from the AFDC section, although it is subsumed in the same state-wide bureaucratic hierarchy. The total number of employees is approximately seventy-five, including seven supervisors and thirty-five caseworkers.

The Child Welfare program differs in several respects from the AFDC and other Public Assistance programs of the State Department of Public Welfare. (1) Public child welfare services are organized in a somewhat different fashion at both the national and the county or local levels. At the national level, the Children's Bureau is in charge of administering funds to certain child welfare programs similar to this one.⁷

⁷For a more complete description of the Children's Bureau and child welfare programs, see U. S. Children's Bureau, Facts about Children's Bureau Programs (Washington, 1966) and U. S. Children's Bureau, Child Welfare Statistics--1965 (Washington, 1966).

The Children's Bureau is administratively separate from the Bureau of Public Assistance, which administers the categorical assistance programs.⁸ Within the states, child welfare services may or may not be found in conjunction with Public Assistance programs. In some areas, child welfare services are provided by county juvenile departments. In rural areas such services are often provided directly by Public Assistance caseworkers. In the metropolitan county which provides the setting for this research, the Child Welfare Division of the State Department of Public Welfare was organized in 1964, prior to which most of its functions were carried out by the County Juvenile Department.

(2) The function of the Child Welfare Division differs from that of Public Assistance. Child Welfare caseworkers do not administer financial aid, but perform such services as protective services for dependent and neglected children, licensing of foster homes, and the adoptive placement of children. Cases are divided among the workers according to the type of services involved, whereas in AFDC assignment of cases is made on a geographical basis. Blau and Scott refer to this difference between Child Welfare and Public Assistance and

⁸At one time, the Children's Bureau was an independent federal agency. It fought absorption into the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in anticipation of loss of function and autonomy. See Godfrey E. Drexel, Jr., "The Transfer of the Children's Bureau," Public Administration and Policy Development, edited by Harold Stein (New York, 1952), pp. 17-29.

conclude that:

. . . in PAD [Public Assistance] the professional principle of the importance of a stable and continuing relation between worker and client [exemplified by Child Welfare] was sacrificed for the distinctly bureaucratic principle of the interchangeability of one worker for another.⁹

The difference in the provision of social casework services in the two agencies also is seen in their average caseloads: fifty-four to sixty families in AFDC and twenty-five to thirty-two families in Child Welfare.

(3) Largely because Child Welfare workers do not investigate eligibility for financial assistance, they are not required to adhere to the number of formal rules and policies which apply to Public Assistance workers. A brief perusal of the two manuals mentioned above revealed that the number of pages devoted to AFDC rules and forms is approximately one and one-half to two times the number devoted to Child Welfare rules and forms. This relative lack of emphasis on formal policy was evidenced also in a brief interview with the Child Welfare Director, who stressed that no precise formulas for their services could be specified--that their aim is to "individualize each family."

(4) Although the salary range is the same for AFDC and Child Welfare workers, there are two other areas of personnel practices which distinguish the two agencies. (a) Until the

⁹Blau and Scott, op. cit., p. 78.

time of this writing, the training prerequisite for AFDC workers was sixty semester hours of college credit. After the study was completed, the State Department of Public Welfare complied with a Department of Health, Education, and Welfare requirement specifying a bachelor's degree as the minimum educational requirement for hiring Public Assistance caseworkers. The Child Welfare Division, however, required the holding of a college degree from its organization in 1964. (Training programs for caseworkers after being hired are similar in both agencies.) (b) Both Public Assistance and Child Welfare caseworkers may be classified as Workers I, II, or III. The latter job classifications require additional increments of training and experience. To date, the Child Welfare Division has utilized these classifications; whereas AFDC has not. In light of Blau and Scott's discussion of professional opportunity and advancement, it appears that Child Welfare provides a more conducive system for such advancement than does AFDC.

In summary of the bureaucratic characteristics of the three agencies, it is significant that (1) the General Assistance Agency exhibits the smallest degree of hierarchical differentiation and specialization and is the smallest, while the AFDC Agency and the Child Welfare Agency exhibit the most and are larger; and (2) the AFDC Agency exhibits the highest degree of formal rules and policy, while the General Assistance Agency exhibits the least. Consequently, for purposes

of this research, the General Assistance Agency is defined as least bureaucratic, the AFDC Agency as most bureaucratic, and the Child Welfare Agency as intermediate.

The professional characteristics of the workers in these three agencies are not presented as typical or representative of all social work agencies in the United States, nor of all public welfare agencies. Particularly in the area of educational background the social workers in this study differ from other workers in other agencies and from agency to agency. Comparative data is presented in Table I.

The level of training of social workers in the General Assistance Agency is comparable to that of all workers employed by state and local governments. The training of workers in the Child Welfare Agency is also comparable to that of all public child welfare workers. However, the level of training in the AFDC Agency is well below that of all Public Assistance workers, which exhibit the least professional training of all the major categories listed. It is possible that the mean educational level of these categories has risen since 1960, and that the level of training in all agencies is below the national average. However, the important point is the difference between agencies.

These figures give some support for the second major hypothesis, which suggests that the most bureaucratic agency will have the smallest number of professional workers. The AFDC Agency, the most bureaucratic, also has the smallest

TABLE I--Continued

Level of Professional Training	
% Having Some Study in Graduate School of Social Work	% with Two Years Graduate Social Work Training
33	20
30	14
43	34
42	21
55	42
17	4
26	16
5	3
37	19

percentage of workers with some graduate training in social work. However, the General Assistance Agency, the least bureaucratic, has a somewhat smaller proportion of professionally trained workers than does the Child Welfare Agency.

The Research Instrument

Questionnaire Administration

A questionnaire of fifty-one items was constructed for administration to the workers of the three agencies. Procedures were somewhat variant in the General Assistance Agency as compared to the other study populations. In a staff meeting, the purpose of the study was explained to all workers and their permission was obtained. The workers were requested not to place their names on the questionnaires. They then completed the questionnaires either alone in their office or at a table in the meeting room. All but two members of the professional staff of the agency were in attendance at the meeting and completed the questionnaire.

The administration procedure was slightly different in the AFDC and Child Welfare Agencies. First, the purpose of the research was explained to the supervisors in staff meetings, where they completed the questionnaire. Then, a brief statement of the research and a request for assistance was given to each supervisor to circulate among her workers.¹⁰

¹⁰See Appendix A, p. 105.

On this sheet, workers specified the time and date when they could complete a questionnaire. Three days were spent at each agency in order to obtain responses from as many workers as possible. With the exception of three workers not available on those days, all workers cooperated. The final number of subjects in the agencies was: nineteen in the General Assistance Agency, thirty-eight in AFDC, and forty-two in Child Welfare. Workers completed the questionnaires in a room set aside for that purpose and occupied by the researcher.

Content of the Questionnaire

Background information obtained from the subjects included age, sex, official position, length of employment with the agency, previous social work experience, educational background, and membership in professional organizations. The last item is the only measure of the external reference group orientation which is utilized in this research. The remainder of the questionnaire was devoted to obtaining responses in the remaining five areas mentioned above: social work norms, training requirements, the caseworker-supervisor relationship, commitment to the agency, and the effectiveness of agency services and policies.¹¹

Because conformity to professional norms is a major variable of the study, its conceptualization for purposes of this

¹¹The instrument is reproduced in full in Appendix C, pp. 110-135.

research bears close attention. The first consideration in developing several items reflecting social work norms and values is that the items be comparable for workers in all three agencies. Therefore, questions concerning financial services, such as Scott utilized in his study,¹² are not included. Thomas' test of ethical commitment in social work is not used because it deals with specific ethical norms.¹³ It is a broader conception of the value of social work services and techniques which is conceptualized in this study as a measure of agreement with professional norms.

The ten items finally selected are Likert-type questions giving five alternative responses, including "no opinion."

The items are as follows:

- (26) "Everyone could benefit from the services of a social worker."
- (27) "A large number of people who are in need of social work services are not receiving them."
- (28) "Social work services should be expanded (on either a public, private, or fee-for-service basis) to a larger proportion of the U. S. population."
- (29) "A large number of people who are not in need of social work services are now receiving them."
- (30) "All Child Welfare or AFDC or County Welfare clients are in need of social work services."

¹²Elau and Scott, op. cit., pp. 71-73.

¹³For example: "Illegitimacy demands focus on helping individual adjust versus changing individual" and "Client making curtains in messy house, compliment versus mention housecleaning." Thomas, op. cit., p. 33.

- (31) "In your opinion, do social work methods serve to improve clients' (adults and children) personal psychological functioning?"
- (32) "In your opinion, do social work methods serve to improve family relationships in clients' families?"
- (33) "In your opinion, do social work methods serve to prevent psychological 'breakdown' of clients (adults and children)?"
- (34) "In your opinion, do social work methods serve to prevent further disorganization in clients' families?"
- (35) "In your opinion, do social work services serve to help clients (adults) deal with their problems themselves?"

Items concerning training requirements deal with the ideal and practical necessity of differing educational qualifications for both caseworkers and supervisors.¹⁴

Items constructed to measure conceptions of the supervisor's function are stated in terms of the social work supervisor's proper role. The eight questions are conceived as representing various role functions of the supervisor which are related to either bureaucratic or professional modes of conduct.¹⁵ These items are designed to depict specific role behavior of supervisors, rather than the traits of supervisors.¹⁶

¹⁴See items 20-25 in Appendix C, pp. 119-122.

¹⁵See items 36-43 in Appendix C, pp. 127-131.

¹⁶Scott asked respondents in his study to choose between paired alternative "qualities" of supervisors; e.g., trained versus experienced and rigid versus flexible regarding procedure. Scott, op. cit., p. 72.

Commitment to the agency is handled in a fashion similar to Scott's treatment. Subjects are asked, if they continue working, do they plan to remain in their agency. Other questions are included to measure commitment to AFDC and Child Welfare, to public versus private agencies, and to social work in general.¹⁷

Seven items are designed to measure the subjects' conceptions of the effectiveness of their agency's services. These items are generally comparable to the items concerning social work norms so that attitudes toward social work methods and toward specific agency policies and practices in pursuit of professional norms can be clearly compared.¹⁸

Unidimensionality of the Variables

Because the conceptualization of the three variables--conformity to social work norms, conceptions of the supervisor's role, and attitudes toward the effectiveness of the agency--is not closely in accord with previous research, it is likely that numerous questions could be raised as to the appropriateness of the items utilized. Therefore, in order to clarify these variables, their unidimensionality is empirically measured by the application of the Guttman scaling technique. All of the items related to the three variables

¹⁷See items 11-19 in Appendix C, pp. 115-119.

¹⁸See items 44-50 in Appendix C, pp. 131-134.

are analyzed to determine whether or not they form a scale meeting certain specified qualifications.¹⁹ If the items do form an acceptable scale, evidence is provided that the scale items represent a single underlying dimension. Such results do not verify, however, that the dimension measured actually represents the variable as conceived and labeled.²⁰ In other words, if the ten items related to social work norms are found to form an acceptable scale, this is not in itself evidence that the unidimensional variable being measured is correctly termed "agreement with social work norms." Such a finding, however, would give evidence that the items are not significantly affected by outside variables.

The Guttman scaling technique also serves to measure the reliability of the measuring instrument. Reliability of the items as a representation of the variable is, of course, at

¹⁹For a discussion of these criteria, see Edward A. Suchman, "The Scalogram Board Technique for Scale Analysis," Measurement and Prediction, Vol. IV of Studies in Social Psychology in World War II, edited by Samuel A. Stouffer and others (Princeton, 1950), pp. 117-119.

The Guttman scaling technique statistically determines the reproducibility of responses to individual items from the scale score. In other words, a high coefficient of reproducibility (the primary criterion of scalability) indicates the precision with which each individual's responses to each item can be predicted from the scale score (the scale score representing ranks of individuals). Guttman suggests a coefficient of reproducibility of .90 to indicate a valid scale. Louis Guttman, "The Basis for Scalogram Analysis," Measurement and Prediction, p. 64.

²⁰"Scale analysis as such gives no judgment on content; it presumes that the universe of content is already defined and merely tests whether or not the area is representable by a single variable." Ibid., p. 85.

the heart of the scalogram model. However, the reliability of respondents is also measured by this technique.²¹

Statistical Measures of Association

The chi square statistical test is applied to the data in order to indicate the degree of relationship among the variables involved in the research.²² One-tailed tests of significance are used in the analysis of the first major hypothesis, as the direction of the difference is predicted in these cases. Two-tailed tests are used in the analysis of differences in responses by agency, because the rank-ordering is crude in this case.

All of the assumptions upon which the use of chi square is based are not met by the data, however. As discussed above, the ninety-nine social workers under study are not a random sample of a larger population. Therefore, it is not accurate to conclude from a significant chi square result

²¹Guttman discusses reliability in these terms: "From general considerations of scale theory, it should be clear that if a set of items has high reproducibility, then the items must necessarily have high test-retest reliability. If there were a substantial unreliability factor operating in the responses to the items, this would create appreciable scale error; there would be more than a single factor present. Hence, if scalogram analysis shows that essentially only a single factor is operating in the responses, this must mean that there cannot be many additional factors, including unreliability." Louis Guttman, "Problems of Reliability," Measurement and Prediction, p. 305.

²²For an explication of chi square analysis, see Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York, 1956), pp. 104-110 and 175-179.

that social workers in all similar agencies will exhibit differences such as those found among these three. However, the chi square statistical test does provide a way in which to demonstrate the degree of significance of differences in the data associated with the variables under consideration. Thus, the test should distinguish which relationships appear most valid.²³

²³Bernard S. Phillips, Social Research: Strategy and Tactics (New York, 1966), p. 269.

CHAPTER III

FINDINGS

Scaling of the Variables

The questionnaire which was administered to ninety-nine subjects from the three social work agencies included twenty-five items which were developed to measure three variables, "agreement with professional norms," "conceptions of the supervisor's role," and "conceptions of agency effectiveness." These variables were tested for unidimensionality by the Guttman scaling technique, and two of them yielded acceptable scales. The dimensions that were conceptualized as agreement with professional norms and conceptions of agency effectiveness appear to be measured by items primarily representing one scalar variable. The questionnaire items which describe supervisory activities do not scale, however; and thus multidimensional factors are apparently operating in these responses.

The ten items which were designed to represent professional norms deal with the value and effectiveness of social work services. Two typical items are: "A large number of people who are in need of social work services are not receiving them." and "In your opinion, do social work methods serve to improve family relationships in clients' families?". Five Likert-type response categories, including "no opinion,"

follow each statement or question.¹ One item (questionnaire item 33) was eliminated from the scale because its reproducibility was spuriously high.² The coefficient of reproducibility for the remaining nine items is .90 with all items dichotomized in such a way as to improve scalability.³ The marginal frequencies for these items are: .86, .74, .63, .48, .36, .17, .15, .15, and .13. It will be noted that the four latter marginals are very similar. These professional norm items (questionnaire items 31, 32, 34 and 35) all deal with the effectiveness of social work methods in improving family relationships and individual functioning. Responses for these items were essentially alike for each respondent and the cutting points in the scalogram are similar.⁴

For comparative purposes, the subjects were separated into ranked groups representing high, medium, and low agreement with professional norms. Individual scores were derived

¹For a complete listing of the items, see Appendix C, pp. 122-127.

²The number of errors exceeded the number of responses in the smallest category; hence, responses of the subjects could be predicted as well from the marginal frequencies as from the scale score. See Louis Guttman, "Problems of Reliability," p. 288.

³With one item trichotomized, the coefficient of reproducibility is .89. The more answer categories which can be retained without combination, the more support is given the hypothesis of scalability. Ibid., pp. 293-295.

⁴The graphic presentation of this scale in the Appendix illustrates this clustering of the four cutting points. See Figure 1, Appendix B, p. 107.

from the scale results on the basis of the total number of "positive" responses (rather than by "scale types").⁵ Those subjects with five to nine positive responses were placed in the "high" group, those with three to four in the "medium" group, and those with zero to two in the "low" group.⁶ The number of respondents in each of the three groups is thirty-five, thirty-one, and thirty-three, respectively.

The rankings on the scale measuring agreement with professional norms correspond to two other indicators of professionalization which are included in the questionnaire, but are not explicitly mentioned in the hypotheses. First, two-thirds of the supervisors and caseworkers with some graduate social work training are found in the high agreement group, and all but one of the remainder rank in the medium group.⁷ Second, when asked if they wished to remain in social work for the remainder of their career, more than 90 per cent of those in the high agreement group and less than half of those in the low classification responded "yes, definitely."⁸ To

⁵"Positive" responses are those which fall into the category (or categories) most favorable toward the variable; in this instance, most favorable toward social work services.

⁶The relatively large number of positive responses for the high-scoring group reflects the inclusion of all four of the items with similar cutting points discussed above.

⁷See Table P-8, Appendix D, p. 140.

⁸See Table P-13, Appendix D, p. 142.

the extent that professional training and career commitment are indicators of professional status, these results can be interpreted as some evidence that the scale utilized does measure a professional commitment variable.

The second variable tested for unidimensionality, conceptions of the supervisor's role, does not meet the requirements of an acceptable scale. Responses to the eight items constructed to depict the supervisor's role do not conform to the scale pattern.⁹ Because the hypothesis of scalability is rejected, the rank-ordering of individuals in the scale is not reliable. In fact, if no single dimension has been isolated, a rank-ordering has questionable value. Consequently, analysis of the data from the eight items describing aspects of the supervisor's role is conducted on an item-by-item basis.¹⁰

For the variable conceptualized as conceptions of agency effectiveness, seven items were constructed. These items

⁹Three items (questionnaire items 37, 42, and 43) are not scalable. The coefficient of reproducibility for the remaining five items is .89. However, the pattern of error is non-random, indicating the operation of additional variables. Because the scale pattern (See the graphic presentation of the scale in Figure 2, Appendix B, p. 108.) exhibits a significant number of non-scale types, not even a quasi-scale is formed. For a discussion of non-random error and quasi-scales, see Edward A. Suchman, "The Utility of Scalogram Analysis," Measurement and Prediction, p. 160.

¹⁰It is possible that the items would be scalable for respondents in each agency. However, the number of respondents in the individual agencies is too small to test such a hypothesis.

attempted to elicit views of the employing agency and its policies as being either useful or prohibitive to the pursuit of professional norms.¹¹ The items were found to form an acceptable scale, although two of them were not utilized.¹² For the remaining five items, the coefficient of reproducibility is .92. The marginal frequencies are as follows: .14, .32, .40, .73, and .89. While a larger number of items would have been desirable to firmly establish the scalability of the dimension conceptualized, for purposes of this research the five scalable items are used to divide the population into three ranked groups. As for the first scale, individuals are separated into three groups according to their total number of positive responses.¹³ The "high" group (numbering forty-one) is composed of those with three to five positive responses, the "medium" group (numbering thirty-three) of those with two positive responses, and the "low" group (numbering twenty-six) of those with zero to one positive response.

Hypothesis I: Agreement with Professional Norms

The first major hypothesis predicts the direction of relationship of five variables with respect to the scores on

¹¹For a listing and discussion of the items, see p. 63.

¹²Item 45 does not conform to the scale pattern and the reproducibility of item 46 is spuriously high.

¹³In this instance, positive responses are those falling in the category (or categories) most favorable to the agency.

the scale measuring agreement with professional norms. The first prediction (hypothesis I-A¹⁴) suggests that workers most in agreement with professional norms (those in the high agreement scale rank) will favor the highest training requirements. Six questionnaire items (questionnaire items 20-25) ask respondents for their opinions on training for both workers and supervisors. One item (questionnaire item 23) exhibits the greatest differences in responses for the three groups. Asked "How essential is graduate social work training to the adequate performance of the social work supervisor's job," over two-thirds of those in the high agreement with professional norms rank responded "absolutely essential," as compared with approximately 40 per cent of those in the low agreement group.¹⁵ (See Table II.) Another item (questionnaire item 25) asks workers to suggest a practical minimum training requirement for supervisors. The percentages suggesting the Master of Social Work degree are similar to those answering "absolutely essential" when asked to evaluate graduate training as a prerequisite to social work supervision.¹⁶ Results for the two items indicate that those workers placing

¹⁴Hypotheses I-A through I-E are stated in Chapter I, p. 28.

¹⁵Scott utilized a similar item and reported comparable results. Bleu and Scott, op. cit., p. 68.

¹⁶The percentages in the high, medium, and low agreement groups are 66, 65, and 48, respectively. See Table P-25, Appendix D, p. 148

TABLE II
 VALUE OF GRADUATE SOCIAL WORK TRAINING FOR
 SUPERVISORS BY LEVEL OF AGREEMENT
 WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS

Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale	Value of Graduate Training	
	% Responding "Absolutely Essential"	% Responding Other*
High (<u>n</u> =35)	69	31
Medium (<u>n</u> =31)	61	39
Low (<u>n</u> =33)	42	58**

*Categories are combined when their frequencies are so small that more than 20 per cent of the cells would have an expected frequency in chi square analysis of less than 5. Wherever possible, three or more categories are retained. See the discussion of chi square analysis in Chapter II, pp. 46-47. "No opinion" responses in this and the following tables (except as otherwise noted) are included with the negative response categories. The rationale for this procedure is twofold: (a) in most cases, the majority of the responses are positive and (b) the Guttman scaling procedure used for items 26-50 suggested this particular combination for all questionnaire items.

**Chi sq.=5.01, $p < .05$. In this and all following tables relating to hypothesis I, p is reported for one-tailed tests of significance, because the direction of differences is predicted in all cases.

the highest value on social work services and skills also place the highest value on professional training for supervisors. The evidence, thus, supports the hypothesis.

It was also predicted that those workers most in agreement with professional norms will most often be members of professional associations. Data collected for both past and present membership in such organizations supports this

hypothesis. Nearly 60 per cent of the respondents whose agreement with professional norms was low as measured by the scale had never belonged to any professional associations, and nearly three-fourths of these workers did not belong to any at the time of the study. In contrast, approximately 30 per cent of the workers in the high-scoring group had never had such affiliations, and slightly over 40 per cent had none at the time of the study. (See Table III.) The clearer relationship of

TABLE III

PAST AND PRESENT MEMBERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS BY LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS

Membership in Professional Associations	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	High (n=35)	Medium (n=31)	Low (n=33)
Past and Present			
% in two or more	43	10	18
% in one	26	51	24
% in none	31	39	58*
Present Alone			
% in two or more	29	10	9
% in one	29	35	18
% in none	42	55	73**

*Chi sq.=15.63, $p < .005$ (one-tailed test).

**Chi sq.=9.65, $p < .025$ (one-tailed test).

agreement with professional norms with past as well as present membership as an indicator of professional group involvement is logically consistent with the reasoning behind the

hypothesis. If membership in professional groups serves a socialization function, past as well as present affiliations should have importance.

It was hypothesized (hypothesis I-C¹⁷) that workers scoring highest on the agreement with professional norms scale would favor strong professional supervision. The eight items depicting the supervisory role activities which were constructed as measures of the latter variable are as follows:

- (36) "Do you think a supervisor should help determine agency policy?"
- (37) "Do you think that information concerning changes in agency policy should always be provided to caseworkers by their supervisors?"
- (38) "Do you think a supervisor needs to conduct regular training sessions with his or her caseworkers?"
- (39) "Do you think there is a need for a supervisor to keep records of each worker's performance?"
- (40) "Do you think a supervisor needs to advise workers in providing casework services to clients?"
- (41) "Do you think a supervisor needs to aid the caseworker in making specific decisions in individual cases?"
- (42) "Do you think a supervisor should review a specified number of each caseworker's cases every month?"
- (43) "Do you think a supervisor should do field work?"

For all items (except questionnaire item 37) those subjects scoring highest on agreement with professional norms favor more supervisory activity in the role areas. (Table IV

¹⁷See Chapter I, p. 28.

TABLE IV

TYPE OF SUPERVISORY ACTIVITY APPROVED BY LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS

Type of Supervisory Activity Approved	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale			
	High (n=35)	Medium (n=31)	Low (n=33)	Chi Sq.*
Policy-Making Involvement % responding "yes, often" % responding other	77 23	65 35	45 55	S
Relaying Information to Workers % responding "yes, often" % responding other	77 23	81 19	82 18	NS
Training of Workers % responding "yes, often" % responding other	63 37	58 42	30 70	S
Keeping Records about Workers % responding "yes, detailed records" % responding other	54 46	52 48	39 61	NS
Advising Workers % responding "yes, often" % responding other	46 54	52 48	24 76	S
Case Decisions of Workers % responding "yes, often" % responding other	26 74	19 81	12 88	NS**
Reviewing Cases of Workers % responding "yes, often" and "yes, occasionally" % responding other	94 6	90 10	79 21	NS
Field Work Activity % responding "yes, often" and "yes, occasionally" % responding other	46 54	45 55	39 61	NS

*"S" indicates a chi square value which is significant at the .05 level; "NS" one not significant (one-tailed tests).

**Chi square is computed for a 3 x 3 table. See Table P-41, Appendix D, p. 152.

gives a summary of the responses for the eight items as they are related to the three ranks on the scale measuring agreement with professional norms.) The conceptions of proper supervisory behavior suggest a rather complex picture of the accommodation of bureaucratic and professional authority. Responses to the items which deal with policy-determination, training, and advising workers in the provision of casework services exhibit the largest differences among the three ranked groups. (This is shown by the significant chi square values.) For example, nearly two-thirds of the respondents scoring in the high agreement with professional norms group, as opposed to less than one-third of the low-scoring group, reply that supervisors should "often" conduct regular training sessions with caseworkers. (See Table V.) Training, as

TABLE V

APPROVAL OF SUPERVISORY TRAINING ROLE BY LEVEL
OF AGREEMENT WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS

Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale	Approval of Supervisory Training Role	
	% Responding "Yes, Often"	% Responding Other
High (<u>n</u> =35)	63	37
Medium (<u>n</u> =31)	58	42
Low (<u>n</u> =33)	30	70*

*Chi sq.=8.23, $p < .01$ (one-tailed test).

well as policy-determination and advising caseworkers in the provision of client services, does not involve the direct supervision of the workers' routine tasks. These supervisory functions, then, may be termed the more professional aspects of the supervisor's role. It is in these three more professional supervisory role areas that workers placing highest value on professional services and techniques most significantly favor more supervisory performance.

There are similar differences among the three groups in responses to other supervisory role items (questionnaire items 39, 41, 42, and 43). These items (with the exception of questionnaire item 43) have to do with the direct supervision of the caseworker's tasks, and are therefore less professional aspects of the supervisor's role. However, the differences among the three groups are not large. Nonetheless, it is clear that the reverse of the hypothesis is not true for the less professional role activities. More professional workers (as measured by the norm agreement scale) evidently do not "resent" routine bureaucratic (direct) supervision of tasks. But most importantly, significant levels of association between agreement with professional norms and supervisory role concepts seem limited to the more professional supervisory activities.

The fourth hypothesis concerning acceptance of professional norms also deals with the accommodation (more correctly, the predicted lack of accommodation) of the bureaucratic and

the professional models. It was suggested that the workers agreeing most with professional norms would be least committed to their agency. This proposition, closely related to the "cosmopolitan"- "local" model, is based on the supposition that an orientation toward the employing agency conflicts with an orientation to the profession at large. According to Blau and Scott, this is particularly to be expected if the agency limits professional opportunity and advancement.

Two measures of commitment to the agency (both similar to Scott's indicator) are included in this analysis. The first of these (questionnaire item 11) asks the subjects, if they continue working, would they plan to remain in their agency for the rest of their career. The highest proportion responding "yes, definitely" is found in the group with high-est agreement with professional norms. Under one-fourth of

TABLE VI

PLANS TO REMAIN WITH AGENCY BY LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS

Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale	Expect to Remain in Agency		
	% Responding "Yes, Definitely"	% Responding "Yes, Probably"	% Responding Other
High (<u>n</u> =35)	34	43	23
Medium (<u>n</u> =31)	7	45	48
Low (<u>n</u> =33)	12	36	52*

*Chi sq.=12.50, $p < .01$ (one-tailed test).

these workers responded "no" or "no opinion," whereas over half of those in the low agreement classification responded in the negative categories. (See Table VI.) The differences appear significant and, hence, call for a rejection of the hypothesis. There seems to be a positive rather than a negative association between desire to remain with the agency and the scale measuring agreement with professional norms.

The second measure of commitment to the agency (questionnaire item 17) asks respondents whether they would prefer working in a private agency rather than in a public agency. A high score on the item (a positive response) is designated by the response "no, definitely not." In other words, if the

TABLE VII
PREFERENCE FOR PRIVATE AGENCY BY LEVEL OF
AGREEMENT WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS

Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale	Preference for Private Agency			
	% Responding "Definitely Not"	% Responding "Probably Not"	% Responding "Yes"	% Giving "No Opinion"*
High (<u>n</u> =35)	29	31	20	20
Medium (<u>n</u> =31)	13	52	19	16
Low (<u>n</u> =33)	6	52	18	24**

*The large number of "no opinion" responses indicated the separate treatment of this category for this item.

**Chi sq.=8.24 (NS) (one-tailed test). "NS" indicates that the chi square value is not significant at the .05 level.

subject prefers her own type of agency (public) to private social work employment, she is considered to be committed to her own agency.¹⁸ Though not large, the greatest differences by level of agreement with professional norms are found in the proportions answering that they would definitely not prefer to work in a private agency. Nearly 30 per cent of the workers scoring in the highest rank on the professional norms scale responded in this way, as compared with only 6 per cent in the low scale position. (See Table VII.) This measure, too, suggests the positive relationship of agency commitment and agreement with professional norms, although the relationship is not evidenced as strongly as it is by the question about remaining in the agency.

These findings are closely paralleled by the results concerning the last hypothesis dealing with agreement with professional norms (hypothesis I-E¹⁹), which predicted that workers agreeing most with professional norms would view their agency and its policies as less effective (or more limiting) in the provision of casework services. The latter variable is measured by the second scale constructed from the following questionnaire items:

(44) "Do you think that your agency's policies serve to

¹⁸Scott asked his subjects if they would leave their job for a job in a "fairly large private family-service agency." Blau and Scott, op. cit., p. 68.

¹⁹See Chapter I, p. 28.

- disrupt family relationships in clients' families?"
- (46) "Do you think that your agency's policies serve to improve the psychological functioning of clients?"
- (48) "Do you think that your agency's policies serve to prevent family disorganization?"
- (49) "Do you think that your agency's services are too limited to meet clients' needs?"
- (50) "In general, how well do you think the State Department of Public Welfare [or County Welfare] is run?"

These items call for an evaluation of the agency's success in pursuing professional norms and closely parallel the professional norm items. When the subjects were separated into high, medium, and low ranks on both scales and the groupings were cross-classified; it was found that the high norm agreement group tends to view their agency as more rather than less effective in providing social work services. (See Table VIII.) Over 40 per cent in the high agreement with professional

TABLE VIII

CONCEPTIONS OF AGENCY EFFECTIVENESS BY LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS

Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale	Rank on Conceptions of Agency Effectiveness Scale		
	% in High Rank	% in Medium Rank	% in Low Rank
High (n=35)	44	27	29
Medium (n=31)	29	39	32
Low (n=33)	27	31	42*

*Chi sq.=3.37 (NS) (one-tailed test).

norms group, contrasted with over 25 per cent in the low rank, scored in the high agency effectiveness classification. The relationship, though small, is obviously not that predicted. This result is consistent with the findings concerning agency commitment discussed immediately above. Workers placing the highest value on social work services tend also to place the highest value on their agency's provision of those services, and they are most likely to plan to remain with their agency.

In summarizing the evidence centering around the first major group of hypotheses, the findings suggest that those workers most in agreement with professional norms tend: to favor higher levels of training for supervisors, to belong to more professional associations, to favor professional modes of supervision, to be more committed to their agency, and (to a somewhat lesser degree) to view their agency as more effective in its pursuit of professional norms.

Hypothesis II: Comparison of the Three Social Work Agencies

Differences in the responses of workers in the three agencies in relationship to the same variables discussed in the first hypothesis were predicted in the second major hypothesis. The General Assistance Agency was described as the smallest and the least bureaucratic of the three. The AFDC Agency was described as the most bureaucratic of the agencies because of its size and more formalized system of rules and policies. The Child Welfare Agency, while hierarchically

similar to AFDC, places less emphasis on routinized procedures and has the highest proportion of workers with some graduate training.²⁰ Therefore, Child Welfare is considered to be intermediate in bureaucratic characteristics.

These differences suggested the hypotheses that workers in the most bureaucratic agency (AFDC) would agree least with professional norms, favor the lowest training requirements, belong to the least number of professional associations, favor less professional supervision, be most committed to their agency, and have the most favorable opinion of their agency's effectiveness. These predictions would, of course, be reversed for the least bureaucratic agency (the General Assistance Agency).

The data support the first of these hypotheses (hypothesis II-A²¹); the greatest conformity to professional norms is found in the General Assistance Agency. Over half of the General Assistance workers demonstrated high professional norm agreement in contrast to about one-third of the AFDC workers in their bureaucratic setting. The hypothesis was not supported by the proportion of Child Welfare workers (the intermediate setting) who ranked high on the norm scale. This proportion was actually somewhat lower for Child Welfare

²⁰Refer to Table I, pp. 38-39.

²¹Hypotheses II-A through II-F are stated in Chapter I, pp. 28-29.

workers than for AFDC workers. Yet the percentages in the low agreement group are consistently in the direction predicted. (See Table IX.) The results are hardly conclusive

TABLE IX
AGREEMENT WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS BY AGENCY

Agency	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank	% in Medium Rank	% in Low Rank
AFDC (n=38) (most bureaucratic)	34	26	40
CW (n=42) (intermediate)	29	38	33
GA* (n=19) (least bureaucratic)	53	26	21**

*"CW"--Child Welfare; "GA"--General Assistance

**Chi sq.=4.53 (NS). Two-tailed tests of significance are used for all relationships predicted in hypothesis II.

when account is also taken of the small amount of difference from which a systematic distinction could be inferred. (The chi square value did not suggest significant differences.)

In contrast to the pattern of response above, the findings relating to training qualifications are somewhat surprising. Whereas the Child Welfare workers exhibited the smallest percentage of responses in the high norm agreement classification, these same workers (representing the hypothesized intermediate group) most often suggested the highest training

qualifications for both workers and supervisors. This result is not completely in accord with the prediction that the highest training requirements would be suggested by workers in the least bureaucratic agency (the General Assistance Agency). However, AFDC workers do consistently suggest the lowest training requirements, in accordance with the hypothesis, as evidenced by the findings for two items on graduate training for supervisors (questionnaire items 23 and 25). Approximately one-fourth of the AFDC respondents replied that professional training is "absolutely essential" to the adequate performance of a supervisor; whereas over 80 per cent of the Child Welfare workers selected this alternative. (See Table X.)

TABLE X
VALUE OF GRADUATE TRAINING FOR
SUPERVISORS BY AGENCY

Agency	Value of Graduate Training	
	% Responding "Absolutely Essential"	% Responding Other
AFDC ($n=38$) (most bureaucratic)	26	74
CW ($n=42$) (intermediate)	83	17
GA ($n=19$) (least bureaucratic)	63	37*

*Chi sq.=26.85, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test).

Differences among the agencies in responses to the question asking workers to suggest a practical minimum training requirement (questionnaire item 25) are very similar but of slightly greater magnitude. Again, Child Welfare workers most often suggested the Master of Social Work degree, and AFDC workers did so least often.²² Child Welfare workers, then, least often are in high agreement with professional norms but most often suggest the highest training requirements.

Results for the hypothesis concerning membership in professional associations add another facet to the description of these agencies. As in all the hypotheses relative to differences among agencies, it was predicted that the Child Welfare Agency would occupy the intermediate position in comparison with this variable. However, Child Welfare respondents were least often members of outside professional groups, although differences between them and AFDC workers were small. Nearly half of both AFDC and Child Welfare workers had never been members of such associations and about 60 per cent were not members at the time of the study. As predicted, the General Assistance Agency had the highest percentage of workers who were past and/or present members of two or more professional associations, nearly 40 per cent of the Child Welfare

²²The comparable percentages in the three agencies are 21 per cent, 90 per cent, and 68 per cent. See Table Q-25 in Appendix C, p. 122. Differences for the other items concerning training (questionnaire items 20, 21, 22 and 24) are also similar.

workers as compared with nearly 30 per cent of the AFDC workers and nearly 15 per cent of the Child Welfare workers. (The comparable percentages for present membership in two or more associations are 32, 13, and 12.) (See Table XI.) The General Assistance workers distinctly belong to the highest number (proportionately) of outside professional groups, while the differences between the AFDC and Child Welfare agencies are not great.

TABLE XI
PAST AND PRESENT MEMBERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL
ASSOCIATIONS BY AGENCY

Membership in Professional Associations	Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38) (Most Bureaucratic)	CW (<u>n</u> =42) (Intermediate)	GA (<u>n</u> =19) (Least Bureaucratic)
Past and Present			
% in two or more	29	14	36
% in one	29	38	32
% in none	42	48	32*
Present Alone			
% in two or more	13	12	32
% in one	29	26	26
% in none	58	62	42**

*Chi sq.=4.63 (NS) (two-tailed test).

** Chi sq.=4.47 (NS) (two-tailed test).

The three preceding relationships concern what may be designated as professional characteristics of the workers in the three organizations (agreement with professional norms,

opinions regarding training, and membership in professional associations). Results for the remaining hypotheses, while not always in the predicted direction, tend to follow more closely the bureaucratic ranking of the agencies. These relationships concern variables more closely related to the bureaucratic rather than the professional orientations of the subjects.

The first of this set of predictions suggested that workers in the most bureaucratic agency will desire less professional supervision. The same eight items describing various activities of a supervisor are used in this analysis as were used for the similar hypothesis in the first group associated with agreement with professional norms.²³ In accord with the hypothesis, workers in the most bureaucratic agency (AFDC) least favor supervisory activity in the areas of policy-making, relaying of information to caseworkers, advising workers in the servicing of clients, aiding workers in specific decision-making, and field work. For these same role activities (except for the latter, questionnaire item 43) workers in the least bureaucratic agency (the General Assistance Agency) favor the highest level of supervisory functioning. (See Table XII for a summary of the data for all eight items.) The greatest differences among the agencies are exhibited by responses to three of these items (questionnaire items 37, 40,

²³These items (questionnaire items 36-43) are listed above on p. 56.

TABLE XII
TYPE OF SUPERVISORY ACTIVITY APPROVED BY AGENCY

Type of Supervisory Activity Approved	Agency			Chi Sq.
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)	
Policy-Making Involvement % responding "yes, often" % responding other	50 50	69 31	74 26	NS
Relaying Information to Workers % responding "yes, often" % responding other	74 26	76 24	100 0	S
Training of Workers % responding "yes, often" % responding other	47 53	36 64	89 11	S
Keeping Records about Workers % responding "yes, detailed records" % responding other	53 47	45 55	47 53	NS
Advising Workers % responding "yes, often" % responding other	32 68	33 67	74 26	S
Case Decisions of Workers % responding "yes, often" % responding other	8 92	19 81	42 58	S*
Reviewing Cases of Workers % responding "yes, often" and "yes, occasionally" % responding other	92 8	83 17	89 11	**
Field Work Activity % responding "yes, often" and "yes, occasionally" % responding other	29 71	55 45	47 53	NS

*Chi square is computed for a 3 x 3 table. See Table Q-41, Appendix C, p. 130.

**Chi square is not appropriate in this instance, as all combinations of categories will yield expected frequencies of less than 5 for more than 20 per cent of the cells.

and 41), describing relaying of information to workers, advising workers, and aiding workers in case decisions. Except for the last of these three items, these role functions do not involve direct supervision of caseworkers' tasks. Field work functions, which are primarily performed by caseworkers, are also least stressed by respondents in the most bureaucratic agency (AFDC), indicating that these workers conceive the role of the supervisor as more removed from their own.

The item which asks if a supervisor "needs to advise workers in providing casework services to clients" illustrates these results. The proportion of workers responding "yes, often" is 32 per cent in AFDC, 33 per cent in Child Welfare, and 74 per cent in General Assistance. (See Table XIII.) The

TABLE XIII

APPROVAL OF SUPERVISORY ACTIVITY IN ADVISING WORKERS
CONCERNING SERVICES BY AGENCY

Agency	Amount of Supervisory Activity	
	% Responding "Yes, Often"	% Responding Other
AFDC (n=38) (most bureaucratic)	32	68
CW (n=42) (intermediate)	33	67
GA (n=19) (least bureaucratic)	74	26*

*Chi sq.=10.84, $p < .01$ (two-tailed test).

differences are significant (as represented by the chi square value); however, this is almost exclusively due to the deviation of the General Assistance Agency workers. This is also the case for the item concerning the supervisor's relaying of information to caseworkers. (See Table XII.)

For the items dealing with the keeping of performance records and the reviewing of cases (questionnaire items 39 and 42), the responses deviate from the model in that the highest percentages of "high activity" responses are found for AFDC workers. The differences are slight, however. These two items can be seen to represent role activities which are quite bureaucratic in nature. The results can be interpreted as evidence suggestive that workers in the agency most

TABLE XIV
APPROVAL OF SUPERVISORY RECORDS OF
WORKERS BY AGENCY

Agency	Keeping Records of Workers	
	% Responding "Detailed Records"	% Responding Other
AFDC (n=38) (most bureaucratic)	53	47
CW (n=42) (intermediate)	45	55
GA (n=19) (least bureaucratic)	47	53*

*Chi sq.=.45 (NS) (two-tailed test).

emphasizing formal rules tend to favor supervisory activity in carrying out procedural tasks, enough so to offset factors which produced the opposite results for the other items. The responses to the question "Do you think there is a need for a supervisor to keep records of each worker's performance" illustrates this. (See Table XIV.) Over half of the AFDC workers replied that "detailed records" need to be kept, whereas 45 per cent of the Child Welfare workers' responses fell in this category.

The item which deals with the supervisor's training function (questionnaire item 38) was utilized in the discussion of the first major group of hypotheses to illustrate the positive association of agreement with professional norms and level of professional supervision desired. However, when this same item is cross-classified by agency, the results do not consistently support the contention that workers in the least bureaucratic agency also favor more supervision (and that workers in the most bureaucratic agency favor the least). This item on the supervisory training function is the only one of the eight items on supervisory role for which Child Welfare workers exhibited the lowest percentage of responses in favor of "high activity." (See Table XV.) Only about 35 per cent of the Child Welfare workers suggest that supervisors "often" need to conduct "regular training sessions" with their caseworkers, as opposed to nearly 90 per cent of the workers in the General Assistance Agency. There is a possible

TABLE XV
 APPROVAL OF SUPERVISORY ACTIVITY IN
 TRAINING BY AGENCY

Agency	Amount of Supervisory Activity	
	% Responding "Yes, Often"	% Responding Other
AFDC (n=38) (most bureaucratic)	47	53
CW (n=42) (intermediate)	36	64
GA (n=19) (least bureaucratic)	89	11*

*Chi sq.=15.37, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test).

explanation for this significant difference which is not found in the statistical data. It was learned during the process of administering the questionnaire that the staff of the Child Welfare Agency had recently instituted an intra-agency training program for all its caseworkers and supervisors. Although supervisors were formally in charge of the program, the format consisted of reports given by caseworkers in a general meeting of the professional staff (caseworkers and supervisors). Consequently, it is quite possible that when Child Welfare workers said they did not favor regular training sessions conducted by the supervisor, they may have been saying (in effect) that they favored the new system in their agency. If this is the case, the situation illustrates well the difficulty in comparing

conceptions of the supervisor's role across agency boundaries. In view of such difficulties, the response patterns which do support the hypothesis appear more significant.²⁴

The prediction that workers in the least bureaucratic agency would be least committed to their agency is not supported by the data. When asked if they expected to remain with their agency for the remainder of their career, nearly one-third of the workers in General Assistance replied "yes, definitely"; whereas nearly 20 per cent of the AFDC workers responded in this category. (See Table XVI.) It appears that the relationship between agency commitment and the bureaucratic

TABLE XVI
PLANS TO REMAIN WITH AGENCY BY AGENCY

Agency	Expect to Remain in Agency		
	% Responding "Yes, Definitely"	% Responding "Yes, Probably"	% Responding Other
AFDC (<u>n</u> =38) (most bur.)*	18	42	40
CW (<u>n</u> =42) (intermediate)	12	45	43
GA (<u>n</u> =19) (least bur.)	32	32	36**

*"Bur."--Bureaucratic **Chi sq.=3.51 (NS) (two-tailed).

²⁴Of course, such problems primarily serve to demonstrate the desirability of a larger sample of subjects than has been used for this research.

nature of the agency is negative rather than positive, although the differences among the agencies are slight. In addition, the relationship is not completely consistent, in that the lowest percentage of high commitment responses is found for the Child Welfare workers, whose agency is considered to be intermediate in bureaucratic characteristics. Further, responses which indicated that remaining with the agency was improbable as well as indefinite showed almost no differences among agencies. Most of the difference between the General Assistance workers and the workers from other agencies is accounted for by the choice of "definite" rather than "probable" responses.

TABLE XVII
PREFERENCE FOR PRIVATE AGENCY BY AGENCY

Agency	Preference for Private Agency			
	% Responding "Definitely Not"	% Responding "Probably Not"	% Responding "Yes"	% Giving "No Opinion"
AFDC ($n=38$) (most bur.)*	13	37	26	24
CW ($n=42$) (intermediate)	14	50	17	19
GA ($n=19$) (least bur.)	26	47	11	16**

*"Bur."--Bureaucratic

**Chi sq.=4.58 (NS) (two-tailed test).

Responses to the item which asks subjects if they would prefer working in a private agency rather than a public agency (questionnaire item 17) do exhibit a consistent negative relationship between these two variables. Again, however, the differences are small. (See Table XVII.) The proportion of subjects answering that they "definitely" would not prefer private to public agency employment (indicating high commitment) is over one-fourth in the General Assistance Agency, but 13 and 14 per cent in AFDC and Child Welfare respectively.

Additional support for the negative association of agency commitment and the bureaucratic nature of the agency is provided by responses to yet another item, which asks AFDC workers if they would prefer working in Child Welfare and asks

TABLE XVIII
PREFERENCE FOR CHILD WELFARE VERSUS AFDC BY AGENCY

Agency	Preference for Other Agency		
	% Responding "Definitely Not"	% Responding "Probably Not"	% Responding Other
AFDC (n=38) (most bur.)*	21	50	29
CW (n=42)** (intermediate)	81	14	5***

*"Bur."--Bureaucratic

**General Assistance workers were not given this item.

***Chi sq.=28.96, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test).

Child Welfare workers if they would prefer working in AFDC (questionnaire item 18). High commitment to their own agency may be inferred when the subjects responded that they would "definitely not" prefer to work in the other agency. Approximately 20 per cent of the AFDC workers definitely preferred their own agency to Child Welfare; in sharp contrast, approximately 80 per cent of the Child Welfare workers definitely preferred their own agency to AFDC. (See Table XVIII.)

When preference for Child Welfare or AFDC was cross-classified by ranks on the agreement with professional norms scale, only slight differences were revealed.²⁵ It would appear that membership in the agency is a more significant variable in predicting commitment to the agency than agreement with professional norms. However, the relationships which agency commitment (as measured by questionnaire items 11 and 17) bears to these two major variables, agency membership and professional norm agreement, are logically consistent. Agency commitment is higher for those subjects most in agreement with professional norms and for those employed by the least bureaucratic agency. It does not follow, necessarily, that a high negative association exists between the bureaucratic nature of the agency and workers' agreement with professional norms. Indeed, the negative relationship is small.²⁶

²⁵See Table P-18, Appendix D, p. 145.

²⁶See the discussion of Table IX on pp. 65-66.

The last prediction of the second major group of hypotheses (hypothesis II-F²⁷) also concerned the workers' views of their agency. It suggested that those workers in the least bureaucratic agency would view their agency and its policies as least effective in providing casework services (as indicated by the ranks on the scale measuring conceptions of agency effectiveness). The scale items are similar to those measuring agreement with professional norms and primarily concern the effect of the agencies' policies upon professional goals. As would be expected on the basis of previous findings, the data indicates rejection of the hypothesis.

TABLE XIX
CONCEPTIONS OF AGENCY EFFECTIVENESS BY AGENCY

Agency	Rank on Conceptions of Agency Effectiveness Scale		
	% in High Rank	% in Medium Rank	% in Low Rank
AFDC (n=38) (most bureaucratic)	24	26	50
CW (n=42) (intermediate)	54	34	12
GA (n=19) (least bureaucratic)	53	37	10*

*Chi sq.=18.38, $p < .01$ (two-tailed test).

²⁷See Chapter I, p. 29.

The largest proportion of workers (exactly half) who gave their agency a low evaluation on its effectiveness in pursuit of professional norms is found in the most bureaucratic (rather than in the least bureaucratic) agency. The percentages of workers in the other two agencies giving a low evaluation of their agency's effectiveness are both very small. (See Table XIX.) AFDC workers are clearly dissatisfied with their agency when judging it on the basis of professional norms, and they are least often committed to it.

In summarizing the findings pertaining to the second major group of hypotheses, the data suggest that workers in the most bureaucratic agency (a) less often agree with professional norms, (b) less often suggest higher training requirements, (c) less often are members of professional groups than workers in the least bureaucratic agency but more often than workers in the intermediate agency, (d) less often favor high levels of function for supervisors (except in direct worker supervision), (e) less often are committed to their agency, and (f) less often view their agency as effective in providing casework services.

Supplementary Findings

Some additional data should be presented which is closely related to the hypotheses already discussed. Specifically, there are three factors which are pertinent to the results obtained. First, there is an age difference in the three

agencies which may intervene. The median age of workers in the General Assistance Agency is significantly higher--45 years--than those of the AFDC and Child Welfare agencies--27 years and 28.5 years, respectively. The significance of this difference is found in a positive association which exists between age and agreement with professional norms. Nearly 60 per cent of the subjects who were thirty or more years of age ranked in the high agreement group; whereas only 15 per cent of those under thirty scored in the high classification. (See Table XX.) The association is particularly relevant to the prediction that workers in the least bureaucratic agency are most in agreement with professional norms. In this case, these workers are also older.

Second, there is a positive association between scores on the norm agreement scale and length of social work

TABLE XX
AGREEMENT WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS BY AGE GROUP

Age Group	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank	% in Medium Rank	% in Low Rank
30 and Over ($n=46$)	59	17	24
Under 30 ($n=53$)	15	43	42*

*Chi sq.=20.85, $p < .0005$ (one-tailed test).

experience. Workers with more experience both inside and outside the agency place the highest value on social work. Nearly 40 per cent of the workers ranking in the high agreement group have at least six years experience in the agency, as opposed to nearly 10 per cent in the low agreement rank. (See Table XXI.) The differences are complicated by the fact

TABLE XXI
AGREEMENT WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS BY
LENGTH OF SOCIAL WORK EXPERIENCE

Length of Social Work Experience	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
Experience in Agency			
% with 6 years or more	37	0	12
% with 3-5 years	37	10	12
% with 1-2 years	3	61	46
% with less than 1 year	23	29	30*
Experience Outside Agency			
% with some	51	45	30
% with none	49	55	70**

*Chi sq.=39.38, $p < .0005$ (one-tailed test).

**Chi sq.=3.24 (NS) (one-tailed test).

that there are no workers in the Child Welfare Agency with over three years experience in the agency, because the agency was only organized on its present basis in 1964. It will be recalled that a plurality (38 per cent) of the Child Welfare workers scored in the medium rank on the agreement with

professional norms scale.²⁸ Therefore, the high proportion of subjects with medium rank on norm agreement who are found in the one to two years' experience category is not surprising.

Experience in other social work agencies appears less significantly related to agreement with professional norms (in terms of the chi square values) than was intra-agency experience, but the association is also positive. Over half of the subjects with high agreement with professional norms had had previous social work experience, as opposed to only 30 per cent of those in the high agreement group. (See Table XXI.)

Third, there is a suggestion (though only a suggestion) in the data of a positive relationship between an internal and an external reference group orientation. One item of the questionnaire (questionnaire item 51) asked the subjects how many of their fellow workers would agree with their responses to the questions concerning agency policy. At first glance, the responses appear to have little meaning, as most respondents answered that "most of my fellow workers will agree." However, the distribution of "no opinion" responses is quite interesting. The proportion of those workers who were past and/or present members of at least two professional associations giving "no opinion" responses was 13 per cent, as

²⁸See the discussion of Table IX, pp. 65-66.

compared with nearly 30 per cent of those workers who had never been a member of such a group. (See Table XXII.) Al-

TABLE XXII

AGREEMENT WITH FELLOW WORKERS BY PAST AND PRESENT
MEMBERSHIP IN OUTSIDE PROFESSIONAL GROUPS

Past and Present Membership in Professional Associations	Agreement with Fellow Workers	
	% Giving "No Opinion"	% Giving Other
Two or More (<u>n</u> =24)	13	87
One (<u>n</u> =33)	18	82
None (<u>n</u> =42)	29	71*

*Chi sq.=2.63 (NS) (one-tailed test).

though the differences are not great (the value of chi square is not significant at the .05 level), the data suggest that those workers who belong to more outside professional reference groups may more often be aware of the climate of opinion within their agency or at least have some perception of it. It is possible that these workers more often have a perception of their fellows that may serve as a point of reference in forming attitudes toward their agency and, conceivably, toward their profession, although the relevant data is missing.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Results

The responses of the ninety-nine social workers who served as the subjects of this research gave support to some sections of the two major hypotheses. When subjects were classified in three ranked groups on the basis of their agreement with professional norms, the following three propositions were supported. Workers most in agreement with professional norms tended (I-A) to favor higher levels of training for supervisors, (I-B) to belong to more professional associations, and (I-C) to favor higher levels of professional supervisory role activity. These same workers, contrary to the hypothesis, tended (I-D) to be more committed to their agency and (I-E) to view their agency as more effective in pursuit of professional norms.

Results were similar for the second major hypothesis, which involved a comparison of responses in the three social work agencies serving as the setting of the research. Workers in the most bureaucratic agency, in accord with the hypothesis, tended to (II-A) less often agree with professional norms, (II-B) less often suggest higher training requirements for workers and supervisors, (II-C) less often belong to

professional associations than workers in the least bureaucratic agency but more often than workers in the intermediate agency, and (II-D) less often favor higher levels of professional supervision but more often favor higher levels of direct worker supervision. These same workers, contrary to the hypothesis, tended to (II-E) less often be committed to their agency and (II-F) less often view their agency as effective in the pursuit of professional norms.

Conclusions: The Professionalized Bureaucracy

The issue which has been central to this study is the accommodation of two analytical types of occupational groupings, the bureaucratic and the professional models of organization. The social work agency has been used as a particular case in which elements of both models are found to exist simultaneously. The social work agency represents a bureaucratic organization of occupational functions which are also professionalized, insofar as the organization incorporates elements of the professional model into its structure.

Yet, bureaucratic and professional patterns present a logical conflict in the manners in which they control occupational behavior. Bureaucratic control is direct; it involves the issuance of directives for behavior from the top of the hierarchy to the subordinate positions at which action is required. These directives are formalized as policies and regulations, which are transmitted and carried out through

standardized procedures and direct supervision. In contrast, professional control is indirect. It involves the transmission of knowledge, technique, and generalized codes of conduct to its members (primarily through training), who are then assumed to be capable of overseeing their own occupational behavior supported by professional colleagues. The principle of collegiate control typifies the professional patterning of authority, although there are graded distinctions in authority among professional persons. In the professionalized bureaucracy, however, standardized hierarchical control by professionally trained persons over less trained ones takes precedence over indirect collegiate, professional control.

The development of standardized hierarchical control is, of course, not the same in all social work agencies. Hence, to compare the effects of various degrees of professional and bureaucratic development, three different social work agencies have been used as the foci of this research. One is designated as the most bureaucratic (the AFDC Agency), one as intermediate in bureaucratic characteristics (the Child Welfare Agency), and the third as least bureaucratic (the General Assistance Agency). In these three agencies all of the social workers are not professionals in the full sense of the term.¹ It was

¹The overriding majority of these workers had not undergone graduate social work training. Workers with limited training have been termed semi-professional throughout the study to distinguish them from those with professional training who may be more influenced by professional modes of control.

originally hypothesized that those subjects who were most in agreement with professional norms² would also exhibit two other professional characteristics. It was thought that these workers would (I-A) suggest higher training requirements for workers and supervisors and (I-B) belong to more professional associations. It was also predicted that these workers would (I-C) express more support for professional supervision, since this typically involves supervision of semi-professionals by professionally trained persons. Finally, it was predicted that these professionally oriented workers would (I-D) be less committed to their agency and (I-E) view it as less professionally effective, since the agency organization is an example of bureaucratic control.

The hypotheses dealing with differences among the three agencies began with the prediction that, because of the conflict between the bureaucratic and professional models, (II-A) workers in the least bureaucratic agency would be most in agreement with professional norms. Generally, hypothesized differences between workers in the different agencies were that workers in the least bureaucratic agency would respond as did the more professionally oriented workers.

The results of the research give some indirect support to the general conclusion that the social work agency, as an

²For a discussion of the scale used to measure agreement with professional norms, see pp. 42-43.

example of a professionalized bureaucracy, serves professional as well as bureaucratic functions for its semi-professional employees. These functions include professional supervision and, more broadly, the socialization of professional norms. These professionalizing functions exist in addition to the obvious function of the social work agency as a vehicle for accomplishing the social welfare objectives of the social work profession. While such professional functions do not necessarily conflict with bureaucratic elements of control, a point appears at which formalized bureaucratic control does conflict with the professionalization of its semi-professional employees.

Professional Supervision

The phenomenon of professional supervision in social work is an example par excellence of the accommodation of professional and bureaucratic modes of control. Like Scott's examination of social work supervision,³ this research has supported the hypothesis that professionally oriented workers favor higher levels of activity for supervisors. This is particularly the case for the more professional aspects of the role. The supervisor's role is conceived broadly to include involvement in policy-making, training, and advising workers, as well as direct supervision of workers (reviewing cases and

³Scott, op. cit. Scott's article is one of the few accounts of professionals in a bureaucratic setting which emphasizes the accommodation rather than the conflict between bureaucratic and professional authority.

keeping performance records).⁴ The more professionally oriented workers more often view professional training as a necessity for supervisors (although not for workers),⁵ which adds another facet to supervisory role conceptions. The social work supervisor, in effect, appears to be a role model for her subordinates, who only occasionally have received formal professional training. Professional supervision seems particularly well-adapted to the social work profession, in which such a large proportion of the members are "untrained" or semi-professional.

The response patterns in this study suggested that perceptions of the supervisor's role tend to vary from agency to agency, as well as by degree of commitment to professional values. As predicted, workers in the least bureaucratic agency favored more supervisory activity in most aspects of the supervisor's role. However, the more bureaucratic functions of the supervisor (e.g., keeping performance records) were most favored in the most bureaucratic agency.⁶ These results are consistent with the finding that the least bureaucratic agency had the highest proportion of workers in high agreement with professional norms and that the most bureaucratic agency had the highest proportion of workers placing

⁴Table IV, p. 57, summarizes responses to the eight items depicting the supervisor's role.

⁵See Table II, p. 54.

⁶See Table XII, p. 71.

low value on professional services and techniques.⁷ Differences in the apparent professional orientation of workers in the three agencies were, however, not so great as to lead to the conclusion that a highly developed bureaucracy completely stifles the development of professional commitment. Further consideration of the points of bureaucratic-professional conflict must await consideration of a second group of findings which suggest additional modes of accommodation between the two models.

The Socialization of Professional Norms

There are several indications in the data that the agency is a professionalizing setting for social workers, especially for the "untrained" workers who have been termed semi-professional. Rather than serving primarily as a "bureaucratic impediment" to professional socialization, the social work agency may serve as a source of acquaintance with professional norms for many of its employees. First, the evidence exhibits a positive association between agreement with professional norms and length of social work experience, as well as age.⁸ In other words, the longer a worker remains with the agency, the greater is her exposure to and internalization of social work values. Second, the more professionally oriented workers also tended to be more committed to their agency and to view it as

⁷See Table IX, p. 66.

⁸See Tables XX and XXI, pp. 82-83.

more effective in its pursuit of professional norms.⁹ These results, though contrary to the predicted direction of the hypotheses, can easily be reconciled to the model of the professionalized bureaucracy in which professionals supervise semi-professionals. If the agency serves as a worker's first acquaintance with the profession, in lieu of professional training, it is not surprising that a worker who places high value on social work should also be committed to her agency.

The agency commitment which is posited above could be an "internal" reference group orientation that is professional rather than bureaucratic in nature. This interpretation partly contradicts Blau and Scott's conclusions concerning the "cosmopolitan"- "local" model as it applies to social work. According to Blau and Scott, the professionally oriented social worker (or "cosmopolitan") is characterized by low commitment to the employing organization and is interested in external professional groups.¹⁰ One possible explanation of these conflicting interpretations may be found in the level of professional training which characterized workers in "County Agency" of Scott's research in contrast to the level of training of workers in the three agencies of this study. The proportion of workers in County Agency having had some graduate social work training was 42 per cent¹¹ in contrast to 21

⁹See Tables VI, VII, and VIII, pp. 60-63.

¹⁰Blau and Scott, op. cit., pp. 64-74. ¹¹Ibid., p. 257.

per cent in the three agencies of this research (5 per cent in AFDC, 36 per cent in Child Welfare, and 26 per cent in General Assistance). It is conceivable that a cosmopolitan orientation is a phenomenon largely associated with the trained professional.¹²

Another factor which may be a necessary condition for the local-cosmopolitan model is the visibility or perception of professional opportunity. The subjects of this research made a positive evaluation of the opportunity in their agency to provide professional services in contrast to opportunities in private agencies. Whether or not the opportunity for professional casework is greater in a private agency, as suggested by Blau and Scott, such an opportunity must be perceived as such by the worker. This distinction between professional casework in private and public agencies may, in fact, be primarily fostered by professional training schools, or perhaps only by certain graduate schools. In addition, professional opportunities themselves vary in different geographic regions with differential development of private and public social welfare services. Unfortunately, it is not quite clear in Blau and Scott's analysis whether professional opportunity is defined as the opportunity to do professional casework or as

¹²This may even be true only of training received prior to a "significant" length of time spent in one agency. The graduate stipends provided in social work agencies, for example, usually require that a worker return to the agency upon completion of training.

the opportunity to be recognized by other members of the profession. If the latter meaning is implied, the ideology of the graduate school would be an important factor in an understanding of what constitutes "professional advancement."

A third requisite of the cosmopolitan model is the "external" reference group orientation. Such an orientation has been defined somewhat differently in this research than it has been in other studies. To Gouldner and to Blau and Scott, a professional was oriented outside the agency if he chose sources of "professional and intellectual stimulation" which were not in the agency, such as publications of professional associations.¹³ In this research, the measure used was simply the subjects' membership in professional associations. As predicted, membership in professional groups was found to be positively related to agreement with professional norms.¹⁴

The cluster of factors which emerges is professional norm commitment, agency commitment, and membership in "outside" professional organizations. In addition, there was a slight suggestion in the data that membership in professional associations is also associated with an awareness of opinion within the agency (i.e., a perception of the opinions of fellow workers).¹⁵ Contacts within the agency and with other social

¹³Gouldner, op. cit., p. 304; Blau and Scott, op. cit., pp. 66-67. Bennis and others, op. cit., p. 487, use yet another measure of the external reference group orientation.

¹⁴See Table III, p. 55.

¹⁵See Table XXII, p. 85.

workers in professional groups outside the agency may serve a socialization function for the semi-professional social worker. The clustering of factors suggests that the local-cosmopolitan model is a phenomenon which is not invariably found among professional persons employed in bureaucracies, nor among all members of particular professional occupations, nor even among all members of particular professional occupations employed in the same type of bureaucratic organization. Gouldner's original designation of local and cosmopolitan orientations as "latent social roles" remains quite appropriate. The nature of the professional training of the professional person may well be an important factor in the development of a cosmopolitan orientation.

In summary, it might be said that the bureaucracy holds primary sway over its semi-professional employees until or unless they undergo graduate training, or that a bureaucratic system which provides for the professional socialization of workers substitutes for extended professional training. Two reservations must, however, be made. First, there is, of course, a serious question as to just what sort of professional socialization is received in the agencies studied here. The process itself was not examined directly, but has been inferred from the subjects' responses. The scale measuring agreement with professional norms indicates a positive evaluation of the efficacy and range of applicability of social work techniques, but it does not directly measure knowledge of social work

techniques nor, properly speaking, does it measure adherence to a professional code of ethics. These aspects of the occupational role may be learned by the semi-professional in the social work agency along with a generalized positive attitude toward professional services, but this research was not designed to test them. Second, the process of accommodation of bureaucratic and professional modes of control does not appear by any means complete in the social work agencies examined in this study. The evidence, in fact, indicates some degree of conflict between these two types of structuring of occupational behavior. In addition, the limitation of the study to these specific agencies places the usual limitations upon interpretations that can be drawn from such a small sampling of situations.

Professional-Bureaucratic Conflict

There is some evidence that the extent of formalized bureaucratic control may hinder the socialization of professional norms. The highest level of agreement with professional norms was found in the least bureaucratic agency and the highest proportion of low agreement scores was found in the most bureaucratic agency.¹⁶ When this finding is interpreted in conjunction with Thomas' findings concerning the negative association of agency size and ethical commitment,¹⁷ it is

¹⁶See Table IX, p. 66.

¹⁷Thomas, op. cit., pp. 34-47.

possible to suggest some of the factors involved in the relationship. Because the differences in professional commitment are most pronounced for the workers in the least bureaucratic agency of this study (which is the smallest of the three), perhaps the underlying factor(s) can be identified most clearly at this point. In both this study and that of Thomas, age and length of experience are positively associated with professional commitment (though this is defined differently in each case) and are also associated with the smaller agency (or agencies, in Thomas' research). Size of group and length of association, in conjunction with the description of the small agency's hierarchical arrangement, suggest that the smaller agency situation maximizes peer-group interaction or colleague-type relationships among workers and supervisors. The relationships are long-standing, because turnover is low; and communication is not hampered by a greatly formalized and proceduralized hierarchical routing of information. If peer-group relationships are indeed more pronounced in the smaller, less bureaucratic agency, it would follow that transmission of peer norms would be accomplished more easily and that more colleague support would be available for the maintenance and further development of a peer-supported professional orientation.

Because the level of graduate social work training is slightly lower in the least bureaucratic agency (the General Assistance Agency) than in the intermediate agency (the Child

Welfare Agency),¹⁸ size and degree of hierarchical differentiation appear to be the most significant factors in the socialization of the "untrained" semi-professionals in the agencies, at least when the levels of training are generally low. It is in association with the level of professional training which workers consider necessary that their own levels of training seem to be the important variable. In this instance, it is not surprising that the more bureaucratic ranking of the Child Welfare Agency is countervailed by its relatively high level of training. This is evidenced by the high proportion of Child Welfare respondents who suggested higher training requirements for both workers and supervisors.¹⁹

The workers in the least bureaucratic agency also were members of proportionately more voluntary professional associations than were AFDC and Child Welfare workers.²⁰ It is possible, as suggested above, that closer peer relationships within the agency foster additional peer contacts with social workers outside the agency. However, this reasoning breaks down when it is seen that slightly fewer of the workers in the intermediate agency were members of professional associations than were workers in the most bureaucratic agency. Other variables appear to have contaminated the hypothesized relationship.

¹⁸See Table I, pp. 38-39.

¹⁹See Table X, p. 67.

²⁰See Table XI, p. 69.

A clearer insight into professional-bureaucratic conflicts requires a closer examination of the AFDC Agency, the most bureaucratic agency of the three. It is in this agency that the conflict between the bureaucratic mode of control and professional norms was most apparent. A significant number of AFDC employees exhibited high agreement with professional norms, hence such an orientation was clearly not completely stifled by the bureaucratic structure. However, a very large proportion of AFDC workers were clearly dissatisfied with their agency. They evidenced low loyalty to their organization and evaluated it as less effective in pursuing professional goals.²¹ They seemed to view agency policies as limitations upon the pursuit of professional goals. Is it then surprising that these workers joined outside professional groups in larger number than did Child Welfare workers (with whom many AFDC workers would have changed places)? It is possible that in this case the limitations of the agency did serve to stimulate the development of an outside orientation akin to that of the cosmopolitan.

Needles to say, the 40 per cent of the AFDC workers who ranked low on agreement with professional norms can hardly be said to share this orientation. The fact that the number of "non-professionally oriented" workers, as measured by the scale depicting agreement with professional norms, in the AFDC Agency

²¹See Tables XVI-XIX, pp. 76-80.

was high seems to account for the tendency of AFDC workers to view the role of the supervisor in more bureaucratic terms. As discussed above, supervisory activities in keeping records of workers and reviewing cases were more favored by AFDC workers than by workers in the less bureaucratic agencies.

In brief, the data appear to illustrate two ways in which the degree of bureaucratic control in the social work agency conflicts with the development of a professional orientation among semi-professionals. First, size and hierarchical differentiation limit the diffusion of professional norms among workers through colleague relationships. Second, adherence to highly standardized policies and procedures results in dissatisfaction among semi-professional workers and may limit the effective utilization of professional, trained personnel.

These points of conflict appear, however, to be capable of accommodation to a degree not often recognized in the literature on professional organizations. The professionalized social work bureaucracy whose employees are mostly semi-professionals incorporates elements of the professional control structure in its supervisory pattern and in its emphasis on professional training. The accommodation involves the combining of professionally trained workers with semi-professional workers through bureaucratic hierarchy and the welding of formalism to professional collegiate normative control in a manner appropriate to the utilization of both bureaucratic efficiency and professional knowledge.

Recommendations

The tentative conclusions of this research suggest several directions for the further study of the accommodation and conflict of bureaucratic and professional modes of organizing occupational behavior. First, there are several limitations of this study which restrict the generality and applicability of its conclusions. This research has been limited to a small number of subjects in only three public social work agencies in one metropolitan area of the United States. Similar research utilizing samples of larger populations would be necessary to discover the effects of regional variations and variations in other types of agency settings (e.g., private, rather than public, agencies). In addition, the further testing of the hypotheses in professions other than social work, but with comparable characteristics, would be desirable in order to determine the generality of the suggested relationships among the variables in question.

Second, there are a number of problems involved in the conceptualization of the variables involved in this study which will require further investigation. The initial difficulty lies in determining what is meant by agreement with "professional norms." Further research needs not only to specify the instrument used to measure such a variable (or any variable depicting degrees of "professionalization"), but also to investigate the correlations of the various measures already used in the literature. This problem is complicated by a

consideration of the theoretical relationship of norm agreement and levels of professional training. For example, it is likely that semi-professional ("untrained") workers, such as those used in this research, acquire a different set of normative standards through "agency socialization" than do workers who complete two years in a professional training school. The measures of agency commitment and an "external" reference group orientation which have been used in this study and in others also bear closer examination in further research.

Finally, the results of this research suggest some lines of further theoretical analysis of the accommodation of professional and bureaucratic organizational patterns. One general factor which appeared to affect the differences in response patterns among the agencies in this study is the structuring of communication among workers and supervisors. The types, forms, patterns, and content of communication need to be studied directly as they relate to the collegiate type of professional control structure and the hierarchical type of bureaucratic control structure. The effects of varying communication patterns upon the socialization of professional norms and upon the employees' views of the organization appear to be fruitful directions for future study.

Another area of analysis suggested by this research is the investigation of the professional (or semi-professional) employees' perceptions of opportunities for advancement within their profession. The association of variations in such

perceptions with levels of professional training, with inter-agency communication patterns, and with contacts with professional persons in other agencies are possible avenues of specific study.

Finally, conceptions of the supervisor's role appear to be complexly related to the professional and bureaucratic characteristics of the employing organization. A more complete investigation of diverse types of supervisory role activities as they are approved or disapproved by social workers in various types of agencies is suggested for clarification of the relationships of the role conceptions to agency characteristics.

Study in these directions, as well as in other areas suggested by other modes of professional-bureaucratic accommodation, should lead to the further understanding of emerging forms of the structuring of occupational behavior in formal organizations.

APPENDIX A

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

TO: All AFDC /or Child Welfare/ Workers
FROM: (AFDC Assistant Regional Director or Child Welfare
Regional Director/)

Miss Janet Wedel, who is working toward the Master of Arts degree in Sociology at North Texas State University, will be in the office May __, __, and __ to obtain our help for her thesis research project. She is requesting that all AFDC /or Child Welfare/ workers will agree to complete an anonymous questionnaire to help with her research. She will be located on the __ floor in _____ at the following times:

Tuesday, May __ - 8:00 to 12:00
Wednesday, May __ - 8:00 to 5:00
Thursday, May __ - 8:00 to 5:00

Please indicate beside your name on the list below the day and time that it would be most convenient for you to see her and complete the questionnaire. If possible, no more than one person from each unit should arrange to complete the questionnaire in any one hour. It will require approximately fifteen to twenty minutes of your time. Please notify Miss Wedel at Extension __ if you will be unable to keep the appointment.

(Signature)

APPENDIX B

SCALOGRAMS

The pictorial representations of the three scales which were designed to measure agreement with professional norms, conceptions of the supervisor's role, and conceptions of agency effectiveness are presented on the following three pages. The questionnaire items included in the scales are given in the top margins of the figures, along with the category combinations utilized for the scalogram model. Categories designated as "5" are those most favorable to the subject of the scale; categories "2" are least favorable; and categories "1" are "no opinion" responses. The questionnaire items and answer categories are reproduced in full in the tables following in Appendix C.

The coefficients of reproducibility for the three scales are .90, .89, and .92, respectively. The second scale, composed of items representing various aspects of the supervisor's role, was found to be unacceptable, because of the large number of similar non-scale types which were found in the scale. Further discussion of the three scales is found in the text, pp. 48-52.

Respondent Rank	Respondent Number*	Questionnaire Items and Categories
1	90	x x x 32-5
2	36	x x x 31-5
3	76	x x x 31-5
4	75	x x x 31-5
5	85	x x x 31-5
6	12	x x x 31-5
7	09	x x x 31-5
8	05	x x x 31-5
9	16	x x x 31-5
10	61	x x x 31-5
11	23	x x x 31-5
12	40	x x x 31-5
13	06	x x x 31-5
14	10	x x x 31-5
15	46	x x x 31-5
16	41	x x x 31-5
17	82	x x x 31-5
18	59	x x x 31-5
19	19	x x x 31-5
20	04	x x x 31-5
21	56	x x x 31-5
22	64	x x x 31-5
23	57	x x x 31-5
24	99	x x x 31-5
25	91	x x x 31-5
26	52	x x x 31-5
27	42	x x x 31-5
28	38	x x x 31-5
29	31	x x x 31-5
30	25	x x x 31-5
31	78	x x x 31-5
32	65	x x x 31-5
33	44	x x x 31-5
34	30	x x x 31-5
35	50	x x x 31-5
36	07	x x x 31-5
37	98	x x x 31-5
38	02	x x x 31-5
39	13	x x x 31-5
40	08	x x x 31-5
41	44	x x x 31-5
42	68	x x x 31-5
43	97	x x x 31-5
44	95	x x x 31-5
45	89	x x x 31-5
46	88	x x x 31-5
47	86	x x x 31-5
48	81	x x x 31-5
49	77	x x x 31-5
50	60	x x x 31-5
51	27	x x x 31-5
52	24	x x x 31-5
53	15	x x x 31-5
54	67	x x x 31-5
55	39	x x x 31-5
56	79	x x x 31-5
57	66	x x x 31-5
58	54	x x x 31-5
59	71	x x x 31-5
60	47	x x x 31-5
61	20	x x x 31-5
62	48	x x x 31-5
63	03	x x x 31-5
64	84	x x x 31-5
65	70	x x x 31-5
66	18	x x x 31-5
67	93	x x x 31-5
68	92	x x x 31-5
69	80	x x x 31-5
70	58	x x x 31-5
71	55	x x x 31-5
72	28	x x x 31-5
73	01	x x x 31-5
74	74	x x x 31-5
75	26	x x x 31-5
76	33	x x x 31-5
77	73	x x x 31-5
78	53	x x x 31-5
79	17	x x x 31-5
80	96	x x x 31-5
81	94	x x x 31-5
82	87	x x x 31-5
83	72	x x x 31-5
84	62	x x x 31-5
85	29	x x x 31-5
86	22	x x x 31-5
87	45	x x x 31-5
88	11	x x x 31-5
89	34	x x x 31-5
90	69	x x x 31-5
91	63	x x x 31-5
92	43	x x x 31-5
93	83	x x x 31-5
94	51	x x x 31-5
95	49	x x x 31-5
96	37	x x x 31-5
97	32	x x x 31-5
98	21	x x x 31-5
99	21	x x x 31-5

Fig. 1--Scalogram for the items measuring agreement with professional norms.

*Respondents numbered 01-19 are from the General Assistance

Respondent Rank	Respondent Number	Questionnaire Items and Categories
1	82	x x x x x
2	75	x x x x x
3	64	x x x x x
4	44	x x x x x
5	17	x x x x x
6	06	x x x x x
7	04	x x x x x
8	02	x x x x x
9	16	x x x x x
10	77	x x x x x
11	18	x x x x x
12	07	x x x x x
13	71	x x x x x
14	70	x x x x x
15	68	x x x x x
16	50	x x x x x
17	41	x x x x x
18	39	x x x x x
19	30	x x x x x
20	24	x x x x x
21	21	x x x x x
22	19	x x x x x
23	14	x x x x x
24	09	x x x x x
25	08	x x x x x
26	90	x x x x x
27	45	x x x x x
28	88	x x x x x
29	83	x x x x x
30	35	x x x x x
31	36	x x x x x
32	72	x x x x x
33	92	x x x x x
34	87	x x x x x
35	85	x x x x x
36	47	x x x x x
37	91	x x x x x
38	29	x x x x x
39	20	x x x x x
40	99	x x x x x
41	38	x x x x x
42	05	x x x x x
43	84	x x x x x
44	25	x x x x x
45	10	x x x x x
46	03	x x x x x
47	94	x x x x x
48	66	x x x x x
49	33	x x x x x
50	23	x x x x x
51	12	x x x x x
52	89	x x x x x
53	28	x x x x x
54	81	x x x x x
55	53	x x x x x
56	42	x x x x x
57	26	x x x x x
58	15	x x x x x
59	13	x x x x x
60	95	x x x x x
61	93	x x x x x
62	48	x x x x x
63	65	x x x x x
64	59	x x x x x
65	32	x x x x x
66	11	x x x x x
67	78	x x x x x
68	98	x x x x x
69	97	x x x x x
70	86	x x x x x
71	79	x x x x x
72	74	x x x x x
73	69	x x x x x
74	63	x x x x x
75	62	x x x x x
76	61	x x x x x
77	57	x x x x x
78	40	x x x x x
79	31	x x x x x
80	76	x x x x x
81	73	x x x x x
82	56	x x x x x
83	49	x x x x x
84	37	x x x x x
85	34	x x x x x
86	27	x x x x x
87	22	x x x x x
88	96	x x x x x
89	80	x x x x x
90	67	x x x x x
91	60	x x x x x
92	58	x x x x x
93	55	x x x x x
94	54	x x x x x
95	52	x x x x x
96	51	x x x x x
97	46	x x x x x
98	40	x x x x x

Fig. 2--Scalogram for the items measuring conceptions of the supervisor's role.

Respondent Rank	Respondent Number	Questionnaire Items and Categories
1	85	50-5 x x
2	82	49-5,4 x x
3	80	47-5 x x
4	56	44-5,4 x x
5	05	48-5,4 x x
6	01	x x
7	70	x x
8	68	x x
9	49	x x
10	26	x x
11	89	x x
12	99	x x
13	79	x x
14	72	x x
15	63	x x
16	61	x x
17	59	x x
18	29	x x
19	10	x x
20	45	x x
21	75	x x
22	69	x x
23	64	x x
24	35	x x
25	60	x x
26	55	x x
27	96	x x
28	16	x x
29	13	x x
30	04	x x
31	46	x x
32	09	x x
33	91	x x
34	90	x x
35	36	x x
36	03	x x
37	84	x x
38	30	x x
39	88	x x
40	73	x x
41	65	x x
42	31	x x
43	17	x x
44	11	x x
45	57	x x
46	98	x x
47	97	x x
48	95	x x
49	94	x x
50	93	x x
51	87	x x
52	83	x x
53	81	x x
54	78	x x
55	71	x x
56	66	x x
57	62	x x
58	58	x x
59	50	x x
60	48	x x
61	44	x x
62	40	x x
63	38	x x
64	18	x x
65	14	x x
66	08	x x
67	07	x x
68	06	x x
69	02	x x
70	52	x x
71	28	x x
72	53	x x
73	33	x x
74	92	x x
75	86	x x
76	74	x x
77	67	x x
78	41	x x
79	34	x x
80	27	x x
81	25	x x
82	24	x x
83	22	x x
84	20	x x
85	19	x x
86	15	x x
87	12	x x
88	77	x x
89	51	x x
90	54	x x
91	47	x x
92	43	x x
93	42	x x
94	39	x x
95	37	x x
96	32	x x
97	33	x x
98*	21	x x

Fig. 3--Scalogram for the items measuring conceptions of agency effectiveness.

APPENDIX C

RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS BY AGENCY

The following fifty-one tables are numbered according to the questionnaire items which they represent. For example, Table "Q-1" gives the responses for questionnaire item 1. The table headings give the precise wording of the items as they appeared on the original questionnaire.

TABLE Q-1

AGE

Agency	Median Age
AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	27.0
CW (<u>n</u> =42)	28.5
GA* (<u>n</u> =19)	45.0

*"CW"--Child Welfare; "GA"--General Assistance

TABLE Q-2

SEX

Sex	Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
Male	7	7	1
Female	31	31	18

TABLE Q-3
PRESENT POSITION

Position	Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
Supervisor	7	7	3
Caseworker	31	35	16

TABLE Q-4
"HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN EMPLOYED BY THIS AGENCY?"

Time Employed	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
Less than six months	0	12	10
Six months to one year	24	33	10
One to two years	47	55	33
Three to five years	16	0	10
Six to ten years	10	0	27
More than ten years	3	0	10

TABLE Q-5

"HAVE YOU EVER BEEN EMPLOYED AS A SOCIAL WORKER BY ANY AGENCY OTHER THAN AFDC [CHILD WELFARE, OR COUNTY WELFARE*]?"

Previous Social Work Experience	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
Some	16	64	47
None	84	36	53

*"County Welfare" is the locally used name of the General Assistance Agency.

TABLE Q-6

"DO YOU HAVE A COLLEGE DEGREE?"

Bachelor's Degree	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
Yes	58	98	74
No	42	2	26

TABLE Q-7

"WHAT WAS YOUR UNDERGRADUATE MAJOR IN COLLEGE?"

Undergraduate Major	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
Sociology, Psychology, or Social Work	32	67	42
Other	68	33	58

TABLE Q-8

"HAVE YOU DONE ANY GRADUATE STUDY?
IF SO, TOWARD WHAT DEGREE AND MAJOR?"

Graduate Study and Major	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
None	79	43	58
Social Work	5	37	26
Other	16	20	16

TABLE Q-9

"SPECIFY ANY GRADUATE DEGREE THAT YOU HOLD."

Graduate Degree	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
None	97	74	79
Social Work	3	19	16
Other	0	7	5

TABLE Q-10

"OF WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING ORGANIZATIONS ARE YOU . . .
NOW A MEMBER / FORMERLY, BUT NOT NOW A MEMBER?"

Membership in Professional Associations	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
Past and Present			
Two or more*	29	14	36
One	29	38	32
None	42	48	32**
Present Alone			
Two or more	13	12	32
One	29	26	26
None	58	62	42***

*Organizations listed were: National Association of Social Workers, Texas Social Welfare Association, American Public Welfare Association, and "other professional or work-related organizations." One such "other" organization listed by several respondents was the Community Roundtable on Social, Health, and Welfare Problems.

**Chi sq.=4.63 (NS) (two-tailed test). "NS" indicates that the chi square value is not significant at the .05 level.

***Chi sq.=4.47 (NS) (two-tailed test).

TABLE Q-11

"IF YOU CONTINUE WORKING, WOULD YOU WISH TO REMAIN WITH THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WELFARE /OR COUNTY WELFARE/ FOR THE REMAINDER OF YOUR CAREER?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	18	12	32
(b) "Yes, probably"	42	45	32
(c) "No, probably not"	22	26	36
(d) "No, definitely not"	13	5	0
(e) "No opinion"	5	12	0*

*Chi sq.=3.51 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-12

"IF YOU CONTINUE WORKING, WOULD YOU WISH TO REMAIN IN AFDC /OR CHILD WELFARE/* FOR THE REMAINDER OF YOUR CAREER?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency	
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	24	24
(b) "Yes, probably"	32	55
(c) "No, probably not"	26	12
(d) "No, definitely not"	8	0
(e) "No opinion"	10	9**

*Employees of the General Assistance Agency (or "County Welfare") were not given this item.

**Chi sq.=5.79 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 2 table.

TABLE Q-13

"IF YOU CONTINUE WORKING, WOULD YOU WISH TO REMAIN IN SOCIAL WORK FOR THE REMAINDER OF YOUR CAREER?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	60	78	74
(b) "Yes, probably"	29	17	26
(c) "No, probably not"	11	0	0
(d) "No, definitely not"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	5	0*

*Chi sq.=3.24 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-14

"WOULD YOU PREFER SOCIAL WORK TO ANY OTHER CAREER WHICH YOU MIGHT ENTER?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	61	69	68
(b) "Yes, with few exceptions"	29	31	32
(c) "No, I would prefer many other careers to social work"	10	0	0
(d) "No, I definitely do not wish to make social work my career"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=.72 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi square was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-15

"DO YOU EXPECT TO DO GRADUATE WORK AT A SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, definitely" or "Already hold MSW"	18	65	42
(b) "Yes, probably"	34	24	16
(c) "No, probably not"	32	7	32
(d) "No, definitely not"	13	5	2
(e) "No opinion"	3	2	5*

*Chi sq.=20.58, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-16

"WOULD YOU DO GRADUATE WORK AT A SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK IF YOU OBTAINED A GOOD SCHOLARSHIP FROM THE SCHOOL?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, definitely" or "Already hold MSW"	39	65	37
(b) "Yes, probably"	32	29	42
(c) "No, probably not"	16	2	5
(d) "No, definitely not"	10	2	5
(e) "No opinion"	3	2	11*

*Chi sq.=9.32 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-17

"IF THE SALARIES WERE THE SAME, WOULD YOU RATHER WORK IN
A PRIVATE AGENCY THAN IN A PUBLIC AGENCY?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	5	7	5
(b) "Yes, probably"	21	10	5
(c) "No, probably not"	37	50	48
(d) "No, definitely not"	13	14	26
(e) "No opinion"	24	19	24*

*Chi sq.=4.58 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a) and (b) to form a 4 x 3 table

TABLE Q-18

"WOULD YOU RATHER WORK IN CHILD WELFARE OR AFDC THAN
IN AFDC OR CHILD WELFARE ?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency	
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	3	2
(b) "Yes, probably"	18	0
(c) "No, probably not"	50	14
(d) "No, definitely not"	21	82
(e) "No opinion"	8	2*

*Chi sq.=28.96, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a), (b), and (e) to form a 3 x 2 table.

TABLE Q-19

"WOULD YOU LIKE TO BE A CASEWORK SUPERVISOR?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, definitely" and "Already hold this position"	34	36	26
(b) "Yes, probably"	21	31	32
(c) "No, probably not"	19	21	21
(d) "No, definitely not"	21	5	5
(e) "No opinion"	5	7	16*

*Chi sq.=1.94 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-20

"HOW ESSENTIAL IS FOUR YEARS (OR THE EQUIVALENT) OF UNDERGRADUATE COLLEGE TRAINING TO THE ADEQUATE PERFORMANCE OF THE SOCIAL CASEWORKER'S JOB?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Absolutely essential"	24	81	79
(b) "Very helpful, but not essential"	58	12	21
(c) "Somewhat helpful, but not at all essential"	18	7	0
(d) "Not at all helpful"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=30.98, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-21

"HOW ESSENTIAL IS GRADUATE SOCIAL WORK TRAINING TO THE ADEQUATE PERFORMANCE OF THE SOCIAL CASEWORKER'S JOB?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Absolutely essential"	5	41	21
(b) "Very helpful, but not essential"	69	52	68
(c) "Somewhat helpful, but not at all essential"	18	5	11
(d) "Not at all helpful"	3	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	5	2	0*

*Chi sq.=16.88, $p < .01$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-22

"HOW ESSENTIAL IS FOUR YEARS (OR THE EQUIVALENT) OF UNDERGRADUATE COLLEGE TRAINING TO THE ADEQUATE PERFORMANCE OF THE SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISOR'S JOB?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Absolutely essential"	50	89	84
(b) "Very helpful, but not essential"	32	5	11
(c) "Somewhat helpful, but not at all essential"	13	2	5
(d) "Not at all helpful"	0	2	0
(e) "No opinion"	5	2	0*

*Chi sq.=16.16, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-23

"HOW ESSENTIAL IS GRADUATE SOCIAL WORK TRAINING TO THE ADEQUATE PERFORMANCE OF THE SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISOR'S JOB?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Absolutely essential"	26	83	63
(b) "Very helpful, but not essential"	58	10	27
(c) "Somewhat helpful, but not at all essential"	13	5	5
(d) "Not at all helpful"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	3	2	5*

*Chi sq.=26.85, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-24

"WHAT WOULD YOU SUGGEST AS THE MOST PRACTICAL MINIMUM EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENT FOR HIRING CASEWORKERS IN YOUR AGENCY?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) Master of Social Work	0	2	0
(b) Bachelor's degree, with a major in psychology or sociology	16	58	32
(c) Bachelor's degree, regardless of major	58	38	53
(d) Two years undergraduate college education	26	0	15
(e) No formal minimum education requirement	0	2	0*

*Chi sq.=20.24, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a) and (b) and categories (d) and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-25

"WHAT WOULD YOU SUGGEST AS THE MOST PRACTICAL
MINIMUM EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENT FOR
HIRING CASEWORK SUPERVISORS IN YOUR AGENCY?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) Master of Social Work	21	90	68
(b) Bachelor's degree, with a major in psychology or sociology	37	6	21
(c) Bachelor's degree, regard- less of major	36	2	11
(d) Two years undergraduate college education	3	0	0
(e) No formal minimum educa- tion requirement	3	2	0*

*Chi sq.=41.47, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-26

"EVERYONE COULD BENEFIT FROM THE SERVICES
OF A SOCIAL WORKER."

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Strongly agree"	8	2	16
(b) "Agree"	34	22	42
(c) "Disagree"	53	67	26
(d) "Strongly disagree"	5	7	5
(e) "No opinion"	0	2	11*

*Chi sq.=7.08 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a) and (b) and categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-27

"A LARGE NUMBER OF PEOPLE WHO ARE IN NEED OF SOCIAL WORK SERVICES ARE NOT RECEIVING THEM."

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Strongly agree"	55	53	63
(b) "Agree"	45	43	37
(c) "Disagree"	0	2	0
(d) "Strongly disagree"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	2	0*

*Chi sq.=.62 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-28

"SOCIAL WORK SERVICES SHOULD BE EXPANDED (ON EITHER A PUBLIC, PRIVATE, OR FEE-FOR-SERVICE BASIS) TO A LARGER PROPORTION OF THE U. S. POPULATION."

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Strongly agree"	50	57	68
(b) "Agree"	34	43	32
(c) "Disagree"	11	0	0
(d) "Strongly disagree"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	5	0	0*

*Chi sq.=1.76 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table

TABLE Q-29

"A LARGE NUMBER OF PEOPLE WHO ARE NOT IN NEED OF SOCIAL WORK SERVICES ARE NOW RECEIVING THEM."

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Strongly agree"	8	0	5
(b) "Agree"	21	10	26
(c) "Disagree"	53	81	48
(d) "Strongly disagree"	10	7	16
(e) "No opinion"	8	2	5*

*Chi sq.=7.77, $p < .05$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a), (b), and (e) and categories (c) and (d) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-30

"ALL AFDC /OR CHILD WELFARE OR COUNTY WELFARE/ CLIENTS ARE IN NEED OF SOCIAL WORK SERVICES."

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Strongly agree"	26	19	37
(b) "Agree"	24	52	37
(c) "Disagree"	40	29	21
(d) "Strongly disagree"	10	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	5*

*Chi sq.=9.13 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-31

"IN YOUR OPINION, DO SOCIAL WORK METHODS SERVE
TO IMPROVE CLIENTS' (ADULTS AND CHILDREN)
PERSONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL FUNCTIONING?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	10	21	47
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	71	77	53
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	16	2	0
(d) "No, not at all"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	3	0	0*

*Chi sq.=9.97, $p < .01$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-32

"IN YOUR OPINION, DO SOCIAL WORK METHODS SERVE TO IMPROVE
FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS IN CLIENTS' FAMILIES?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	8	24	42
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	71	76	58
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	15	0	0
(d) "No, not at all"	3	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	3	0	0*

*Chi sq.=9.16, $p < .05$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-33

"IN YOUR OPINION, DO SOCIAL WORK METHODS SERVE
TO PREVENT PSYCHOLOGICAL "BREAKDOWN" OF
CLIENTS (ADULTS AND CHILDREN)?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	8	10	11
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	63	76	74
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	21	14	5
(d) "No, not at all"	3	0	5
(e) "No opinion"	5	0	5*

*Chi sq.=2.94 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a) and (b) and categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-34

"IN YOUR OPINION, DO SOCIAL WORK METHODS SERVE TO PREVENT
FURTHER DISORGANIZATION IN CLIENTS' FAMILIES?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	16	12	16
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	60	86	69
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	21	0	5
(d) "No, not at all"	3	2	5
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	5*

*Chi sq.=9.08 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-35

"IN YOUR OPINION, DO SOCIAL WORK SERVICES SERVE TO HELP CLIENTS (ADULTS) DEAL WITH THEIR PROBLEMS THEMSELVES?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	16	17	26
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	68	81	69
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	16	2	5
(d) "No, not at all"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=1.06 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-36

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR SHOULD HELP DETERMINE AGENCY POLICY?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, often"	50	69	74
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	34	26	26
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	16	5	0
(d) "No, not at all"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=4.32 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-37

"DO YOU THINK THAT INFORMATION CONCERNING CHANGES
IN AGENCY POLICY SHOULD ALWAYS BE PROVIDED
TO CASEWORKERS BY THEIR SUPERVISORS?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, often"	74	76	100
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	20	22	0
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	3	2	0
(d) "No, not at all"	3	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=6.03, $p < .05$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-38

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR NEEDS TO CONDUCT REGULAR
TRAINING SESSIONS WITH HIS OR HER CASEWORKERS?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, often"	47	36	89
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	37	54	11
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	13	5	0
(d) "No, not at all"	3	5	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=15.37, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-39

"DO YOU THINK THERE IS A NEED FOR A SUPERVISOR TO KEEP RECORDS OF EACH WORKER'S PERFORMANCE?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, detailed records of workers' performance need to be kept by a supervisor"	53	45	47
(b) "Yes, a few such records need to be kept by a supervisor"	47	50	48
(c) "No, such records need not be kept by a supervisor"	0	5	5
(d) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=.45 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), and (d) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-40

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR NEEDS TO ADVISE WORKERS IN PROVIDING CASEWORK SERVICES TO CLIENTS?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, often"	32	33	74
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	50	67	26
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	18	0	0
(d) "No, not at all"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=10.84, $p < .01$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-41

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR NEEDS TO AID THE CASEWORKER
IN MAKING SPECIFIC DECISIONS IN INDIVIDUAL CASES?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, often"	8	19	42
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	60	71	58
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	32	10	0
(d) "No, not at all"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=18.06, $p < .01$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-42

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR SHOULD REVIEW A SPECIFIED
NUMBER OF EACH CASEWORKER'S CASES EVERY MONTH?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, a supervisor should review all of a worker's cases every month"	3	7	15
(b) "Yes, a supervisor should review a selection of a worker's cases every month"	89	76	74
(c) "No, a supervisor should not review a worker's cases, except in special, rare instances"	5	17	11
(d) "No, a supervisor should never review a worker's cases"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	3	0	0*

*Chi square is not appropriate in this instance, as all combinations of categories will yield expected frequencies of less than 5 for more than 20 per cent of the cells.

TABLE Q-43

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR SHOULD DO FIELD WORK?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, often"	0	2	0
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	29	53	47
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	66	45	43
(d) "No, not at all"	5	0	5
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	5*

*Chi sq.=5.56 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a) and (b) and categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-44

"DO YOU THINK THAT YOUR AGENCY'S POLICIES SERVE TO DISRUPT FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS IN CLIENTS' FAMILIES?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	10	0	0
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	45	21	21
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	45	53	53
(d) "No, not at all"	0	21	26
(e) "No opinion"	0	5	0*

*Chi sq.=9.67, $p < .01$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a), (b), and (e) and categories (c) and (d) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-45

"DO YOU THINK THAT YOUR AGENCY'S POLICIES SERVE TO KEEP CHILDREN IN SCHOOL WHO WOULD NOT OTHERWISE BE IN SCHOOL?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	24	14	26
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	63	70	69
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	13	12	0
(d) "No, not at all"	0	2	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	2	5*

*Chi sq.=2.72 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-46

"DO YOU THINK THAT YOUR AGENCY'S POLICIES SERVE TO IMPROVE THE PSYCHOLOGICAL FUNCTIONING OF CLIENTS?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	10	17	32
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	55	69	52
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	32	12	16
(d) "No, not at all"	3	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	2	0*

*Chi sq.=8.15 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-47

"DO YOU THINK THAT YOUR AGENCY'S POLICIES, IN GENERAL,
ALLOW THE CASEWORKER TO PROVIDE CLIENTS WITH THE
SOCIAL SERVICES THEY NEED?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	21	38	42
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	37	53	42
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	34	7	16
(d) "No, not at all"	8	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	2	0*

*Chi sq.=3.68 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-48

"DO YOU THINK THAT YOUR AGENCY'S POLICIES SERVE
TO PREVENT FAMILY DISORGANIZATION?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	5	31	63
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	53	65	32
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	39	2	0
(d) "No, not at all"	3	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	2	5*

*Chi sq.=35.43, $p < .001$ (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-49

"DO YOU THINK THAT YOUR AGENCY'S SERVICES ARE TOO LIMITED TO MEET CLIENTS' NEEDS?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Yes, in most or all cases"	34	10	37
(b) "Yes, in some cases"	37	47	47
(c) "No, only in rare cases"	21	31	16
(d) "No, not at all"	5	10	0
(e) "No opinion"	3	2	0*

*Chi sq.=9.30 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a) and (e) and categories (c) and (d) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE Q-50

"IN GENERAL, HOW WELL DO YOU THINK THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WELFARE /OR COUNTY WELFARE/ IS RUN?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n</u> =38)	CW (<u>n</u> =42)	GA (<u>n</u> =19)
(a) "Very well"	15	24	42
(b) "Fairly well"	58	59	53
(c) "Not very well"	21	7	5
(d) "Not well at all"	3	5	0
(e) "No opinion"	3	5	0*

*Chi sq.=6.91 (NS) (two-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE q-51

"DO YOU THINK THAT YOUR FELLOW WORKERS WILL AGREE
WITH YOUR RESPONSES TO THE ABOVE QUESTIONS
CONCERNING YOUR AGENCY'S POLICIES?"

Response Categories	% in Each Agency		
	AFDC (<u>n=38</u>)	CW (<u>n=42</u>)	GA (<u>n=19</u>)
(a) "Yes, all of my fellow workers will agree"	5	5	0
(b) "Yes, most of my fellow workers will agree"	71	69	58
(c) "No, very few of my fellow workers will agree"	5	11	0
(d) "No, none of my fellow workers will agree"	3	2	5
(e) "No opinion"	16	24	26

*Chi sq. was not computed because it would have required the combining of categories (c), (d), and (e). The "no opinion" responses, however, are considered to require separate treatment in this particular case.

APPENDIX D

RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS BY LEVEL OF
AGREEMENT WITH PROFESSIONAL NORMS

The following tables are numbered according to the questionnaire items which they represent, as were the tables in Appendix C. These tables, which list responses cross-classified by scores on the agreement with professional norms scale, are numbered from "P-1" through "P-51" in order to distinguish them from those in Appendix C.

TABLE P-1

AGE

Age Group	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
30 and over	77	26	33
Under 30	23	74	67*

*Chi sq.=20.85, $p < .0005$ (one-tailed test).

TABLE P-2

SEX

Sex	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
Male	14	16	15
Female	86	84	85*

*Chi sq.=.40 (NS) (one-tailed test).

TABLE P-3

PRESENT POSITION

Position	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
Supervisor	26	16	9
Caseworker	74	84	91*

*Chi sq.=3.33 (NS) (one-tailed test).

TABLE P-4

"HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN EMPLOYED BY THIS AGENCY?"

Time Employed	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
Less than six months	6	10	3
Six months to one year	17	19	27
One to two years	3	61	45
Three to five years	37	10	12
Six to ten years	29	0	9
More than ten years	8	0	3**

*Chi sq.=39.38, $p < .0005$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining the first two and the last two categories to form a 4 x 3 table.

TABLE P-5

"HAVE YOU EVER BEEN EMPLOYED AS A SOCIAL WORKER BY ANY AGENCY OTHER THAN AFDC /CHILD WELFARE, OR COUNTY WELFARE*?"

Previous Social Work Experience	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
Some	51	45	30
None	49	55	70**

*"County Welfare" is the locally used name of the General Assistance Agency.

**Chi sq.-3.24 (NS) (one-tailed test).

TABLE P-6

"DO YOU HAVE A COLLEGE DEGREE?"

Bachelor's Degree	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
Yes	74	79	82
No	26	21	18*

*Chi sq.=.56 (NS) (one-tailed test).

TABLE P-7

"WHAT WAS YOUR UNDERGRADUATE MAJOR IN COLLEGE?"

Undergraduate Major	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
Sociology, Psychology, or Social Work	51	52	42
Other	49	48	58*

*Chi sq.=.73 (NS) (one-tailed test).

TABLE P-8

"HAVE YOU DONE ANY GRADUATE STUDY?
IF SO, TOWARD WHAT DEGREE AND MAJOR?"

Graduate Study and Major	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
None	51	55	73
Social Work	40	19	3
Other	9	26	24*

*Chi sq.=13.98, $p < .0005$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining the "None" and "Other" categories to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-9

"SPECIFY ANY GRADUATE DEGREE THAT YOU HOLD."

Graduate Degree	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
None	80	78	94
Social Work	17	19	0
Other	3	3	6*

*Chi sq. is not appropriate in this instance, as all combinations of categories will yield expected frequencies of less than 5 for more than 20 per cent of the cells.

TABLE P-10

"OF WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING ORGANIZATIONS* ARE YOU . . .
NOW A MEMBER / FORMERLY, BUT NOT NOW A MEMBER?"

Membership in Professional Associations	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (n=35)	% in Medium Rank (n=31)	% in Low Rank (n=33)
Past and Present			
Two or more	43	10	18
One	26	51	24
None	31	39	58***
Present Alone			
Two or more	29	10	9
One	29	35	18
None	42	55	73***

*See Table Q-10, p. 114, for a listing of the organizations.

**Chi sq.=15.63, $p < .005$ (one-tailed test).

***Chi sq.=9.65, $p < .025$ (one-tailed test).

TABLE P-11

"IF YOU CONTINUE WORKING, WOULD YOU WISH TO REMAIN WITH
THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WELFARE /OR COUNTY
WELFARE/ FOR THE REMAINDER OF YOUR CAREER?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (n=35)	% in Medium Rank (n=31)	% in Low Rank (n=33)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	34	7	12
(b) "Yes, probably"	43	45	36
(c) "No, probably not"	14	36	31
(d) "No, definitely not"	3	6	12
(e) "No opinion"	6	6	9*

*Chi sq.=12.50, $p < .01$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE P-12

"IF YOU CONTINUE WORKING, WOULD YOU WISH TO REMAIN IN AFDC
/OR CHILD WELFARE/ FOR THE REMAINDER OF YOUR CAREER?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =25)*	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =26)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =29)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	48	12	14
(b) "Yes, probably"	28	62	41
(c) "No, probably not"	8	15	31
(d) "No, definitely not"	8	0	3
(e) "No opinion"	8	11	11**

* The n in each rank is reduced in this case because this particular questionnaire item was administered only to workers in the AFDC and Child Welfare Agencies.

**Chi sq.=14.53, $p < .005$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE P-13

"IF YOU CONTINUE WORKING, WOULD YOU WISH TO REMAIN IN
SOCIAL WORK FOR THE REMAINDER OF YOUR CAREER?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	91	71	48
(b) "Yes, probably"	9	26	36
(c) "No, probably not"	0	0	12
(d) "No, definitely not"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	3	3*

*Chi sq.=15.12, $p < .0005$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-14

"WOULD YOU PREFER SOCIAL WORK TO ANY OTHER
CAREER WHICH YOU MIGHT ENTER?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (n=35)	% in Medium Rank (n=31)	% in Low Rank (n=33)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	80	58	45
(b) "Yes, with few exceptions"	20	42	45
(c) "No, I would prefer many other careers to social work"	0	0	10
(d) "No, I definitely do not wish to make so- cial work my career"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=8.81, $p < .01$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-15

"DO YOU EXPECT TO DO GRADUATE WORK AT A
SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (n=35)	% in Medium Rank (n=31)	% in Low Rank (n=33)
(a) "Yes, definitely" or "Already hold MSW"	49	49	30
(b) "Yes, probably"	20	32	27
(c) "No, probably not"	14	16	34
(d) "No, definitely not"	14	0	6
(e) "No opinion"	3	3	3*

*Chi sq.=4.81 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE P-16

"WOULD YOU DO GRADUATE WORK AT A SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK IF YOU OBTAINED A GOOD SCHOLARSHIP FROM THE SCHOOL?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, definitely" or "Already hold MSW"	60	52	37
(b) "Yes, probably"	14	42	42
(c) "No, probably not"	9	6	9
(d) "No, definitely not"	11	0	6
(e) "No opinion"	6	0	6*

*Chi sq.=11.01, $p < .025$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE P-17

"IF THE SALARIES WERE THE SAME, WOULD YOU RATHER WORK IN A PRIVATE AGENCY THAN IN A PUBLIC AGENCY?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	9	6	3
(b) "Yes, probably"	11	13	15
(c) "No, probably not"	31	52	52
(d) "No, definitely not"	29	13	6
(e) "No opinion"	20	16	24*

*Chi sq.=8.24 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a) and (b) to form a 4 x 3 table.

TABLE P-18

"WOULD YOU RATHER WORK IN CHILD WELFARE OR AFDC/ THAN
IN AFDC OR CHILD WELFARE/*?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =25)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =26)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =29)
(a) "Yes, definitely"	4	0	3
(b) "Yes, probably"	12	0	14
(c) "No, probably not"	20	46	28
(d) "No, definitely not"	48	54	55
(e) "No opinion"	16	0	0**

*This item was not administered to employees of the General Assistance Agency.

**Chi sq.=.30 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a), (b) and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-19

"WOULD YOU LIKE TO BE A CASEWORK SUPERVISOR?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, definitely" and "Already hold this position"	43	36	21
(b) "Yes, probably"	20	32	30
(c) "No, probably not"	11	26	25
(d) "No, definitely not"	11	3	18
(e) "No opinion"	15	3	6*

*Chi sq.=4.66 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE P-20

"HOW ESSENTIAL IS FOUR YEARS (OR THE EQUIVALENT) OF UNDERGRADUATE COLLEGE TRAINING TO THE ADEQUATE PERFORMANCE OF THE SOCIAL CASEWORKER'S JOB?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Absolutely essential"	60	65	52
(b) "Very helpful, but not essential"	40	29	24
(c) "Somewhat helpful, but not at all essential"	0	6	24
(d) "Not at all helpful"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=1.16 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-21

"HOW ESSENTIAL IS GRADUATE SOCIAL WORK TRAINING TO THE ADEQUATE PERFORMANCE OF THE SOCIAL CASEWORKER'S JOB?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Absolutely essential"	23	29	18
(b) "Very helpful, but not essential"	65	61	58
(c) "Somewhat helpful, but not at all essential"	6	10	18
(d) "Not at all helpful"	0	0	3
(e) "No opinion"	6	0	3*

*Chi sq.=3.73 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE P-22

"HOW ESSENTIAL IS FOUR YEARS (OR THE EQUIVALENT) OF UNDERGRADUATE COLLEGE TRAINING TO THE ADEQUATE PERFORMANCE OF THE SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISOR'S JOB?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (n=35)	% in Medium Rank (n=31)	% in Low Rank (n=33)
(a) "Absolutely essential"	74	81	64
(b) "Very helpful, but not essential"	17	13	18
(c) "Somewhat helpful, but not at all essential"	3	6	12
(d) "Not at all helpful"	0	0	3
(e) "No opinion"	6	0	3*

*Chi sq.=3.40 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-23

"HOW ESSENTIAL IS GRADUATE SOCIAL WORK TRAINING TO THE ADEQUATE PERFORMANCE OF THE SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISOR'S JOB?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (n=35)	% in Medium Rank (n=31)	% in Low Rank (n=33)
(a) "Absolutely essential"	69	61	42
(b) "Very helpful, but not essential"	22	29	42
(c) "Somewhat helpful, but not at all essential"	3	10	13
(d) "Not at all helpful"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	6	0	3*

*Chi sq.=5.01, $p < .05$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-24

"WHAT WOULD YOU SUGGEST AS THE MOST PRACTICAL MINIMUM EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENT FOR HIRING CASEWORKERS IN YOUR AGENCY?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (n=35)	% in Medium Rank (n=31)	% in Low Rank (n=33)
(a) Master of Social Work	0	3	0
(b) Bachelor's degree, with a major in psychology or sociology	37	36	36
(c) Bachelor's degree, regardless of major	52	45	49
(d) Two years undergraduate college education	11	13	15
(e) No formal minimum education requirement	0	3	0*

*Chi sq.=.45 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a) and (b) and categories (d) and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE P-25

"WHAT WOULD YOU SUGGEST AS THE MOST PRACTICAL MINIMUM EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENT FOR HIRING CASEWORK SUPERVISORS IN YOUR AGENCY?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (n=35)	% in Medium Rank (n=31)	% in Low Rank (n=33)
(a) Master of Social Work	66	65	48
(b) Bachelor's degree, with a major in psychology or sociology	17	16	28
(c) Bachelor's degree, regardless of major	14	16	21
(d) Two years undergraduate college education	0	0	3
(e) No formal minimum education requirement	3	3	0*

*Chi sq.=2.70 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

(Questionnaire items 26-35 make up the scale measuring agreement with professional norms. Therefore, these items are not included in this group of tables, which are cross-classified by this same scale. See Appendix C, pp. 122-127 for listing of the responses to these ten items, cross-classified by agency.)

TABLE P-36

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR SHOULD
HELP DETERMINE AGENCY POLICY?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, often"	77	65	45
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	23	29	31
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	0	6	18
(d) "No, not at all"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=7.36, $p < .025$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-37

"DO YOU THINK THAT INFORMATION CONCERNING CHANGES
IN AGENCY POLICY SHOULD ALWAYS BE PROVIDED
TO CASEWORKERS BY THEIR SUPERVISORS?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, often"	77	81	82
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	20	19	12
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	3	0	3
(d) "No, not at all"	0	0	3
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=.25 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-38

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR NEEDS TO CONDUCT REGULAR
TRAINING SESSIONS WITH HIS OR HER CASEWORKERS?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, often"	63	58	30
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	28	39	52
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	6	3	12
(d) "No, not at all"	3	0	6
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=8.23, $p < .01$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-39

"DO YOU THINK THERE IS A NEED FOR A SUPERVISOR
TO KEEP RECORDS OF EACH WORKER'S PERFORMANCE?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, detailed records of worker's performance need to be kept by a supervisor"	54	52	39
(b) "Yes, a few such records need to be kept by a supervisor"	43	45	58
(c) "No, such records need not be kept by a supervisor"	3	3	3
(d) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=1.68 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), and (d) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-40

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR NEEDS TO ADVISE WORKERS
IN PROVIDING CASEWORK SERVICES TO CLIENTS?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, often"	46	52	24
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	45	45	64
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	9	3	9
(d) "No, not at all"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	3*

*Chi sq.=5.61, $p < .05$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (b), (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-41

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR NEEDS TO AID THE CASEWORKER
IN MAKING SPECIFIC DECISIONS IN INDIVIDUAL CASES?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, often"	26	19	12
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	57	68	70
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	17	13	18
(d) "No, not at all"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	0*

*Chi sq.=2.42 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 3 x 3 table.

TABLE P-42

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR SHOULD REVIEW A SPECIFIED
NUMBER OF EACH CASEWORKER'S CASES EVERY MONTH?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, . . . all cases"*	11	0	9
(b) "Yes, . . . a selection of cases"	83	90	70
(c) "No, . . . except in spe- cial, rare cases"	6	10	18
(d) "No, . . . never"	0	0	0
(e) "No opinion"	0	0	3**

*Complete wording of these categories is given in Table Q-42, p. 130.

**Chi sq. is not appropriate in this instance as all combinations of categories will yield expected frequencies of less than 5 for more than 20 per cent of the cells.

TABLE P-43

"DO YOU THINK A SUPERVISOR SHOULD DO FIELD WORK?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (n=35)	% in Medium Rank (n=31)	% in Low Rank (n=33)
(a) "Yes, often"	0	3	0
(b) "Yes, occasionally"	46	42	39
(c) "No, only in special, rare instances"	48	55	55
(d) "No, not at all"	3	0	6
(e) "No opinion"	3	0	0*

*Chi sq.=.33 (NS) (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a) and (b) and categories (c), (d), and (e) to form a 2 x 3 table.

TABLE P-44-50*

CONCEPTIONS OF AGENCY EFFECTIVENESS SCALE

Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale	Rank on Conceptions of Agency Effectiveness Scale		
	% in High Rank	% in Medium Rank	% in Low Rank
High (n=35)	44	27	29
Medium (n=31)	29	39	32
Low (n=33)	27	31	42**

*Questionnaire items 44-50 make up the scale measuring conceptions of agency effectiveness. In this table, the ranked scale groups are cross-classified by agreement with professional norms, rather than the responses to the specific seven items. See Appendix C, pp. 131-134, for listing of these responses, cross-classified by agency.

**Chi sq.=3.37 (NS) (one-tailed test).

TABLE P-51

"DO YOU THINK THAT YOUR FELLOW WORKERS WILL AGREE
WITH YOUR RESPONSES TO THE ABOVE QUESTIONS
CONCERNING YOUR AGENCY'S POLICIES?"

Response Categories	Rank on Agreement with Professional Norms Scale		
	% in High Rank (<u>n</u> =35)	% in Medium Rank (<u>n</u> =31)	% in Low Rank (<u>n</u> =33)
(a) "Yes, all of my fellow workers will agree"	0	6	6
(b) "Yes, most of my fellow workers will agree"	57	79	70
(c) "No, very few of my fellow workers will agree"	6	6	0
(d) "No, none of my fellow workers will agree"	6	3	0
(e) "No opinion"	31	6	24*

*Chi sq.=6.41, $p < .025$ (one-tailed test). Chi sq. was computed by combining categories (a), (b), (c), and (d) to form a 2 x 3 table.

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