UNIVERSITY OF NATAL

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

THE EMPLOYMENT, OCCUPATIONAL WASTAGE, OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AND WORK SATISFACTIONS OF SOCIAL WORKERS: A STUDY OF THE EUROPEAN FEMALE SOCIAL WORK GRADUATES OF THE UNIVERSITIES OF NATAL AND THE WITWATERSRAND, 1955 TO 1965.

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Social Science in the Department of Social Work, University of Natal.

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B. M.

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INTRODUCTION

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INTRODUCTION

Henry J. Meyer has pointed out that one mark of professionalization is a self-consciousness about manpower: its quality and quantity, its sources and destinies, its competence to render socially needed services.[1]

The "self-consciousness" of professional people about manpower is not brought about by idle interest or passing curiosity: a profession's practitioners are its life blood. Their nature, training, availability, experience and longevity are vital factors in determining professional standards and professional services.

The emergent profession of social work is no exception to the foregoing comments. Indeed, Francel has gone so far as to say that the effectiveness of social work in fulfilling its function in society is "directly related to the competence, interest and motivation of the individuals who comprise the profession".[2]

This research study is prompted by a concern about social work manpower. It has its origins in the findings of a 1966 investigation into the work patterns of Durban Social Workers, which revealed high rates of occupational mobility and occupational wastage, particularly amongst European female practitioners.[3]

The present study seeks to follow-on from the earlier Durban investigation. Its focus is upon the work movements of European

female social workers, their motivations in taking and leaving jobs, and the satisfactions that they desire from work. The end purpose is to provide data that will aid a better understanding of social welfare manpower, and thus assist in manpower planning.

1. The aims of this study

The aims of this study are three-fold:-

Firstly, to establish the reasons for white female social workers' occupational mobility and occupational wastage;

Secondly, to establish the work satisfaction priorities of white female social workers;

Thirdly, to use the data obtained on occupational wastage, occupational mobility and work satisfactions, as a basis for testing two tentative hypotheses.

The two tentative hypotheses put forward for testing both concern the effect of a wife-mother role on the social worker's work performance.

The first hypothesis postulates a relationship between female social workers' wife-mother roles and their occupational wastage. The second hypothesis postulates that the need of some female social workers to accommodate conflicting work and home demands will have two consequences. On the one hand, they will give high work satisfaction importance to aspects of work which reduce, or compensate for, work-home role conflict. On the other hand, they will give low work

satisfaction importance to aspects of work associated with long-term career goals.

2. An overview of this dissertation

This dissertation concerns a study of the employment, occupational wastage, occupational mobility and work satisfactions of European female social work graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand, 1955 to 1965. The dissertation is divided into four sections:-

In Part I (Chapter 1), a general introduction is provided.

In Part II (Chapters 2, 3 and 4), the theoretical perspectives for this study are surveyed. This includes a discussion of social work's professional status; social work manpower; social work as "work"; and finally, an examination of female social workers, with focus upon the implications of dual work-home roles.

In Part III (Chapters 5 to 11, inclusive), the research study is presented. The first two chapters include a discussion of research design and methodology, and a description of respondents. Successive chapters deal with different aspects of the findings: employment and occupational wastage; occupational mobility; first jobs in social work; work satisfaction; and an assessment of respondents' "most recent" jobs in terms of their work satisfaction priorities.

In Part IV (Chapter 12), the main findings are presented and discussed. On the basis of the findings, conclusions are drawn, and

recommendations are put forward.

3. Methods of obtaining data

(i) Bibliographic

Bibliographic information was obtained by surveying the main sources available, commencing with the most recent editions, and working back 20 years. The main references were the International Index,[4] and Sociological Abstracts.[5] In addition, references were obtained from the bibliographies of books and journals consulted.

Much of the previous research and formulation of theory in the area covered by this study is contained in unpublished dissertations and theses. The investigator thus made extensive use of the Inter-Library Loan Service to obtain unpublished manuscripts. Where the unpublished work of other investigators is included in this study, full acknowledgement is provided.

(ii) Research

A research study was carried out. This consisted of five stages:-

a. From late 1968 to May 1970 efforts were made to trace the current addresses of European female social work graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand, 1955 to 1965. By May, 1970, the addresses of 111 of the 117 graduates had been obtained.

b. During 1969, a draft questionnaire was constructed. The questionnaire was designed to elicit information on employment and occupational wastage, occupational mobility, and work satisfactions.

c. In March 1970, the final questionnaire draft was pre-tested on a group of 27 social workers employed by a large Johannesburg social welfare agency. As a result of the pre-test, one minor change was made to the questionnaire form.

d. In July 1970, questionnaires were posted to the 111 European female social work graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand, who formed the universe for study. By the end of October, 1970, 86 of the 111 social workers (or 77.47%) had returned their completed questionnaires. The questionnaires were subjected to analysis.

e. Finally, during June 1971, the 86 respondents to this study were each sent a supplementary questionnaire, asking them what they meant by the term "interesting work". Of the 86 respondents, 77 (or 89.5%) returned a completed supplementary questionnaire.

4. Limitations

In a dissertation such as this, where narrow aspects of a wide area are being investigated, a certain amount of selectivity is necessary. Thus, there is the possibility of bias in the data obtained.

Wherever possible, objective data is used to support qualitative or quantitative generalisations. Nevertheless, the limited purview of this dissertation precludes full explanations being made in support of all trends and patterns that are identified.

A number of limitations can be noted in the methodology of this study. Firstly, the sample includes respondents with two types of qualifications (i.e. 3- and 4-year social work degrees), and this may be a source of bias. Secondly, the postal questionnaire is not the best research tool when accurate, complete data is required. Thirdly, there are drawbacks in the use of respondents as the sole source of information about their own work histories: data may be distorted by selective memory, or by the rationalization of unconscious motivations. Fourthly, the interpretation of findings is limited by difficulties that are inherent in the classification of data.

Finally, the findings of this study are of limited applicability. Findings cannot be generalised to all social workers, and must be restricted to the particular respondents studied.

5. Explanatory statements

Specific meanings are given to a number of terms that are widely used in this study:-

A career is "a succession of related jobs, arranged in a hierarchy of prestige, through which persons move in an ordered, predictable sequence".[6]

A field of social work is "an area of social work practice, within which social workers operate". Fields are normally distinguished by the problem of particular concern to personnel engaged in the area: for example, the field of child and family welfare is especially concerned with the well-being of children and families. However, there is one exception to this rule: the field of the "Department of Social Welfare and Pensions" is used to designate the wide area of social work activity in which this particular State social welfare agency is involved.

Employment can be of two types. Full-time employment refers to "a job for which the worker is employed to work the full number of hours per month customary for the occupation and agency". Part-time employment refers to "a job for which the worker is employed to work less than the number of hours per month customary for the occupation and agency".

Interesting work is used to mean "work which gives the worker personal satisfaction". This interpretation of "interesting work" is in accordance with the meaning given to the term by the large majority of respondents in this study (See pp170 to171 , infra).

Occupational mobility is a term used to designate "the movement of a social worker from one social work job to another". It does not include movement from one appointment to another within the same agency (e.g. on promotion), nor does it include the transfer of a social worker from one branch of an agency to another branch of the same organization.

Occupational wastage is a term used to mean "absence from paid social work employment by a social worker".

Opportunities for professional improvement refers to "opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc." It is thus different from opportunities for professional advancement, which refers exclusively to promotion.

Service conditions concern the conditions of service upon which a social worker is engaged by her employer. They include salary scales, medical aid, sick leave, vacation leave, pension plans, and so forth. Working conditions, on the other hand, refer to the conditions under which the social worker carries out her work. They include office space, availability of transport, secretarial assistance, actual hours of work required, etc.

A social worker is a person who is eligible for registration as a "registered social worker" in terms of regulations made under the National Welfare Act, No. 79 of 1965.[7]

Work satisfactions refer to the gratifications which a social worker can obtain from paid social work employment. Work dissatisfactions refer to discontents which the social worker can experience from paid social work employment.

In addition to the foregoing terms, other words and phrases are ascribed specific meanings in particular sections or sub-sections of this dissertation. In such cases, the words and phrases are defined at appropriate points in the text.

6. Brief outline of the findings

Respondents show a greater rate of occupational mobility and occupational wastage than social workers in any other study known to the investigator. They spend : two-thirds of their potential working lives outside the profession, and when they do work, their average length of job is only 14.59 months. The largest part of their service to social work is in their younger, less-experienced years. Part-time employment forms a minor part of all employment (6.9%).

Family responsibilities are the principal cause of both occupational wastage and occupational mobility.

Conditions of employment and practice in respondents' "most recent" social work jobs fall far short of the ideal. The most prominent short-comings concern unreasonable work loads, a lack of supervision and guidance for less experienced workers, inadequate salary, poor working conditions, and an unwillingness of some agency policy-making authorities to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff.

More than one out of four reasons for resignation concern specific job dissatisfactions. Job-dissatisfaction is particularly prevalent in resignation from first jobs.

Respondents have different work satisfaction priorities in the "ideal" and "realistic" situations. In the realistic situation, they give a higher priority to "interesting work" and "adequate salary".

However, in both the ideal and realistic situations, they give high work satisfaction importance to a social work service being of "real value" to the community.

Respondents place little value on some aspects of work that are associated with long-term career goals. In both the ideal and realistic situations, they give lowest work satisfaction importance to "service conditions" and "opportunities for professional improvement". In their actual work movements, only 4 out of 198 jobs are accepted because they represent "promotion".

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PART II : THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Chapter 2

SOCIAL WORK AND SOCIAL WORKERS

Chapter 2

SOCIAL WORK AND SOCIAL WORKERS

Any study concerned with the work patterns and work satisfactions of social workers must perforce take as its starting point an examination of the functions of social work in society, the standing of social work as a profession, and social work's manpower position, as each of these factors can be considered to have influence upon work behaviour, work gratifications and work discontents.

1. Social Work Defined

Many social workers might agree with Joseph Eaton[1] that the question "What is Social Work?", is not capable of a simple answer. As recently as 1951, Hollis and Taylor[2] wrote that both social work and social workers should be looked upon as evolving concepts that are yet too fluid for precise definition, and perhaps it is the evolutionary nature of social work that makes the different attempts at describing it so varied.

The literature shows that social work can be defined in terms of its goals and functions[3], its distinguishing characteristics[4], its points of difference from allied professions[5], its professional characteristics[6], in terms of the social worker's activities[7], and as an art with a scientific basis[8]. The particular definition or description chosen by a writer will often depend upon the context in which he is using it and the particular purpose that he has in mind, for as Friedlander has indicated, no universally accepted agreement has been reached on the terminology

that will consisely describe the concept of "Social Work"[9].

A definition of social work in terms of its activities is contained in the National Welfare Act, No. 79 of 1965[10]:-

"(a) individual treatment as a means or form of social assistance,
(b) group work as a means or form of social assistance,
(c) community organisation for the promotion of social assistance,
(d) the administration of any or all of the activities referred to in paragraphs (a) or (b),
(e) research in connection with any or all of the activities referred to in paragraph (a), (b), (c), or (d) and
(f) vocational training for the performance of any or all of the activities referred to in paragraph (a), (b), (c), (d), or (e)"

The foregoing description of social work limits itself to a listing of some of the activities of social workers as they existed at the time that the National Welfare Act was promulgated. The description does not reflect the goals and functions of social work, other than by the ambiguous phrase, "social assistance"; nor does it indicate social work's preventive, promotive and therapeutic dimensions. In addition, the description implies that the activities of social workers will remain constant, rather than evolving to meet changing societal needs.

For these reasons, the writer elects to use a more dynamic and less rigid description of social work in this dissertation, and for this purpose chooses Boehm's 1959 definition of social work and its functions in society[11]:-

"Social work seeks to enhance the social functioning of individuals, singly and in groups, by activities focused upon their social relationships which constitute the interaction between man and his environment. These activities can be grouped into three functions: restoration of impaired capacity, provision of individual and social resources, and prevention of social dysfunction."

2. Social Work as a profession

A profession is defined by the Oxford English Dictionary as, "A vocation in which the professed knowledge of some department of learning is used in its application to the affairs of others, or in the practice of an art based upon it".[12]

Any examination of social work's standing as a profession must necessarily be prefaced by a brief historical survey of the growing emphasis on professionalism that has become characteristic of twentieth century living.

Carr-Saunders and Wilson have studied the history of professionalism and they postulate that while early professional groups such as apothecaries and surgeons arose as distinct groups for the purposes of self-protection and healing with newly-acquired methods[13], different forces arose to encourage professionalism from the late nineteenth century onwards. The principal force was increased industrialization, which led to an expanding technology, the division of labour, and the necessary growth of specialization; which in turn made an increased tendency to professionalism almost inevitable[14].

In addition to external societal pressures towards specialization, and thus professionalism, there are internal factors within occupational groups that serve to make professionalism a desired objective. Wilensky and Lebeaux have analysed these internal forces and identify them as three of the rewards of professional life: high status; high income; and the combination of the service ideal and the creation of a sense of internal community which gives new meaning to a job[15]. Meyer agrees with Wilensky and Lebeaux that the advantages of professional status are

real, but he particularly emphasises the reward of prestige, explaining that in a society where individual statuses tend to be achieved rather than ascribed, occupational prestige is of major importance[16].

(i) The criteria for a profession

The criteria for evaluating whether or not an occupation is a profession are various. Some recent indices are based upon whether or not the occupation has exclusive expertise in a branch of learning which can be applied as an art; others establish a set of stages through which an occupation must pass in order to become a profession; still others are based upon a set of essential requirements, obtained through the analysis of established professions. A cross-section of such recent indices is briefly discussed below.

Carr-Saunders, in his 1955 statement on the classification of professions, divides professions and aspirant professions into four categories, with the basic index being a profession's exclusive ability to formulate and apply its own knowledge. Firstly, there are old-established professions, such as law and medicine, founded on the study of a department of learning, which in turn is used in the practise of an art. Secondly, there are the new professions, which have their own fundamental studies upon which their art is based (e.g. engineering, psychology). Thirdly, there are what Carr-Saunders terms "semi-professions", where theoretical study in a field of learning is replaced by the acquisition of precise technical skill. Occupations such as social work and nursing fall into this category. Fourthly, there are the would-be professions, where members aspire to professional status (e.g. personnel managers).[17]

Carr-Saunders' categorization represents the traditional view of professionalism, while other writers have taken different stands. Caplow, for example, has analysed the stages through which an occupation must pass in order to become a full profession. He visualises four stages, the first being the establishment of a professional association, with definite membership criteria designed to keep out the unqualified. Secondly, there is a change of occupational title, which serves the multiple function of reducing identification with the previous occupational status; asserting a technical monopoly; and providing a title which can be monopolised, the former one being usually in the public domain. An example of such a change of title would be the change from "social worker" to "registered social worker". Thirdly, there is the development and promulgation of a code of ethics which asserts the social utility of the occupation, sets up a public welfare rationale, and imposes a real and permanent limitation on internal competition. Lastly, there is prolonged agitation to obtain legal sanctions for the maintenance of occupational barriers, where the professional group is legally allocated sole prerogative in the carrying-out of certain acts.[18]

Other writers, such as Taylor, Goode, and Greenwood, have adopted the approach of studying professions, and attempting to synthesise the essential ingredients of professionalism. Taylor establishes these as expertise, autonomy, commitment, and responsibility[19]. Goode, viewing professions as communities within the community, isolates characteristics of a "professional community": members are bound by a sense of identity, common values, common professional language, and agreed role definitions of members and non-members; the community has power over its members, provides limitations of professional function, and controlls the next professional generation by selecting recruits and exposing them to a socialization process; and finally, once acquired, the professional role

normally remains with the person for life[20]. Greenwood limits his professional criteria to five points: systematic theory; professional authority; community sanction; a code of ethics; and a professional culture[21].

It becomes clear when surveying these various approaches to analysing an occupation's professional status, that whether or not an occupation is found to be a profession, depends to a large extent on the particular index of professionalism chosen by the investigator.

(ii) Is social work a profession?

Before submitting the occupation of social work to analysis in terms of a selected index of professionalism, it is helpful to examine the controversy that, since 1915, has bedevilled discussion of social work's professional standing.

Flexner is usually cited in the literature as the person firing the first shot in what is still an argument. Addressing the National Conference of Social Work in 1915, Flexner argued that social work was not a profession because it lacked a distinctive method and technique that could be systematically transmitted. He saw the main function of social work to be that of helping people to get in touch with persons possessing professional skill[22]. Thirty-six years later, Hollis and Taylor wrote that in their opinion, only the hard core of social work in the United States could be said to have attained satisfactory professional status[23], and in the decade of the 1960's the controversy was still raging. Hall, a social worker, was confident enough to assert that "Today (in 1964) there is probably no argument over the proposition that social work is a profession"[24]; but within four years,

Berger wrote: "A distinct and transmissible body of knowledge is where many new professions are found lacking .. what, after all, is the body of knowledge that belongs to social work?" (writer's emphasis)[25].

It would seem that central to the consideration of whether or not social work is a profession, is the issue of a distinct body of knowledge. Wilensky and Lebeaux have commented that no group can claim a monopoly of humanitarian philosophy[26], but Meyer, while conceding this point, argues that it is the conjunction of competence with knowledge and responsibility, rather than exclusiveness, that gives a profession its authority, even though this authority may for some professions be confirmed in law or by other means.[27]

Pollak, viewing the same issue, dismisses contention about social work not having a specific body of knowledge, and writes that, "The old complaint of not having a specific and clearly identifiable sphere of knowledge becomes less and less convincing in a time when all established disciplines recognise the need for inter-disciplinary integration".[28]

Against the background of this continuing argument, it is possible to assess social work's status as a profession in the contemporary South African context. In doing so, the writer elects to use Greenwood's index of professionalism, for two reasons: firstly, Greenwood constructed his index by a careful canvass of the literature on professions, and he distilled out the five distinguishing characteristics of a profession on which a general consensus exists among students of the subject[29]; and secondly, the same index has been used in the literature to assess the contemporary professional status of American social work[30;31], and a basis of comparison is thus available. For the purpose of analysis, Greenwood's five criteria are taken individually.

Firstly, systematic theory. Although social work cannot claim to have the same deep background of systematic theory that characterises medicine and some other older-established professions, claim can be made to social work possessing the beginnings of systematic theory, in a transmissible form. Schools and Departments of Social Work have a range of social work texts and knowledge on which to draw in the teaching of both primary and secondary social work processes, and the amount of published theory is increasing rapidly. Although much of the systematic theory used in South African social work education and practice emanates from foreign sources (principally the United States of America, England and Holland), social work is an occupation with an international flavour, where systematic knowledge developed in one country is often applicable with minor modification in another. At the same time, South African social workers are themselves becoming involved with the building of systematic theory and knowledge. Social work research is conducted by all the Universities, and by the Research and Information section of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. In regard to research under University auspices, it is of note that in 1967, 10.56% of all social work students were registered for post-graduate degrees[32], which, depending on the specific degree, all involve practical social work research to a minor or major extent.

Greenwood's second criterion is that of professional authority. In South Africa, the social worker has an established official identity and authority. Section 33 of the National Welfare Act, No. 79 of 1965, makes provision for the registration of social workers, and such registration is presently under way. The Act also provides legal sanction against unregistered persons using the title, "registered social worker". Social workers occupy positions of responsibility by virtue of their knowledge and skills (such as the Social Welfare Officer who is an

officer of the court, and who can be called upon to recommend suitable treatment procedures to magistrates), and the professional authority of social workers is recognised by older-established professions, such as medicine and psychiatry, with whose members social workers work in inter-disciplinary teams. In addition, trained social workers in the employment of the State have been accorded professional status since 1955. Finally, social workers' professional authority is recognised by their clients, who generally come to the social worker for help on a voluntary basis.

Thirdly, the criterion of community sanction. Community sanction is inherent in the settings in which South African social workers practice: they are almost always employed directly by the community (in community or church welfare organisations) or indirectly employed by the community through Provincial or State bodies. Social work education is normally carried out at Universities whose charters have been legally created by the community through Parliament, while much of the cost of social work education is borne by the community through taxation and rates, and subsequent grants by the Central Government and local authorities to educational institutions.

In regard to a code of ethics, South African social workers do not have a code to which all social workers subscribe, but Auret has noted that the matter of an ethical code has received considerable attention from social workers[33], and the Social Work Commission of the National Welfare Board have stated that they have decided, "To leave the matter of an ethical code in the hands of the professional association for the present"[34].

Finally, Greenwood's fifth criterion is that of a professional culture. A professional culture is apparent in South African social work at a number of levels. White social workers have a professional association that has existed on a National basis since 1951[35], and the association is recognised as being representative of the profession[36]. The National Welfare Board has a Social Work Commission charged with responsibility for professional social work, and in particular, the development of standards for academic qualifications and professional and ethical conduct[37]. Social work has a National professional journal, Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk, and in addition, two other journals publish material of direct relevance to the professional Social Worker (the Journal of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, and Rehabilitation in South Africa). Educational Institutions training social workers participate in a liaison organisation, the Joint Universities' Committee on Social Work, and social work teachers confer together at an annual meeting.

In the United States of America, Greenwood concluded that, on a basis of his five criteria,

> "Social work is already a profession, it has too many points of congruence with the model to be classified otherwise. Social work is, however, seeking to rise within the professional hierarchy, so that it, too, might enjoy maximum prestige, authority and monopoly which presently belong to a few top professions."[38]

In South Africa, social work would seem to partially meet only four of Greenwood's five criteria, and in terms of his index of professionalism, South African social work cannot be classified as fully professional, although it can be described as having a beginning similarity with some of the traits of fully-established professions.

(iii) Some implications of semi-professional standing

Contemporary sociologists have studied occupations such as social work, nursing, librarianship and teaching, which they term "semi-professions", and have postulated a unique set of distinguishing characteristics for these occupations, in comparison to the full professions of medicine, law and the ministry: their training is shorter, their status is less legitimated, their right to privileged communication less established, there is less of a specialised body of knowledge, and they have less autonomy from supervision and societal control.[39]

The position of social work as a semi-profession in society gives rise to a number of consequences, all of which have far-reaching implications for social work and its practitioners.

A primary consequence of social work's semi-professional standing is that social workers may be tempted to strive for unrealistically high professional status. Such striving can be prompted by a number of stimuli. For example, an increased professional status for social work could be viewed by social workers as an advantageous prospect, with the potential of giving social work and its practitioners enhanced prestige, reward and power. Another stimulus could be that social workers are unable to find themselves a comfortable niche between the white collar statuses and the full professions, and not wishing to identify with the former group, they might aspire to the status of full professional[40].

Striving for full professional status, desirable as it may be, is not without disadvantages, both for the aspirant professional and for his occupational group. In the case of semi-professional people such

as social workers, Etzioni suggests that they will have a guilty feeling from pretending to high status without valid reason, and that they will experience rejection by professional persons who hold the status legitimately.[41]

For social work as a whole, however, aspiring to higher professional status may have two serious consequences: firstly, the social worker may withdraw from close relationships with clients; and secondly, social workers may develop a tendency to conformity, rather than an inclination towards militant or contentious social action. Evidence exists in the social work literature to support both of these suggestions.

Caplan, for example, has made a strong case for professionalism in social work leading to a reluctance on the part of social workers to engage in deep relationships with clients. He considers that excessive preoccupation with professionalism can increase the distance between the professional person and his client, to the detriment of the helping relationship.[42]

Bisno has concentrated on the second disadvantage of professionalism to social work. He argues that becoming "professionalized" involves grasping for higher professional status and emphasising refined methods and techniques, rather than goals, and contends that this will have three outcomes, all against the traditional interests of social work: firstly, there will be a de-emphasis on controversial social action; secondly, there will be lessening of attempts to influence social policy, and the acceptance of the role of technician-implementer; and thirdly, there will be a change in the ideology of social work that will lessen the gap between social work's system of ideas, and that of the dominant groups in society.[43] Bisno is supported by Rapoport, who

takes the view that social work is a profession in a minority position, and as such, will be more liable to assume conformity as a value, as a means of gaining greater status in the community[44].

It is not impossible that the dangers of professionalism identified by Bisno and Rapoport may have had some part in inhibiting social action and controversial social intervention by South African social workers. For example, it is interesting that despite South Africa's complex and far-reaching social problems, there is an almost total absence, in the local social work literature, of a concern with social action. In addition, professional social workers seem to have ignored appeals by prominent social work leaders to take a wider role in South African affairs. In 1954, such an appeal was made by Theron. She said:

> "Ek glo dat die wereld professionele maatskaplike werkers noding het, ons is mense wat ook glo aan ideale; wat ook glo aan menslike waardigheid en waardes. Ons moet ook meer ons stemme laat hoor daar buite in ons gemeenskappe en in die land as geheel as ons sien dat dinge verkeerd is.
>
> Die wereld het behoofte aan ons soort mense; behoefte aan mense wat helder en logies kan dink en wat die moed het om met die waarheid voor die dag te kom en te veg as dit nodig is.
>
> Ek glo dat ons professie 'n belangrike bydrae kan lewer tot die menslike welvaart, vir die individu, die gemeenskap, die land, die wereld."[45]

But the passing of the years seems to have done little in realising the promise and potential of professional social workers in the active improvement of society, and in the late 1960's, calls were still being made by prominent social workers for the profession to accept the challenges facing it. An editorial in a 1968 South African social work journal, for example, pointed out the urgent attention that was required in many areas of social need in South Africa, and asked:"What will be the contribution of Social Work and the Social Worker during these challenging times?" [46]

The answer to this question is not known. However, it can be suspected that a preoccupation with professionalism may not be unassociated with the South African social worker's apparent reluctance to become involved in contentious social action.

The implications of semi-professional standing do not begin and end with a temptation for social workers to strive for higher professional status, but extend into all aspects of professional functioning, including recruitment and manpower for social work.

For recruitment and manpower, the primary consequence of social work's semi-professional standing is that the profession may be more attractive to females than to males. Simpson and Simpson have presented a case for this point of view, and they suggest that the conditions under which semi-professionals work (generally within bureaucratic structures, under supervision, and with reduced professional autonomy in comparison to the full professions) may be more acceptable to females than to males[47]. The Simpsons go on to point out that a large number of female practitioners may lead to two happenings: female social workers will often have interrupted work patterns due to marriage and family demands[48], and they may be less likely than males to expect their major life satisfactions to come from their work.[49]

3. Manpower for Social Work

In examining social work's manpower position, three aspects of manpower would seem to require investigation: the nature of recruits drawn into the profession, the type of professional education to which they are submitted, and the nature and characteristics of social workers

themselves.

(i) Who chooses social work?

The nature of neophytes drawn into an occupational group is particularly important for those occupational groups who possess, or aspire to,professional status, as the quality and motivation of the beginner has bearing on the maintenance and development of professional standards. Of all the professional and semi-professional groups with the possible exception of psychiatry and clinical psychology, social work has the strongest interest in the characteristics of the recruit: in social work, the social worker is herself the principal helping tool, and her ability to use herself with purposeful skill is a prerequisite to effective social work practice.

Three aspects of recruitment to social work merit particular attention. They are the influences upon the prospective student that determine her choice of career; the numbers of persons who enter the career, as sufficient numbers of recruits are necessary to replace persons who leave the occupation, and to allow for growth; and the quality of persons who enter the career, in terms of their abilities, aspirations and motivations.

In the area of influences upon career choice, three studies exist which throw light upon the selection of social work as an occupation. In the United States of America, Pins has conducted a study of the 2,771 individuals entering accredited graduate schools of social work during 1960[50], and in South Africa, Accurso has surveyed the 114 students enrolled in undergraduate study during 1970 at the School of Social Work, University of the Witwatersrand[51], while van Biljon

has reported upon those factors which influenced the career choice of a group of social workers that she studied.[52]

Pins' study showed that most students came from the lower middle class, and that 85% of them had considered or tried another career before social work. Only 15.95% of students considered social work as a career while still at school, and the major sources of information about social work received by the students (and which influenced their career choice) were from direct experience in social work and allied services, university courses and instructors, and from knowing a social worker.[53]

Accurso's survey shows similarities and differences, when compared to that of Pins. Whereas she found with Pins, that over 80% of her subjects had considered or tried another career before undertaking a training for social work, her other findings show wide divergence: 94.42% of her subjects classified themselves as middle class, with the majority considering themselves "upper-middle class"; 79.20% of females, and 28.57% of males had considered social work as a career while still at school; and the three main sources from which they obtained information about social work were pamphlets, friends, and family.[54]

Van Biljon, in a study of the occupational and personality characteristics of South African Social Workers, reports that her subjects gave five groups of reasons for choosing social work as a career: 36.2% of reasons were associated with a service motive; 33.2% were associated with people-oriented interests; 14.8% were career factors; 13.4% were "environmental" influences; and 2.4% were classified as "general"[55].

A second aspect of beginner intake into social work that merits examination, is the number of students choosing social work as a career. Statistics concerning the enrolment of white social work students in South Africa show that an increasing number of students are choosing to study social work.

Helm states that in 1933, a total of 19 students were registered for social work courses in South Africa[56], while by 1949, the Departmental Committee of Enquiry into the Training and Employment of Social Workers was able to report 144 social work students in the country, of whom 118 were women, and 26 men.[57] By 1959, the total number of white undergraduate social work students, excluding those registered at the University of South Africa, was 473 (387 women, and 86 men)[58], and by 1963, 758 white undergraduate students were reported (625 women, 133 men)[59]. In 1970, the total number of white undergraduates studying social work was 1,140 (967 studying for degrees, and 173 for diplomas; 962 being women, and 178 being men)[60].

Overall, an increase in the total number of white social work students is apparent, but gross statistics of the social work student population require refinement by the mention of three issues. The first is that the gross figures listed above do not take into account the attrition rate (that is, the number of registered students who do not pursue their social work studies due to failure in examinations, or for other reasons). The second issue is the proportion of male to female students. Between 1949 (when male students formed 15% of all white students) and 1970 (when male students formed 16% of all white students) there would seem to be only a negligible increase in the proportion of male to female students, although this need not necessarily hold true for a comparison of sex proportions in the intervening years between 1949 and

1970. The third issue is the question of whether the number of social work students is increasing at a greater or lesser extent than students as a whole. Limited information is available in this area, but Winckler has estimated that between 1963 and 1967, there was a gain of nearly 24% in the enrolment of social work students, whereas the gain for all student enrolment was only 20% during the same period.[61]

The increasing numbers of students choosing to study social work in South Africa have two important implications for the profession. Firstly, increasing student numbers indicate a steadily growing source of manpower for the profession, but, bearing in mind that the majority of persons choosing the profession are females, it cannot be assumed that increased student numbers guarantee more social workers available for practice: many female social workers can be expected to withdraw from active participation in social work, either temporarily or permanently, as a result of marriage and child-rearing. Secondly, the smaller number of social work students reported in the 1930's, 1940's and 1950's, as compared to the larger numbers of students reported in the 1960's and in 1970, suggest that the present population of South African social workers will generally be young, while the figures also imply that South African social work can expect a shortage of senior, experienced social workers.

A third aspect requiring examination in a discussion of the individuals who choose social work careers, is the <u>quality and characteristics of social work students</u>. The United States of America has enjoyed considerably more research into this issue, than has the Republic of South Africa.

Kadushin, basing his comments on a survey of the social work literature, suggests that the person most likely to choose a social work

career in the United States of America would be, "A female of above-average intelligence, of professional or middle class parents, living in a large northern city, whose occupational values and interests revolve around a desire to work with people in an effort to help them through the use of verbal skills".[62] Later, Pins found that the majority of social work students are female, aged under 30, and unmarried, but contrary to Kadushin, he established that the majority came from lower middle class homes.[63]

The attitudes and values of American social work students have also drawn the attention of researchers. Kidneigh and Lundberg studied social work students, and found that their academic interests were similar to those of students in nursing, library science and education, while in their social attitudes, social work students were significantly more liberal and less authoritarian than students in education, engineering, law, library science, nursing and psychology.[64] Rosenberg has shown that in values, social work students have higher people-oriented values than other students,[65] and Hayes and Varley have established that social work students, when selecting from a range of values, place greater emphasis on social values than on those that are economic, religious, aesthetic, political or theoretical.[66]

Taietz and his colleagues agree with Rosenberg and Hayes and Varley that social work students have high people-oriented values, but at the same time, they identify a belief among social workers that persons with people-oreinted values are not likely to possess high intellectual ability. On the basis of a study of students at Cornell University, however, they show that students with people-oriented values have a significantly higher intellectual ability than those students with a "creativity-orientation" or a "money-orientation".[67]

In South Africa, Accurso has studied characteristics of a Social Work student group at the University of the Witwatersrand, and concluded that the type of student most likely to be found at the School of Social Work at that University is a single, Jewish female, under 22 years of age, from an English-speaking, upper or upper-middle class family, living in an urban suburb of the Transvaal.[68] Accurso's limited sample restricts her findings to the social work student population of the particular University studied.

Overall, it can be noted that there is a dearth of information about the characteristics of South African social work students generally. What is known, however, is that the very large majority of social work students are females; that the proportion of males to females shows a slight rise; and that the number of social work students is increasing at a greater rate than that of the general student population.

(ii) Education for social work

Although the debate still continues in some circles as to the degree of professionalism that social work has achieved, there is general agreement that education for social work has the characteristics of a professional education.[69] This carries significance for the social work profession, as it means that persons undertaking an education in social work not only receive an intellectual training, but also undergo a socialization process involving the acquisition of a new social role. The nature of this socialization experience can, as with other socializing procedures to which the individual has been exposed, influence values, attitudes and expectations. More specifically, it can be expected to influence the individual's attitude to work, to affect her value priorities, and to shape her later work behaviour. Social work

education may therefore be viewed as an important consideration in an examination of social work manpower. Thus, it would seem necessary to investigate two aspects of social work education: its nature and development, and its function as a socialization process.

Formal education for social work had its origin in the United States of America, where the Charity Organization Society of New York was instrumental in establishing short courses of instruction for philanthropic workers. From this beginning came a growth process leading to the eventual establishment of Schools of Social Work, generally attached to universities, offering two-year post-graduate Masters' courses in social work.[70]

Helm reports that the first social work course in South Africa was offered in diploma form at the University of Cape Town in 1924,[71] and Muller has reported on the development of social work education in South Africa from the 1920's to the mid- 1960's.[72]

Muller views the development of social work education in three stages[73]. The first stage, or "Initial Period", was from 1929 to 1939, during which time seven universities and training centres established social work courses of three or four years in duration. This development was stimulated by such factors as approaches from Women's Organisations, the Carnegie Commission of Enquiry of 1932, the 1934 Kimberley Volkskongres, the 1936 National Conference on Social Welfare, and the Department of Social Welfare's scheme in 1938, whereby subsidies were provided to voluntary and church welfare organizations employing trained social workers. By the end of the period, a liaison body (the South African Inter-University Committee on Social Studies) was formed, consisting of respresentatives from training institutions offering

courses in social studies.

Muller identifies a second phase of development during the years 1940 to 1960, which she considers to be a period of consolidation. Significant events during this time include the 1944 National Conference on the post-war planning of social work (where it was suggested that social workers should have a generic undergraduate training, including a wide background of knowledge in the social sciences); the 1946 Conference arranged by the Secretary for Social Welfare (which resolved that basic social work education should consist of a three-year degree course); the report of the 1946 Departmental Committee of Enquiry into the Training and Employment of social workers (which recommended a generic, three-year undergraduate training encompassing both theory and practical work); and the 1954 Conference called by the Inter-University Committee for Social Science, where future directions in social work education were outlined.

The final period outlined by Muller is that of the 1960's, where she notes that five new university colleges were created by State initiative, all of them offering social work training to non-white people. During the same decade, a new National Welfare Act was promulgated, and a Social Work Commission established.

The period of the 1960's is significant for a number of developments which affect social work education. Firstly, there was State intervention in establishing separate training institutions for non-white higher education, accompanied by legislative moves to determine racial criteria for admission into those established universities that had previously offered education to students of all races. Thus, the University of Natal and the University of the Witwatersrand, both of which had trained white and non-white social work students, were restricted to accepting

white students only. Secondly, regulations made under the National Welfare Act, No.79 of 1965, stipulated the exact nature of courses that students should complete in order to be eligible for registration as social workers, and some degree of national uniformity in the education of social workers was thus ensured. Thirdly, the statutory establishment of a Social Work Commission, charged amongst other things with a special responsibility for the development of standards for academic social work qualifications[74], may have considerable implications for social work education in the future, particularly if the Commission should move in the direction of "accrediting" individual social work courses.

Of individual universities, the University of Natal (then the Natal University College) initiated training for social work in 1940, with the introduction of a three-year B.A. (Social Science) degree. In 1945, a separate Faculty of Social Science was created at the University, and in 1949, the name of the social work degree was altered to Bachelor of Social Science (Social Welfare). From 1950, the period of study for the degree was extended to four years[75], but reverted to a three-year period of study in 1957. At the same time, the University introduced a one-year post-graduate diploma in social work. Four years later, a B.Soc.Sc. Honours course in social work was established, and in 1970, the Department of Sociology and Social Work was separated, paving the way for an independent Department of Social Work, headed by a Professor. In 1971, the name of the basic social work degree remained Bachelor of Social Science, but the degree certificate was endorsed, "and qualifies as a social worker".

The University of the Witwatersrand commenced training for social work in 1937, with a four-year B.A. degree and higher and lower diplomas in social studies. By 1947, social work was offered as a separate

subject on a two-year basis, and by 1950, the diploma courses in social studies were discontinued to be replaced by a short-lived Diploma in Community Organisation. In 1956, a Department of Sociology and Social Work was introduced to replace the earlier Department of Social Studies, and in the same year, the degree course was retitled B.A. (Social Work), with the four-year social work education offering students a status similar to that of a conventional honours course in social work.[76] In the latter half of the 1960's, a separate Division of Social Work was created, which in 1968 became the School of Social Work, under the leadership of a Director of Studies.

Comparing contemporary professional social work education in South Africa with that of the United States of America, two central points of differentiation can be made: professional education for social work in South Africa is at an undergraduate level, while in America it is at a post-graduate level; and the South African education is always generic in content, while in America, this is not generally the case. These two areas of difference have significance for social work manpower in South Africa, as an undergraduate education for social work implies that social workers will qualify at a younger age, and thus the social work population as a whole may be a younger population; while the generic nature of training in the Republic provides the South African social worker with a potentially greater opportunity for occupational mobility, as she is not limited to one single social work method, and is educated to work with all primary methods of social work in all social work fields.

A second area of note about social work education is that the <u>education is a socializing process</u>. Rapoport, discussing professional education, says that professional education can be described as a process

in which adult individuals are inducted into the culture of a profession. This takes place through didactic teaching and direct learning, and also through what Rapoport terms "indirect or attendant learning", in which appropriate professional values and attitudes are absorbed, largely by identification.[77]

Pumphrey has outlined this process in Social Work education, stressing the value emphasis in social work. She writes:

> "If social work is a heavily value-laden profession, its values must be communicated to new recruits, and understood and accepted by them in their efforts to develop into bona fide professional representatives".[78]

Varley, in the United States of America, has attempted to measure and assess value changes in social work students, and some of her research findings have particular importance for social work education in South Africa. She compared a group of beginning social work students with a group of graduating students, on the four values of clients having equal rights to service; of professionals having an other- rather than self-orientation; of psycho-dynamic mindedness; and of universalism; and found that graduating students had a significantly higher score on a professional value index created from the four individual assessments.[79] Bearing in mind that professional education for social work is offered at a post-graduate level in the United States, two of Varley's additional findings have significance for South African undergraduate social work education: those students who were dependent (i.e. young, without much previous exposure to social work, and away from home) demonstrated the greatest degree of change in values; and these students were also the ones most likely to choose a "role model" (i.e. a teacher or supervisor) upon whom to pattern their attitudes and values.[80]

If Varley's findings have universal applicability, it would mean that students engaging in an undergraduate, immediately post-school social work education (as is generally the case in South Africa), would experience greater value and attitude change than would be the case in the typical American setting. Put in other words, South African social work students may undergo a more intense socialization procedure than many social work students who receive their professional education at post-graduate level. Their professional education might thus be expected to have increased influence on their subsequent behaviour, work attitudes, anticipated work satisfactions and work conflicts.

The combination of intellectual and personal change that should be achieved by a professional education for social work has been outlined by Towle, who identifies four areas of growth required in the education process. They are the development and entrenchment of the spirit of scientific enquiry; the development of feelings and attitudes that will make it possible for the student to think and act appropriately; the development of a capacity to establish and sustain purposeful working relationships; and the development of a social consciousness and a social conscience.[81]

It is clear from Towle's analysis of the goals of professional education for social work, that the student is required to become involved in a complex procedure beginning with the internalization of knowledge and values, continued through the learning of new behaviour patterns and the refining of role expectations, and finally culminating in a change of her self-image.

(iii) Who are social workers?

Once individuals have gone through the occupational choice procedure and chosen social work as a career, and once they have satisfactorily completed a professional social work education, they become graduate social workers.

In South Africa, the criteria for who may become a registered social worker have been established by regulations made in terms of the National Welfare Act, No. 79 of 1965[82]. Section 3(a) of these regulations provides for the registration of persons who have,

> "Satisfied all requirements for a bachelor's degree or for a diploma of any University or College in the Republic after pursuing a course of study for that degree or diploma of not less than three years, which included not less than 3 courses in social work and either not less than 3 courses in sociology and not less than 2 courses in psychology, or not less than 3 courses in psychology and not less than 2 courses in sociology".

Sections 3(b),(c),(d) and (e) of the Act, make provision for the registration of persons who before the promulgation of the regulations have obtained degrees slightly different in content from that outlined in Section 3(a), and Section 3(f) provides for the recognition of equivalent foreign qualifications. In addition, Sections 3(h),(i) and (j) provide for the registration of persons who for a total period of 15 years before the promulgation of the regulations, have practiced or taught social work.

In the last 15 years, South Africa's social work population has been described in two major studies. Before discussing them, it is helpful to have a brief analysis of the social work population of another country, to serve as a comparison to the South African group. Baker has described characteristics of social workers in the United States. She

writes that an estimated 125,000 persons occupied social work positions in 1965, the majority of whom did not possess a Master's degree in social work. Over 90% of those eligible to be so, were members of a professional association. The proportion of women was greater than that of men (6:4 ratio), and of women social workers working in the profession, 74% were aged 35 years or over, and 45% of them were married. Of the male social workers, 64% were aged 35 or over. They were employed in a broad range of social work fields, with a concentration of social workers possessing a Master's degree in the fields of child welfare, family welfare, psychiatric social work and medical social work. The proportion of employed social workers to members of the population for the country as a whole was 59 per 100,000.[83]

During 1959, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions surveyed social workers employed in South Africa by voluntary welfare organizations. The survey report states that the great majority of social workers were whites, and that most (89.5%) were female. Female workers had an average age of 29.40 years (males: 25.93 years), and an average experience in social work of 68.69 months (males: 93.84 months). Just over half of the female social workers were married, and most married female social workers fell into the age group 20 to 39 years. The majority of female workers were in full-time employment, but of the minority in part-time employment, most were concentrated in the 20 to 39 year age group.[84]

A second South African survey took place during the late 1960's, when van Biljon investigated a sample of white social workers employed in public and community welfare organizations. As in the earlier study, she found a predominance of women, only 36.1% of whom were married. A total of 66.1% of her subjects were 29 years of age or younger, 68.7% of

them had received their basic social work qualification within the seven-year period before the study was made, and the sample as a whole had an average period of 4.5 years social work experience.[85] Van Biljon also reports that when she tested the career interests of her sample, their highest aptitude was for social service, and their greatest preference was for working with ideas.[86]

A limitation inherent in both of the foregoing studies, when they are viewed as descriptions of social work populations, is that they do not take cognisance of those social workers who are outside of the field at the time of the study, despite evidence to suggest that these latter workers may form a considerable proportion of all social workers. McKendrick found, for example, that social workers in Durban spent 26% of their potential working lives outside the field of social work.[87]

Additional information on the South African social work population comes from Winckler, and from Auret. Winckler has written that the total number of posts for white social workers in South Africa is approximately 1,000, and that the average number of subsidised and state-employed white social workers per 20,000 of the white population is 4.61;[88] while Auret has stated that the total membership of the professional Social Workers Association (the Social Workers Association of South Africa) was 536 in 1968.[89]

It is interesting to compare four aspects of the data on South African social workers, with the data provided by Baker on American social workers. The four aspects are age; sex ratios; affiliation to professional associations; and the ratio of social workers to the whole population.

White South African social workers are younger than their American counterparts, and the proportion of female social workers is greater in South Africa. There is evidence pointing to South African workers being considerably less involved in professional associations than their American counterparts: with 1,000 white social work posts in South Africa, only 536 white social workers participate in the affairs of their professional association; while in the United States, 90% of those workers who are eligible to do so, are members of a professional association. Finally, there is evidence to suggest that the ratio of social workers to total population is less in South Africa than in the United States. Although Winckler's figure of 4.61 white social workers to 20,000 of white population includes only social workers in state employ and in subsidised posts, it would seem highly improbable that the number of practising social workers in non-state, non-subsidized posts would increase the South African ratio to anything approaching the United States ratio of 11.8 practising social workers per 20,000 population (i.e. 59 social workers per 100,000 population).

While danger is always inherent in the comparison of two different populations studied at different points in time, certain inferences can be identified about the potential work patterns and work satisfactions of the South African group, in comparison to their American counterparts. In South Africa, the larger proportion of younger workers may involve fewer family attachments, and workers may thus be free to be more occupationally mobile; the larger proportion of female workers may make social work jobs more vulnerable to disruption by marriage and child-rearing; the lesser activity in professional associations by social workers may have the effect of reducing the professional associations' power as an instrument in improving social worker's work conditions; and the lower proportion of social workers to population may result in

heavier case loads.

(iv) Is there a shortage of Social Workers?

Internationally, the decade of the 1960's has been marked by increased concern about a shortage of professionally trained social workers. There is as yet little sign of the situation improving, despite a proliferation of training courses at graduate and undergraduate level, as in Britain, or the development of "social work aids", job rationalization and increased recruitment campaigns, as in the United States of America.

It has been estimated that in 1970, the United States of America would have just over half the professional Social workers actually required.[90] Witte has reported a Council on Social Work Education estimate that for some years 10,000 to 12,000 social work posts for which funds had been budgeted have remained continously vacant, as suitably qualified social workers could not be found. He further reported that between 12,000 and 15,000 new recruits need to be attracted each year to replace workers leaving the field, and to staff new programmes, yet schools of social work were providing less than 2,500 graduates per annum.[91] Levine has emphasised that the American shortage cannot be viewed simply in terms of replacing people who leave the profession, and he stresses a dynamic and developmental view of new workers being necessary to staff new facilities.[92] The American shortage of social workers in the 1960's and beginning 70's is of particular note, in view of the fact that in the preceeding decade (the 1950's), the number of persons holding social work positions increased by 42%, while the increase in the population was only 18%.[93] Again, this underlines the American social worker shortage being a partial consequence of

increased awareness of human needs, and the provision of social work services to meet this need.

Mencher has thrown light upon the growth of social services evident in the United States. He refutes the concept of a direct relationship between the growth of urbanism and the growth of social services, and states that the need for increased services is not a product of urbanism per se, but of two consequences of urbanism: the reduction of primary group support systems, and changing expectations about what constitutes "adequate care".[94]

In Britain, Younghusband has stated that the shortage of social workers is even more acute than the United States of America,[95] but she qualifies her statement with the explanation that knowing the exact number of social workers required must be preceded by an estimation of the number and nature of people who need social work help.[96] In other words, the question of a shortage of social workers is directly related to perceived need, and is not merely a matter of filling those posts that presently exist.

In the Republic of South Africa, however, there is no universal agreement on the existence of a shortage of social workers. Winckler, for example, has stated that in terms of social workers being available to fill social work posts, the position is "not serious at all", except in certain geographical areas of South Africa that are seemingly less attractive to social workers, and in the case of workers in senior grades.[97] At the same time, Winckler qualifies his approach by pointing out that before any final statement can be made, information is required about needs, available vacancies, the economical use of manpower, the quality and experience of present incumbents, and social

workers who work outside the profession.[98]

The issue of whether or not there is a "shortage" of social workers in South Africa is a complex question, and discussion of it involves the examination of a range of related areas, both practical and philosophical. Practically, investigation is indicated into evidence about the availability of social workers, the quality of social work incumbents, and financial and practical controls on the creation of social work posts; while philosophically, the degree to which South Africa recognizes human needs as requiring social work assistance, would also seem to merit attention.

Of the practical aspects, the first is that of evidence that exists to support or refute a "shortage" of social workers. The local literature, and statements made by South African social worker leaders, lends support to the existence of a shortage of social workers in the Republic. In 1957, social work teachers at the University of South Africa drew attention to the "tremendous expansion (in South Africa) of the need for social workers", and the inability to meet this need.[99] In 1959, the investigation conducted by the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions into the staffing of voluntary welfare organizations showed that in family welfare organizations, 41 out of 369 established social work posts were vacant, while in specialized organizations, 8 out of 92 established posts were unoccupied[100] (or vacancy rates of 11%, and 9% respectively). In 1968, in a paper on the image of the social worker, Shaw stated that in Durban, there were vacancies in nearly every agency[101]. In 1970, the Secretary of Social Welfare and Pensions reported that because of staff shortages, both professional and clerical, "The position has already been reached where only a limited service can be rendered, especially at outlying offices"[102]. In the same year, the South

African National Council for Child Welfare revealed that in a survey of subsidised posts for white social workers in societies affiliated to the Council, an average of just over 1 in 10 posts was vacant throughout the entire three-year period April 1967 to March 1970.[103] Bearing in mind that in the latter case, only subsidised posts were reported upon (i.e. posts for which finances were available), an even greater vacancy rate might be expected for unsubsidised posts.

It would seem, therefore, that on the basis of the most simple index (the number of available posts filled), a shortage of social workers can be established from the 1950's to the present time.

A second practical aspect of the supply of social workers is the quality of those social workers occupying social work posts. Existing evidence points to most social workers being relatively inexperienced. For example, the 1959 study on social workers employed by voluntary welfare organizations found that male and female social workers had an average experience in social work of 93.84 months and 68.69 months, respectively;[104] van Biljon has reported an average of 4.5 years experience in the sample of white social workers that she studied during the 1960's;[105] and the Department of Social Welfare and Pension's study on the establishment of caseload norms for family welfare agencies mentions that over half the social workers participating in the project had only five to nine months social work experience.[106] These figures lend support to the notion that South African social workers are not highly experienced, and bearing in mind the additional fact that they also carry heavy caseloads,[107] their standard of client service may not be of the highest level.

Overall, there is some support for the suspicion that a considerable proportion of South African social work posts are occupied by fledgeling social workers with only beginning competence in the profession, and that further, these inexperienced workers will be concentrated at the "grass roots" level of providing direct service to clients, the very raison d'etre of any welfare organization. In terms of numbers of social workers able to fill social work posts, the shortage of social workers may not be extensive; but the shortage of experienced social workers is acute.

A third practical aspect requiring examination is whether or not existing financial procedures restrict the employment of social workers. The accepted South African pattern in the development of welfare services is that of a partnership between State, Church and Private Initiative. One of the ways in which this partnership is given practical expression, is through the State subsidising part of the salary paid to social workers in approved posts in church or community welfare organisations. Thus, the rate at which the State approves new social worker's posts for subsidisation may be a potent force in speeding up or retarding the growth of social welfare services, and the number of available social work posts.

The number of State-subsidized social workers' posts increases at the relatively slow tempo of 3.5% p.a. (compared for example to teacher's posts, which increase at the rate of 4.8% p.a.)[108]. There can be no doubt that this factor is directly related to the ability of community welfare organisations to expand and meet present needs, or for them to look beyond the provision of therapeutic casework services, towards the neglected areas of prevention, and the promotion of adequate standards of living in the community. If finances are not available to provide new

social work posts, new posts will not be created to be filled by social workers.

It can always be argued that part of the responsibility for funding expansion and new development in community welfare organisations should be assumed by the Community, through direct contributions. However, many welfare organisations, large and small, have extreme difficulty in raising funds from direct community sources to maintain present services, far less to finance new projects. For example, the South African National Council for Child Welfare has estimated that because of spiralling costs and shortage of finances, only one child in three requiring help from child welfare societies, can be adequately assisted.[109]

From time to time, National crises and issues arise which capture the attention of the public, and which may stimulate concern and financial support at individual, municipal and National level, thus leading to the creation of new welfare services and the funding of new social work posts (the recent country-wide concern over drug abuse is an example of this). Nevertheless, it is rare for those welfare services that are the foundation of the country's welfare system(i.e. basic social services designed to enhance the welfare of families and children) to benefit from such widespread public awareness and support, and certainly not for sustained periods of time.

Practical financial considerations arising from State and community attitudes and practices are a powerful set of inhibiting forces, providing effective limitation to the growth of welfare services, and thus to the growth of social workers' posts.

Another area of relevance in discussing whether or not there is a social worker shortage, is the philosophical question of the recognition of human need. Perhaps one reason why South Africa is in the seemingly fortunate position of being able to debate the existence of a social worker shortage, rather than expressing anxiety at a shortage of social workers, is the relative unsophistication of many of the Nation's social welfare provisions, in comparison to developed, Westernised countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States of America.

What, for example, of the need, indeed the desire for increased numbers of child guidance clinics? In two major cities, Johannesburg and Durban, one overloaded child guidance clinic exists, where four and five respectively, are required.[110;111] What of the total absence of social workers in schools? What of the extraordinarily heavy caseloads of social workers?[112]

A cursory scanning of the South African daily press reveals vast areas of unmet need, where professional social work services and participation are indicated, but are non-existent. Consider for example the huge and continuing movement of whole communities and neighbourhoods from one geographical location to another in terms of Group Areas legislation, sometimes with physical provision well-planned, but with social and personal consequences frequently neglected. By 1970, 108,957 white, Coloured, Indian and Chinese families had become ineligible to remain in their homes by virtue of Group Areas legislation, and of these, 67,439 families had already been "resettled".[113]

The extent of infant morality and malnutrition in South Africa, with their attendant human suffering, provides another illustration. Potgieter has found that in Pretoria, 75% to 85% of Bantu families have

an income lower than the minimum needed to meet basic expenses, and he suggests that at least 85% of school-going children from Bantu households in Pretoria suffer from malnutrition.[114] Leary and Lewis, in a study of a "fairly typical" Bantu homeland found that, "At least 50% of children born fail to reach their fifth birthday, and the majority of those who die do not reach their third birthday."[115]

Perhaps the most eloquent example of unmet social need comes from investigations into poverty in South Africa. It has been suggested that nearly half the Coloured people live in poverty,[116] and that 50% to 60% of Indian households in Durban have incomes below the cost of living minimum.[117] In the case of Bantu people, Watts has surveyed studies made over the last two decades, and he suggests that, "In towns and cities from one third to more than two thirds of the Bantu population are in poverty, with the position being worse in the smaller towns".[118]

It can be noted from some of the above examples that the non-white population groups in South Africa are the people most severly penalised by the under-developed nature of the Republic's social welfare services. In this regard, it is unfortunate that the white population group (in whom most skills and resources are centred) are now discouraged by official social welfare policy from actively involving themselves in the development of new welfare services for non-white persons.[119]

The issue of the availability of social workers cannot be settled by the arithmetical balance of social worker bodies and established social work posts: the issue is relative. Relative to the community's sophistication in perception of need; relative to the prevailing social welfare philosophy and political credo; and relative to the leadership and stimulation which communities receive to recognise human distress,

and to participate at State and Local level in its reduction.

Available evidence shows that there is a physical shortage of social workers to fill established social work posts, and that many incumbents of such posts are inexperienced. Practical and financial considerations can be identified that serve to limit the increased employment of social workers in meeting already perceived and recognised needs; and in addition, vast areas of human need exist, and merit urgent help from social workers, but are not recognised as such by the community at large.

In the light of available evidence, the notion of debating a "shortage of social workers" assumes an aura of unreality. There is clear support for the statement that there is a shortage of social workers, and also support for the statement that the shortage will become more acute as the community is assisted and educated to recognise the extent of the human distress with which it is surrounded.

4. Summary

A profession is influenced by the functions which society allocates to it, the degree of professionalism achieved, the number and quantity of recruits, the nature and experience of its practitioners, and the shortage or surfeit of professional personnel.

In South Africa, the activities of social workers are stipulated by the National Welfare Act, No. 79 of 1965. The description of social work activities provided by the Act does not include the goals and functions of social work, other than in the ambiguous term "social assistance"; nor does it reflect social work's preventive, promotive and therapeutic dimensions.

The profession of social work in South Africa does not meet the accepted criteria for a full profession, and can at present be categorised as a semi-profession in society. The implications of semi-professional standing are far-reaching, and can be suggested to include, amongst others, a tendency for social workers to eschew controversial social action, and conditions of work that are more appealing to females than to males.

The overall number of recruits to social work is rising, but the increased proportion of male to female students is minimal. It can be suggested that education for social work is a socialization experience, which influences students' later work performance, values and satisfactions. Evidence exists to suggest that the socializing influence of social work education will be greater at an undergraduate level, than at a post-graduate level.

When white South African social workers are compared to American social workers, evidence points to the South African group being generally younger, less experienced, and containing a larger proportion of women. The South African group are less active in their professional social workers' association, and overall, the proportion of social workers to population is lower in the Republic. These characteristics of South African social workers may be expected to influence their work patterns and work satisfactions.

Available evidence indicates that there is a shortage of social workers in South Africa, and that the shortage will become more acute as the community is educated towards a broader perception of human need.

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Chapter 3

SOCIAL WORK AS WORK: A SOURCE OF SATISFACTION AND STRESS

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1. The meaning of work

A recent dictionary definition of work is, "Application of effort to a purpose ..... employment especially as a means of earning money".[1] This notion of work as a means of earning money is a limited conceptualisation, and one that is not borne out by historians' reports on older civilizations, nor by sociologists' investigations of the contemporary scene.

Historically, early Christians believed that while work might be the punishment for Original Sin, it was necessary to work in order to make a living; but with the coming of the Reformation, Calvin and Luther preached that men should work, as this was the will of God. The protestant ethic regarding work consisted of glorifying man's accomplishment by sweat and toil.[2]

Contemporary views of work cover a wide spectrum. Work is viewed as a means of integrating the personality, as providing the individual with an identity and a life style, and as a means of satisfying human needs, both tangible and intangible.

Polansky lays emphasis on work's integrating properties, and points out that the capacity to work and one's general ability to function are, "Interdependent ... one's work does more than reflect one is held together; it can help to hold one together".[3] Olshansky and Unterberger see work as having interpersonal as well as intrapersonal

functions, and view it as providing the individual with an identity that influences all aspects of his life. They write:

> "Who you are, depends to a great extent on what you do occupationally, and what you do determines who you are .... work also determines where and how you live ... (and) sets off a whole series of behavioural expectations reaching into all aspects of living".[4]

Rosenberg, like Olshansky and Unterberger, agrees that work gives a person a role and identity in his interactions with fellow human beings, but points out that in addition, work brings with it responsibilities, rewards and stresses.[5]

Babcock adopts a more psychodynamic concept of work, which she says can be used in multiple ways as a healthy or pathological solution to instinctual energy and conflict; as a defence against intrapersonal stress; and as an executant function of the ego in which a high degree of integration, relatively unhampered by conflict, is achieved.[6]

Professional work, however, assumes added meaning. It has been described as an aspect of maturity, expressing independence, a capacity for constructive interpersonal relations, and a willingness to accept responsibility.[7]

Whether work is professional, semi-profession or non-professional, it must meet certain needs of the worker. Super has identified these needs as satisfactory human relationships; activities that satisfy, carried out in conditions that are agreeable; and an assured livelihood[8]; while Polansky limits the needs to two: work being satisfying in itself, and producing a modicum of guaranteed acceptance and even approval socially.[9]

Work can thus be viewed in a broader context than that of earning a living: it has psychological, social and economic functions, and from the point of view of the individual social worker, work can be the source of a wide range of satisfactions or stresses.

2. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction in social work

The foregoing section of this chapter has suggested that work, and the person's work role, will have far-reaching repercussions on many aspects of his life. The satisfactions and stresses which the individual encounters in his work role may therefore be considered major influences upon his experience of living.

In social work, the concept of work satisfaction assumes added importance, as in this profession, the social worker is herself the main helping tool, and a lack of work satisfaction might be expected to distract her from her essential goals and functions, causing a reduction in her effectiveness and, ultimately, a reduced standard of client service.

What is work satisfaction? Most writers who discuss this question subscribe to the view that work satisfaction involves a balancing of the individual's needs with the emotional, social, economic and psychological rewards of his work, or, stated concisely, that job satisfactions arise from the interactions between job incumbents and their job environments.

Wilensky has suggested that work satisfaction is a function of disparity between rewards (that is, what is received in income and job status) and aspirations or expectations (that is, what is wanted in goods, services and job status)[10], but Super takes a broader view,

involving many more variables. Super states that work satisfaction depends on the extent to which the individual finds adequate outlet for his abilities, interests, personality traits and values, and also upon the individual's establishment in a work situation where he can play the role which his growth and exploratory experiences have led him to consider congenial and appropriate.[11] In sum, Super's view implies that work satisfaction is a highly individualistic phenomenon, depending upon a unique constellation of personal characteristics that shape each person's work satisfaction requirements.

Despite the individualised nature of work satisfaction, certain common work satisfaction characteristics have been claimed for members of the helping professions, including social workers. Principally, these claims centre around non-monetary gratification being more important than monetary reward. A recent exponent of this theory is Taylor, who writes that in the case of doctors, teachers, social workers, nurses and ministers of religion, non-monetary remunerations are more important than money-earning power, and that, "Regardless of the presence or absence of an altruistic motivation, the status of 'professional' and its many associated conditions, constitute an immeasurable remuneration for such an occupation in an urbanised society".[12] In addition to the status and other satisfactions associated with professional work, Heron, in an empirical study of work satisfaction and social class, has shown that professional people place a greater work satisfaction premium on "interesting" work, than do any other occupational group.[13]

Few specific studies exist on the work satisfactions of social workers, and those that do tend to use differing criteria in their measurement of the concept. In addition, most studies tend to establish the global proportion of workers who are "satisfied", and then immediately

proceed to investigate the sources of dissatisfaction in the balance of the workers. Two notable exceptions to the latter observation exist in the studies of Meisels in the United States of America, and van Biljon in South Africa. Meisels, studying the work satisfaction of American social workers, states that the five major categories of job satisfactions reported by his sample are (in the order of their frequency) from the work activity of social work, from interpersonal relationships, from opportunities for independent work, from being able to express "self" in work, and from personal involvement in the job.[14] Van Biljon, studying South African social workers, investigated why her subjects continued to pursue careers in social work. She reports that of answers received, 75% concern work satisfactions (principally enjoying social work as work) and 25% concern "duty" (a duty to help others, financial reasons, and an inability to do other types of work).[15] In addition, 80% of van Biljon's subjects state that they would choose social work again, thus providing an indirect measurement of present work satisfaction.[16]

Overall, a feature of the social work literature is the dearth of material on work satisfaction in social work, and the abundance of theoretical and empirical material on social work as a source of work dissatisfaction and work stress. Three possible reasons can be identified to explain this imbalance.

Firstly, dissatisfactions may be more pressing and more topical subjects for research and writing, than work satisfactions. In this regard, much American and British writing on dissatisfaction in social work has been motivated by the acute shortage of professional social workers in these countries, and writers have concentrated upon aspects of social work as work that might act as dis-incentives to recruitment. At the same time, social work has been called the most self-examining and

critically self-conscious of all the professions,[17] and this may also contribute to a focus on work strains and dissatisfactions. Secondly, social work may realistically be an occupation characterised by marked tensions. Babcock gives support to such an explanation when she says that social work is, "A particularly stressful sort of work".[18] Finally, work dissatisfactions, usually related to specific, identifiable issues, may more readily lend themselves to study than the less tangible concept of "work satisfaction". Meisels says in this regard that the concept of work satisfaction in social work is so "ill-defined, subjective and complex", that the individual has difficulty in expressing it, unless it can be done in terms of easily identifiable aspects of the work situation.[19] On the same issue, but from a different point of view, Haines has commented that the satisfactions of social work are so much a matter for the individual, that they defeat logical analysis.[20]

The dissatisfactions and stresses of social work as work are discussed in succeeding sections of this chapter. They fall into five main groups: dissatisfaction with the working conditions and service conditions of social workers; discontent with the image of the social worker; discontent with the status and prestige accorded to social work and its practitioners; tensions arising from the bureaucratic setting of social work practice; and stresses resulting from the nature and demands of social work itself, including the disillusionment and "reality shock" experienced by some beginning workers when they test the concepts and ideals of training against the actuality of social welfare agency practice.

3. Service and Working Conditions in Social Work

A distinction can be made between service conditions and working conditions. Service conditions refers to the conditions of service upon which the social worker is engaged by her employer. They include such factors as salary and salary scales, medical aid, sick leave, vacation leave, pension plans, and so forth. Working conditions, on the other hand, refers to the conditions under which the social worker carries out her work. They include office space, availability of transport, secretarial assistance, actual hours of work required, workloads, etc.

In practice, service conditions and working conditions are often not consciously differentiated, and both serve to influence the social worker's total working environment.

Beck has noted that when social workers seek improvement of work and service conditions, they often feel that they have to justify their requests in terms of the proposed changes leading to improved client service. He discounts this approach, and states that social workers deserve pay and working conditions commensurate with their skill and knowledge.[21] Despite Beck's admonition, there can be little doubt that if working and service conditions leave much to be desired, they will provide strain to some social workers, and may add tension to a job that requires the practitioner to be relatively free from personal anxieties and aggravations in order to help clients. However, apart from any considerations of client service, most social workers will agree that they share with others what Ferguson has termed, "the need and desire to be free from economic anxieties, and to have working conditions which complement and enhance personal lives and professional advancement".[22]

Empirical studies about the working and service conditions of social workers are complicated by the fact that conditions vary from field to field, and even from agency to agency. Nevertheless, some studies do exist where the number of social workers investigated is large enough for general trends to be established. One such study was conducted by Ullman and her collaborators in the United States of America, who report that 75% of social workers record problems with excessively heavy caseloads, 52% with inadequate physical facilities, and 49% with low salaries.[23]

In South Africa, some data on social workers' service and working conditions is provided by the 1959 survey on social workers employed in voluntary welfare organizations. The survey report shows that the average vacation leave entitlement was 31 days p.a. for males, and 29.38 days p.a. for females, while the average sick leave entitlement was 30.43 days p.a. for males, and 29.87 days p.a. for females. Of all the social workers in the study, only 50.36% enjoyed the benefit of provident funds, and only 60.04% were eligible for subsistence and transport allowances when engaged upon agency work.[24] The study also showed that the majority of social workers (65.38%) had "no prospects" of promotion.[25] More recently, when writing on the topic of recruiting for social work, Winckler has noted that social work salaries in the <u>entrance grades</u> (writer's emphasis) compare favourably with scales applicable to other professions, if the period of academic training is taken into account. Winckler goes on to identify a number of working conditions which constitute "recruitment problems", and he includes in his list heavy caseloads, long hours, nervous strain from exhaustive work, a possible lack of understanding from the employing body, lack of competent supervision, insufficient clerical assistance, and insufficient mechanical aids such as tape recorders.[26] Shaw, however, in discussing the image of the social worker, calls the typical social worker "poorly

paid", but agrees with Winckler that her conditions of work are often unattractive, and that she works under stress partly caused by heavy caseloads.[27]

Although no detailed and all-inclusive data are available on the South African social worker's service and working conditions, the information that is available points to service and working conditions being considerably short of the ideal. In particular, note must be taken of heavy caseloads, and unattractive, inadequate physical working conditions, both of which are potential sources of stress and dissatisfaction.

In the light of evidence pointing to room for improvement in the service and working conditions for social workers, two related questions present themselves for examination. Firstly, are there any particular characteristics of social workers or of social work that inhibit the improvement of social workers' working and service conditions? Secondly, who is in fact responsible for the improvement of social workers' working and service conditions, if they require improvement?

A survey of the literature shows seven factors that can be suspected to restrict efforts to improve the working conditions of social workers. Some factors are unique to the social work profession; others relate to the sex composition of social work's practitioners.

Firstly, social work has a unique origin: it grew out of voluntary, unpaid welfare work, and as Beck points out, difficulty still exists in interpreting to the public how professional social work differs from the voluntary welfare acitivities that are still widely practiced.[28]

In addition to social work's historical beginnings, the community attitude to social work is influenced by a second factor that Wilensky and Lebeaux have termed the "residual conception" of social welfare, where welfare services are seen as coming into play only when the normal structures of supply (the family and the market) break down.[29] When a significant proportion of the population have this view of social welfare, and do not regard the services which social workers offer as being an institutional, normal function of an industrial society, the services of social workers will not be highly prized. Accordingly, the community will not place a premium on enhancing their salaries, service conditions or work environments.

Three further factors can be directly attributed to the ethics and values of social workers. Firstly, as Haines has pointed out, social workers do not have a record of being militant on their own behalf, and it can be speculated that the qualities of tolerance and understanding which are expected of good social workers, make them their own worst enemies as far as improving working conditions for their profession is concerned.[30] Secondly, the ethical values of social workers may prevent them from using the ultimate negotiating instrument, the strike, to force employers to better service and working conditions. It has been stated that any question of the witholding of services involves the social worker in an ethical dilemma: on the one hand, there is the ethical value that the primary obligation of the social worker is the welfare of clients, and that this is violated by the witholding of services; on the other hand, the social worker has a basic democratic right, as an <u>individual</u>, to engage in activity that will lead to the improvement of working conditions.[31] The dilemma can be seen in an examination of social workers' actual behaviour in a strike situation: Rehr reports that a strike of social workers in New York hospitals was not complete, as

half of the social workers considered their primary obligation to be client service, and remained at work; while half considered that they had an elementary civil right as individuals to strike, and witheld their services.[32] Thirdly, the ethical priority in social work on client service may result in social workers adopting self-defeating work patterns. Specifically, concentration on direct service to heavy caseloads may reduce social workers' ability to use themselves administratively to change the unsatisfactory situation, and they may become party to perpetuating the undesirable status quo. This point can be substantiated by reference to the work of Ullmann et al, who compare two groups of social workers, and show that the group devoting most time to direct client service, with least time used for programming improved procedures and developing community resources, also have the most complaints about heavy workloads.[33]

The nature of the settings in which many social workers practice (that is, welfare organisations) may also be an inhibiting factor to the improvement of working and service conditions. Welfare organisations exist nominally to provide help to others, yet one of the groups that welfare organisations help, and for whom they provide basic gratification, are social workers themselves. Gouldner has reflected on the potential conflict of interests produced by this situation, and he concludes that the nature and function of welfare organisations may make employee social workers dubious and less comfortable about pursuing career goals in the same uninhibited manner as other professionals.[34]

A final factor restricting improvement, particularly the improvement of service conditions, is the sex ratio in social work. Social workers are predominantly women, and there is a persistent belief in the

community that women do not need as high a salary as men.[35] This consideration is not unique to social work, and is common to all occupations where women form the majority of workers.[36]

In view of empirical evidence on shortcomings in the service and working conditions of social workers, and bearing in mind the special factors that exist to inhibit and frustrate the improvement of these conditions, the question arises as to who should be responsible for their promotion.

Although many parties (such as the State, National Councils of welfare organisations, individual welfare organisations, and social workers) have a direct or vested interest in enhancing the conditions under which social workers work, in the ultimate analysis, it is social workers themselves who must carry responsibility for initiating improvement. This comes about for two reasons: as employees, social workers are directly concerned with their own work environment and work rewards; and as social workers, they are aware that defective or inadequate working conditions may lead to a reduced standard of client service.

The conventional way for social workers to corporately undertake this responsibility is through their professional association. White South African social workers have a professional association (the White Social Workers' Association of South Africa), and in assessing the contribution that this body has made to the improvement of social workers' service and working conditions, it is appropriate to introduce the discussion with a brief comparative survey of the approaches adopted by professional associations of social workers in other countries.

In the United States of America, the National Association of Social Workers have accepted a definite responsibility for the working and service conditions of social workers. The Executive Director of the Association has written:

> "Since social workers are almost all employed in some type of agency or organization, N.A.S.W. must be equally concerned with highlighting the responsibilities of the worker and of the employer. The employed ethical and competent worker gives his best service in organizations characterised by good administrative practice"[37]

The Association has published a handbook which sets out minimum standards of practice over the whole broad spectrum of personnel policy, from staff selection to retirement, and which includes detailed procedures to be followed in the case of complaints against agencies for violation of social work personnel practices.[38]

The Canadian Association of Social Workers have adopted the same philosophy as their American colleagues. They take the point of view that sound personnel practices governing the relationship between employer and employee will ensure to the community the most beneficial use of professional knowledge and ability[39]. It is of interest that the Canadian Association publish one handbook, containing both a code of ethics and a statement of personnel practice; thus reflecting the two sets of responsibilities of the employer and the professional employee[40].

In Britain, the British Association of Social Workers has assumed the responsibility of negotiating for improved service and working conditions on behalf of its various groups of members.[41] In Australia, the Australian Association of Social Workers specifically enjoins members who apply for posts to satisfy themselves that the

prospective employer agency permits or appears likely to permit professional practice consistent with the principles outlined in its code of professional ethics, although the code does not specifically enumerate minimum standards of personnel policy.[42]

In South Africa, although the constitution of the White Social Workers Association of South Africa provides for the Association to promote satisfactory service conditions for social workers[43], no instance has come to the attention of the writer where the professional association has negotiated on a national level for either minimum standards of personnel practice, or nation-wide improvement of present working and service conditions.

Currently, the South African position is that social workers employed by the State, Province, or by a University enjoy with other equivalent employees certain specified minimum personnel practices. In the case of social workers employed by community or church welfare organizations, there is a degree of uniformity amongst agencies as regards salary and service conditions according to the particular National or Provincial organization to which the individual employing agency is affiliated.

The White Social Workers' Association of South Africa does not present itself as an active force in influencing enhanced personnel practices and working conditions for social workers. The impotence of the professional association may be due to a number of factors. For example, members may regard the association as a professional body without "trade union" functions; or the association may not be strong enough or united enough to represent members on a National level in

the delicate task of negotiating improved working and service conditions. It should also be remembered that in South Africa, the National Welfare Board has a Social Work Commission particularly responsible for professional social work matters, and it is possible that social workers may look to this body for the establishment of minimum personnel practices, rather than to their professional association. A further factor, and one that may have considerable importance in reducing the power of the professional social workers' association, is the high proportion of females in South African social work. Female workers do not normally see work as being their major source of life satisfaction, and in the opinion of Simpson and Simpson, they may be less ambitious and less willing to "fight for advancement" than males.[44]

For the South African social worker, their professional associations' lack of involvement is an additional disadvantage in improving working and service conditions.

4. The image of the Social Worker

The term, "image", can be defined as a representation of the external form of any object, especially a person.[45] As such, the image of the social worker has two aspects: how the social worker views herself, and how she is viewed by the wider community of which she is a part. The concept of a profession's image in the community is closely related to the prestige and status accorded to that profession; and the nature of the image is tempered by such factors as the amount of personal contact community members have with the profession, the information or misinformation about the profession to

which they have been exposed, and traditional attitudes and values.

Pollak has drawn attention to the community having a different image of the social worker from that held by social workers themselves,[46] and the profession's concern with the discrepancy between self-image and community image has led a number of social workers to discuss this issue in the professional literature.

Regarding the image of social work in the community, British social work writers report a number of different community conceptualisations. Watson considers that the average citizen does not view the social worker as being a person with special skills, and sees him as being, "Someone who can be called on for help in a personal crisis if you don't happen to have a good neighbour"[47]. She is supported by Wright, who states that the community view of social work does not embrace any general recognition of the social worker being a person with professional training, or expert status.[48] Timms, in an empirical study of community attitudes, reports that most people think of the social worker as being drawn from the middle class of the population, yet when asked what social workers do, most answers are consistent with a "Lady-Bountiful" or upper-class behaviour pattern. Of persons that he interviewed, 54% felt that social work was exclusively for women.[49]

In the United States of America, Pollak has described the image of the social worker in the community as "poor"[50], but Meyerson and Unkovic have produced evidence to indicate that the image is changing. Meyerson studied the image of the social worker held by 500 undergraduate sociology students, and found that slightly more than

half the students had an image that was more positive than negative;[51] while Unkovic studied the attitudes of parents who had been told by their children that they had decided to undertake post-graduate social work courses. The response of parents was generally unfavourable, although not as unfavourable as Unkovic had expected: of the 67 unfavourable comments, the three main themes were that social work gave poor financial remuneration, that it involved undesirable lower-class contact, and that exceptional psychological strength would be required; while of the 55 favourable comments, the three main themes were that parents would agree with children's career choice, that social work was a "good field with much unmet need", and that sincerity would compensate for setbacks experienced at work.[52] It should be noted, however, that both Meyerson's sociology students and Unkovic's parents of university students, might be unrepresentative of the community at large.

Empirical studies on the South African community's image of the social worker are subject to the limitation noted above for the two American studies. Cohen, in a 1962 study of the image of the social worker held by university students, found that students of both sexes have a stereotype of the social worker being a woman.[53] Cohen's work is supported by that of Barnes, who studied the image of the social worker held by A-stream matriculant scholars at a Johannesburg boys high school. Barnes reports that the majority of his subjects picture a social worker as a single, female person, aged below 40 years, from the middle-class. In addition, the majority of subjects (71.59%) think that a university training is not necessary for social work, and their over-riding image of social work is that of "the rich helping the poor".[54] Looking at this summary of the boys' image of

social work and the social worker, it is easy to understand Barnes' additional finding that no boy had ever thought of social work as a possible career.[55]

Additional South African material comes from Accurso's recent study of the social work student population at a local university. When she explored the reactions of students' "significant others" to their social work career choice, Accurso found that the choice had been disapproved of by 11.54% of fathers, 6.51% of mothers, 4.65% of personal friends, and 8.37% of relatives and family friends. Mixed feelings towards the students' career choice were expressed by 18.40% of fathers, 23.92% of mothers, 26.68% of personal friends, and 30.69% of relatives and family friends.[56] Indirectly, these findings reflect a considerable degree of doubt about the appropriateness of the students' career choice; or put differently, the students' "significant others" judged the students' career choice by measuring their knowledge of, and hopes for the student, against their image of the social worker, and a notable proportion found the career choice (or the student) lacking.

This South African data about the image of the social worker is too limited for firm conclusions to be drawn. Nevertheless, it can be suspected that the community image of social work is in some ways realistic (for example, the notion of social work as a primarily female occupation), and in some ways unrealistic (for example, the notion that the social worker requires no formal university education, and the view of social work being, "the rich helping the poor"). These latter discrepancies between community image and reality present a potential source of dissatisfaction to the professional social worker, and the reasons for the discrepancies require

examination. Four possible explanations can be identified: the successful outcome of social work help is difficult to demonstrate; social work may not be interpreted to the public in an understandable form; key community members may not have had dealings with social workers in a "client" role; and traditional attitudes may persist, in the absence of reliable information to the contrary.

There can be little doubt that in comparison to a helping profession such as medicine, the outcomes of social work service are difficult to demonstrate. Many of the problems that clients bring to social workers are highly personal, and in some cases not even discussed by the client with family or intimate friends. The improved social functioning experienced by the client after his contact with the social worker may thus not be widely perceived, or if perceived, may not be attributed to social work aid. This situation is exacerbated by the modus operandi of social workers, where they are at pains to impress upon client and community alike that they are not "doers", but "enablers", a concept directly at variance with the image of the doctor or lawyer, who are "doers", and who are seen as such by the community.

A second factor, related to the difficulty of demonstrating social work's results, is the difficulty that is sometimes experienced in interpreting professional social work to the community. Meyerson has written that the image of social work in the community is poor as social workers have failed to reach peoples' hearts and minds, and have been unable to reduce what they say to the lowest common denominator and speak the language of the ordinary public.[57]

Thirdly, it can be suspected that the great majority of the community, and certainly the great majority of community leaders, have never had a "client" relationship with a social worker. Thus, they have a lack of personal experience upon which to build a realistic, informed image of social workers. The social worker therefore stands in marked contrast to the doctor, the lawyer, the school teacher, the nurse, and the minister of religion, all of whom are "real life" figures, and with whom most members of the community have had client-type dealings. The fourth factor influencing social work's inadequate community image is related to this lack of personal, widespread community contact with the social worker: if personal knowledge is lacking, "traditional" information, derived from newspapers, radio, passing comments and the like, will be the main determinant of the social work image. Pollak has reflected on this latter situation, and he suggests that the first element of traditional information is that social workers transmit tangible goods to their clients, or "dispense charity". This will be reinforced, says Pollak, by a further factor, namely that the function of dispensing tangible charity is the function which the community is most desirous of seeing performed, as assistance to people in physical need is more acceptable than assistance with emotional and interpersonal unhappiness.[58]

These possible explanations for social work's image in the community must be seen in conjunction with a further consideration. This is that social work's community image of tangibly assisting the poor may in many cases be a realistic image, reflecting actual social work practice. The distress of social workers on finding themselves thus viewed by the community may be a product of social work's

striving for professional status, rather than being a product of any distorted community perception.

The discussion of social work's community image, above, leads on to the discussion of a closely-realted issue, namely social workers' image of themselves. The issues are closely related because when the community view of the social worker is assessed, the assessment standard is inevitably social work's self-image.

A composite statement of the South African Social Worker's self-image is provided by Shaw, who writes that the social worker is professionally trained, usually at a university, and is normally a young person, idealistic and anxious to help her fellow-men. She is highly occupationally mobile, employed in a broad range of fields, but poorly paid, with a heavy work load and unattractive working conditions. She is normally supervised, and may be a member of a professional association. She works under stress, resulting from heavy case loads, poor payment and hostile clients, and her role as a social worker impinges on most other aspects of her life. She is unable to keep up with current social work theory, unable to use many of her skills because of overwork and lack of resources, and in addition she must often work with policies to which she as a social worker cannot subscribe. She works increasingly with people from all classes of society.[59]

Shaw's statement of the social worker's self-image reveals a reflection of persons working under stress from a wide range of sources, who are unable to use many of the professional skills with which they are equipped. In assessing the consequences of such a

self-image, Shaw suggests that social workers will have a tendency not to believe in themselves.[60] Haines advances a similar point of view, and says that social workers have a lack of secure conviction about the worth of the work that they do.[61]

Overall, available evidence indicates a community image of the social worker that is sometimes inaccurate, and a social work self-image that is not characterised by confidence. Both of these images may form a source of frustration and dissatisfaction to the social worker, and both are directly related to the status and prestige of the social worker in the community.

5. The status and prestige of social work and the social worker.

The term occupational status refers to the position of an occupation in a status heirarchy of occupations, while occupational prestige can be defined as "The invidious value attached to a status or office, independently of who occupies it".[62] Thus, it is possible for occupations on the same status stratum to be allocated differential prestige.

Social Work writers have not always adhered to the strict sociological distinction between status and prestige, perhaps because the two characteristics are so intimately connected. White, for example, when investigating the prestige of social work and the social worker in the mid-1950's, described "prestige" as, "the term for the degree of ascendancy of an occupation or an individual".[63] In the following discussion of the status and prestige of the social worker, the two concepts are jointly discussed, for three reasons: status and prestige are closely interrelated concepts; common factors

contribute to both status and prestige; and finally, when community members assess the status and prestige of social work, they normally combine both concepts into statements of the "standing" of social work and social workers.

The status and prestige of a profession or semi-profession has far-reaching implications for its members, its clients, and for the profession itself. For members of the profession, Caplow states that occupational position is an important factor in the determination of individual prestige and in the allocation of social privileges,[64] while Taylor points out that occupation continues to contribute more to an individual's social status than most other factors of life existence.[65] When high status and prestige are allocated to an occupational role, the occupant can see herself as a person of importance and consequence, and an occupation's status and prestige can thus be viewed as affecting the worker's feelings about her job.[66] For clients of the profession, Kadushin has argued that the higher the status and prestige of the professional person, the greater the potential for successful treatment. Kadushin's argument rests on the premise that when the professional person's prestige is high in the mind of clients, the professional's potential to influence is equivalently high, and that this will partly condition the effectiveness of the service rendered.[67] For the profession itself, status and prestige are directly related to the profession's ability to influence the community power structure, and in addition, status and prestige are crucial in a profession's perpetuation and development, as these factors influence recruitment. In regard to recruitment, Witte has gone so far as to state that "Occupational status is the single most important influence."[68] The status and prestige of a profession

can thus be viewed as potentially important factors in providing the practitioner with work satisfactions or dissatisfactions.

However, it is an over-simplification to discuss status and prestige exclusively in terms of the status and prestige allocated to the profession by the community. Two distinct status and prestige systems exist, and will be discussed separately: firstly, there is the status and prestige assigned to a profession and its practitioners by the community at large; and secondly, there is an internal system of status and prestige within each professional community. It is thus possible for a profession to be accorded low community status and prestige, and for this to be compensated for by the profession's own inside system of recognition and reward.

What is the status and prestige of social work in the community? The discussion on the image of the social worker in the preceding section of this chapter provides some clues, and in addition, the social work literature contains both anecdotal and empirical information. In the United States of America, Bisno has commented that social work is not yet a high-status profession.[69] His view is supported by empirical work, particularly that of White. In a study using high school students, White found that when ranking a list of 30 male occupations, middle class male students ranked social worker 18th, while lower class students ranked social worker 10th.[70] In a second study, White found that senior high school boys and girls allocated social work a median rank of 14.4 and 8.8 respectively, when ranking 30 occupations.[71] White's findings indicate that in the United States of America, social work is not a high status profession; that females tend to ascribe the social worker a higher

status than males; and that lower class students ascribe the social worker a higher status than middle class students.

In South Africa, the writer knows of only one empirical study on the comparative status of social work and the social worker. Barnes asked a group of A-stream matriculant scholars at a Johannesburg high school to rank 12 occupations as either "high standing", "low standing", or "neither high nor low standing". The social worker was ranked with nurses, clerks, private secretaries and teachers, all of whom were ascribed a modal rank of "neither high nor low standing". On the same scale, the scholars ascribed a modal rank of "high standing" to politicians, lawyers, ministers of religion, psychiatrists and doctors.[72] Barnes' measurement of the "standing" of the social worker is a combined measure of status and prestige. However, his sample is too limited and unrepresentative for his findings to be generalised to the community as a whole, and Barnes' work serves only to provide a suspicion that social work is not considered a high status profession, nor is it accorded high prestige. This suspicion receives further support from a survey of the South African social work literature, which, despite a tendency for all professional persons to ascribe greater prestige and status to their occupation than the public at large,[73] reveals no instance of social workers claiming high community standing for their profession.

The notion that emerges is that the South African social worker, like her American colleague, is not accorded high status and prestige by the community. In examining the possible reasons for social work not being a high status and high prestige profession, potential explanations can be classified into six groups: those associated with

social work's historical origin; those associated with terminology and image; those associated with characteristics of the social work profession; those associated with social work's clientele; those associated with the sex ratio in social work; and those explanations associated with social workers being a deviant group in society.

Historically, social work is associated with the poor, and Bisno considers that in the minds of the public, the professional social worker is still linked to the unskilled "Lady Bountiful" image.[74] This heritage from the past is exacerbated by difficulties that arise, from terminology and other sources, in explaining contemporary professional social work to the public. Pollak, for example, has noted a substantial difference in status between professionals and "workers", and points out that social work is the only profession to call its personnel by the latter term. He suggests that social work may thus have reduced status in the eyes of the public.[75] In the same vein, Weinberger and Weinberger observe that the concept of social work is a difficult one to convey to the public, lacking general appeal, and failing to conjure up a mental image of the type projected by the term "physician" or even, "psychologist".[76] White goes to the extreme of calling the designation social worker a "semantic curiosity".[77]

The third group of factors that contribute to social work not having high status and prestige can collectively be termed aspects of the social work profession, or, more succintly, consequences of semi-professional standing. Bisno has pointed out that in comparison to established professions, social work is professionally immature and lacking in standards, and further, that it is often practiced, and seen to be practiced, in contexts where it is peripheral or subordinated

to a high status profession, such as medicine.[78] Kadushin states that prestige is related to income, length of training, and power over the norm-setting members of society, and that in these respects social work compares poorly with high status professions.[79] He also observes that unlike high-status professions such as medicine, the work of social work is not seen to require specialised knowledge, the social worker does normally not work in prestigious "private practice" settings, and that the experienced social worker still works under conditions of supervision.[80]

Fourthly, the predominance of women may lower the status of social work, as women are often not accorded the same prestige in the occupational world as men,[81] and fifthly, the clientele of social work may reduce the profession's status. The argument for this latter suggestion has been set out by Kadushin, who considers that occupational prestige is affected by the prestige of the group to whom the professional person offers his services, and that as social work predominantly serves the least advantaged members of the community, its prestige is adversely influenced.[82]

Finally, it can be suggested that social work's status and prestige in the community is reduced by social work's position as a deviant group within society. Bisno has articulated the view that the value system of social work contains an implied threat to the status quo.[83] Social work's position as a deviant group is heightened by Polansky et al's finding that although social workers tend to be predominantly middle-class, their opinions on current social issues are influenced by identification with their clients, and are thus often contradictory to the opinions of community power groups.[84]

The implications of not being accorded high status and prestige by the community pose serious problems for social workers. For example, people tend to view themselves as others view them,[85] and will this lead to reduced self-confidence and lessened self-esteem in social workers? Will social workers' identification with the interests of clients not only reduce their community status, but also cause personal insecurity by increasing the distance between social workers and their families and friends? In regard to this latter question, Polansky and his collaborators believe that, "The average social worker is a marginal person, lacking the securities which may be derived from felt membership of a major social grouping".[86] Will the status problems facing social workers cause them to accept the dominant ideology of the most powerful community group, at the expense of social work values? These questions point to the nature of the status dilemma in social work: not only does the community fail to accord the profession high status and prestige, but improvement of the profession's standing can perhaps only be achieved at the cost of traditional values and identifications. Put simply, the price of increased status and prestige may be abandonment of clients' interests.

A second aspect of status and prestige is the <u>internal system of status and prestige within the profession</u>. This often overlooked aspect is important because when the community denies a profession high standing, compensation can be achieved through members being awarded status and prestige within the professional community. Such an internal system can be viewed at the two levels of the profession as a whole, and within particular organizations or agencies. At the level of the profession as a whole, internal status can be achieved by professional social workers being elected by their fellows into

positions of high status such as Chairman of a Social Worker's Association, or representative of the profession on a planning council or social action body. In addition, certain positions of status can be achieved which are not controlled by professional peers. Examples of such positions are Professor of Social Work, or member of one of the Commissions of the National Welfare Board. These latter signs of status are not available to all members of a profession, and are restricted to a small number of professional leaders.

For the great majority of social workers, the internal system of status and prestige is more applicable at the level of individual organizations or agencies. Both Austin and Goodall have commented on the internal status system of welfare agencies in the United States of America, and their comments seem equally appropriate to the South African setting. Austin writes that because social work is a new profession, it has required its skilled practitioners to move into supervision, administration and teaching, in order to induct new members. The jobs of supervisor, administrator and teacher have thus become the status jobs in social work, while the grass-roots practitioner is consequently allocated reduced status.[87] Similarly, Goodall writes that in the typical hierarchy of a community welfare organisation, the board of management is at the top, followed by the executive, the supervisor, and finally the workers. She suggests that it is important to clarify that it is the <u>practitioner</u> who is really doing the work of the agency, and that all other persons in the structure are there to enable that work.[88] If, as has been suggested, there is similarity between the American and South African situations, the implication would be that the social work practitioner, already denied high status and prestige by the community, is additionally denied

high standing within internal professional status and prestige systems.

Overall, available evidence suggests that the social worker is not allocated high status and prestige in the community, and that attempts to change the community standing of social work may be fraught with ethical and value conflicts. In addition, the "grass-roots" social worker is denied standing in the internal status and prestige system of the profession. Bearing in mind the central position of occupational standing in contributing to an individual's social status and total life existence, discussed above in the introduction to this section, the lack of status and prestige accorded to social work can be identified as a potential source of dissatisfaction and stress for social workers.

A final analysis of social work's status dilemma is offered by Cohen, who writes:

> "Unless the community is ready to see the value of social welfare services, and pay for them through taxes and voluntary contributions, the role and status of the professional (social) worker will not change significantly"[89]

Perhaps the path to improved community recognition and standing for social work does not lie in the direction of abandoning deeply held values or capitulation to community power forces, but lies rather, as Cohen implies, in helping the community to achieve a fuller and more mature understanding of its social welfare responsibilities.

6. Bureaucracy and the social worker

Social work's growing awareness of organizational theory and system analysis has resulted in the social work literature of the 1960's reflecting an increased preoccupation with bureaucracies, the host settings of most social work practice.

A bureaucracy can be defined as "A formal organizational system, which strives to clarify roles, distinguish between superiors and subordinates, and locate power in proper centres".[90] In the late 1950's, Wilensky and Lebeaux drew attention to some of the potential conflicts that bureaucratic settings could engender in professional social workers,[91] and in the following decade, successive writers have identified a number of aspects of bureaucracies which can clash with intrinsic social work values and service goals.

Most social work writers take the view that as a professional person in a bureaucratic structure, the social worker finds herself confronted by two sets of mutually incompatible demands: one set emanates from her professional values, principles, ethics and priorities; and the other set is imposed by the bureaucratic structure of her employing agency.[92] Three main areas of potential conflict between bureaucracy and profession can be established. They are the areas of bureaucratic goals versus professional service goals; bureaucratic authority versus professional authority; and bureaucratic decision-making versus professional decision-making.

The potential conflict between bureaucratic goals, and professional service goals is the most readily identifiable point of disagreement between professional employees and their employing agency. A bureaucratic

structure emphasises procedures and standardised approaches, which leads to rigidity in the provision of service. The social worker, viewing the client as a whole person, may find that the agency's bureaucratic structure permits her to treat only fragmented parts of the client's problem, and as Green observes, the structure of the bureaucracy limits the social worker's choice about the nature and priorities of service.[93] On the same point, Vinter argues that the size of the bureaucracy is related to conflict between bureaucratic and service goals. He considers that the larger the agency, the greater the strain on the individual social worker: communication becomes formalised; the agency executive becomes a remote, unapproachable figure; rationalised procedures become more common; and many professional activities are prescribed by manuals and job descriptions. In Vinter's opinion, these conditions may lead some social workers to be less satisfied, and may result in increased personnel turnover.[94]

Another possible source of stress, closely related to the potential clash between bureaucratic and professional service goals discussed above, is conflict between bureaucratic authority and professional authority. The nature and structure of a bureaucracy requires leadership, co-ordination and control, and the initiative and self-direction of the professional worker is limited by regulations, procedures, and a system of hierarchical supervision and accountability.[95] Whereas it is generally accepted that in social welfare organizations, as in other organizations, a formal structure of control and responsibility is a prerequisite for effective functioning,[96] the social work literature reflects considerable unrest about the use of professional supervision as a means of reinforcing bureaucratic authority.[97]

Vinter is one of the writers who gives special attention to the institution of supervision being a source of stress to social workers. He follows the view that however able the supervisor is in exercising her authority, limits are placed on the social worker's autonomy through supervision, with a resulting tension between professional competence and administrative practice.[98] Behind this tension lies a conflict between the non-authoritarian ideology of social work, and the exercise of administrative authority and control.

Supervision, despite the advantages that it brings to the beginning practitioner who is developing her professional skills, places the experienced social worker in a position of continuing dependency. In this regard, Smith writes that the social worker's autonomy is less than that of other established professionals. She is more closely supervised by her seniors, she has to report more closely on her activities, and agency policy restricts her discretion. Smith considers that this situation will lead to the role expectations of the social worker, as a professional, conflicting with the hierarchical relationships of the agency.[99] Gouldner gives a pertinent insight into the supervision of experienced workers when he suggests that the agency worker be compared with the University teacher, whose class is scarcely ever visited by his superiors and who, in fact, would probably be deeply resentful should this occur.[100]

Austin, recognising the conflicting interests of bureaucracy and professional in the practice of supervision, comments that while agency-centred practice will continue to be predominant in social work, the immediate task is to see if job definitions and organizational arrangements can be restructured in a satisfying formal organization

pattern that will be consistent with professional goals and values.[101] While this is a desirable objective, certain characteristics peculiar to social work make a restructuring of this nature additionally difficult. For example, community welfare organizations normally have community boards of management, who might have goals and ideas very different from those of professional social workers; and public welfare organizations might have statutory functions to fulfil, which could take precedence over the individual social worker's treatment goals. In both community and public welfare agencies, therefore, management has a vital interest in ensuring the priority of bureaucratic goals, and thus a vested interest in the continuance of administrative supervision for employed social workers.

The brief examination of conflict between bureaucratic authority and professional authority, above, leads on to a closely related area. Essentially, authority involves power and responsibility for decision making, and it follows that if a conflict exists between bureaucratic and professional authority, there will also be a clash between bureaucratic and professional decision-making power. In particular, it can be postulated that most conflict will centre upon decisions about the direction and nature of client service.

Ideally, the values, principles and ethics of professional social workers should be complementary to the requirements of a social welfare organization, the aims of which are at least nominally in accordance with the humanitarian goals of professional social work. In an ideal situation, therefore, a minimum of disagreement about client service would be expected between social workers and agency. However, the social work literature reflects that this perfect unanimity

of purpose is often not achieved, and a much-quoted reason for discord in community welfare organizations is a difference in motivation and purpose between bureaucratic policy-makers (i.e. boards of management) and professional employees.

Rapoport, for example, names as one of the sources of tension in social work, the lack of consistent attitudes and values within social work agencies and institutions. She attributes this to a great part of social work administration, policy-making, and elaboration of procedures being done by laymen, whose goals and actions may be at variance with professional values and conceptions regarding the nature and needs of the human being.[102] Auerbach agrees with Rapoport, and suggests that one of the reasons for conflict is that the real motivation of board of management members is not fully understood. He advances the view that the normally recognised motivation of altruism is often mixed with other motivations, such as a wish for recognition and prestige. While he accepts that there is no basic contradiction between these latter motivations, and dedication to agency goals, Auerbach points out that failure to recognise board members' dual motivation can lead professional social workers into two potentially frustrating situations: firstly, they may become disillusioned at board members not always giving priority to those service goals identified by professionals; and secondly, they may feel that to reduce conflict they must become party to decisions made by the "power" board, and sacrifice principle for opportunism.[103]

Kramer has approached the issue of conflict between board of management and professional workers from the point of view that board and professionals have different reference groups. Board members will

reflect the values and attitudes of their various community reference groups, while professionals will tend to reflect the values and perspectives of their occupational group. Kramer concludes that board members will consequently be less deterministic, more punitive, more voluntary-minded, and less able to perceive inadequacy in service, than will the professional social worker.[104]

The three types of conflict that can exist between professionals and bureaucracy -over service goals, authority, and decision-making power - can be reduced by a number of mechanisms. Kramer, for example, cites the gap between what people say and what people do, the attitudes of board members changing through a process of education, and the agency executive's power to control the board's exposure to potentially conflict-laden issues.[105] From the professional social worker's point of view, Green points out that in coping with bureaucratic conflicts, the worker consciously or unconsciously adopts one of a number of accommodation patterns, ranging from no integration of professional and bureaucratic roles, to the worker being able to hold the incompatible elements of the two roles in realistic perspective, and even capitalise upon the inherent conflict in order to promote change.[106]

For some workers, this latter type of satisfactory accommodation will be particularly difficult. Green identifies them as the worker who feels herself to be a victim of the bureaucratic setting, and who gets relief from over-identification with the client "victim of society"; the immature worker, lacking in skills and knowledge, who will be tempted to abandon her professional identity and take refuge in the rigidity and organizational procedure of the bureaucracy; and the social

work "reformer", who tries to sustain her own humanitarian values against both the bureaucracy and the profession.[107] In addition, the effectiveness of the worker's accommodation to conflict with bureaucracy will depend on how she personally hopes to get her main gratifications: as Billingsley observes, the social worker must relate to the four sub-systems of profession, agency, clientele and community, and her resolution of conflicting demands will depend on the sub-system from which she expects to get her primary rewards.[108]

Finally, writers such as Toren[109] and the Simpsons[110] have advanced the view that female social workers will experience less conflict between bureaucratic and professional values, than will males. Their argument is based upon the premise that females are more amenable to working within bureaucratic structures, for a number of reasons: they have a tendency to defer to men (and most agency boards of management have powerful male members); they desire sociability and pleasant inter-personal relationships, and are fearful of conflict that might endanger these; they have less work ambition than men; they tend to have compliant dispositions; and their primary attachment is often to their family role, rather than to their professional role. In consequence, they can be considered more willing than men to accept the bureaucratic controls imposed upon them in social welfare organizations.[111]

The bureaucratic setting of most social work practice can be identified as a potential source of tension to some social workers, and accommodation to conflict between professional and bureaucratic priorities can depend on the nature of the conflict, the worker's personality, her values, and her principal sources of work reward and satisfaction.

7. Other sources of stress in social work

In preceding sections of this chapter, the working conditions, image, status, prestige, and bureaucratic-professional conflicts of social workers have been identified as possible sources of stress to members of the profession. Whereas these areas are the ones most closely examined in the literature as causes of dissatisfaction to social work practitioners, they by no means form a comprehensive list of all sources of discontent and tension. A brief examination of some of the other potential causes of dissatisfaction with social work as work, as reflected by the literature, may serve to provide a more complete picture. In particular, four further areas merit note. They are personal demands made upon the social worker by social work practice; the changing clientele of social work; the gap between ideals and reality; and the "reality shock" experienced by the beginning social worker.

The personal demands made upon the social worker by social work practice are multiple, and several (such as coping with poor community recognition, and accommodating to bureaucratic requirements) have already been discussed. What has not been mentioned, however, is the heavy demand made upon the social worker in dealing with the emotional content of social work practice. Of all professions, social workers have a special emphasis on relationships with clients being a *sine qua non* for professional help, and involvement in purposeful relationships involves the worker in deep emotions, both her own and her client's. This has led Rapoport to specify that the social worker must have a high capacity for the "tolerance and absorption of all kinds of negative feelings, massive anxieties and needs by clients and groups,"[112] and Babcock to state that the social worker is "subject to the projected

hostility and criticism of anxious, sick people and of a frightened and immature society."[113] The capacity to deal purposefully and constructively with emotional material of this type demands a mature and secure personality, but even in a person who meets these requirements, the constant emotional battering of day-to-day social work practice can be a considerable strain.

Secondly, a recent South African writer has stated that the social worker works increasingly with people from all classes of society,[114] and bearing in mind that the social worker herself often comes from the middle class,[115] the possibility emerges of the social worker working with clients from the same social class as herself. Rapoport suggests that this situation will present stress to the social worker, as middle class clients, seeking norms, standards, values and meaning in life, may press middle class social workers to provide solutions to problems which they themselves may not have solved.[116]

Thirdly, tension arises from what Rapoport has called "the recognition of what needs to be done, and from the realisation that knowledge and methods are inadequate to the demand."[117] This can be termed the gap between the social worker's service ideals and reality, and stress from this source will depend on the individual social worker's conception of ideal welfare services, and also on her perception of prevailing need and inadequacies.

Fourthly, there is evidence to suggest that both in South Africa and in other countries, the beginning social worker experiences what Wilensky and Lebeaux have termed "reality shock",[118] when she discovers the discrepancies between the norms inculcated in professional training,

and the requirements of practice. This phenomenon has two aspects, namely the high standards of training, and the lower standards of some practice. The choice facing social work educators is whether to educate social workers for social work as it is locally practised, or whether to educate students in terms of the highest professional ideals, so that practice in the field will be gradually improved. For most social work educators, this is no "choice", and students for the profession are educated to aspire towards the best possible social work standards. As Wright has commented, training cannot follow too closely the average practice of the field, and must reflect the best, even though this causes discontent among those who have been trained.[119] The idealistic standards of social work education may extend beyond the classroom into student field instruction, despite low standards of agency practice. This comes about because students are usually assigned to agencies where practice is compatible with high professional norms and values, and as Vinter points out, the combination of both theoretical and practical training at a high level may accentuate the strain for novice practitioners first employed in agencies whose characteristics are less than ideal.[120]

Empirical studies support the notion that the transition from University to non-ideal agency practice can cause strain and dissatisfaction in beginning social workers. In the United States of America, Wasserman has studied the early careers of 12 graduate social workers taking their first jobs in a child welfare agency. He reports that within a month, 7 of the 12 were disappointed and frustrated in their work situations, and that by the end of two years, 8 of the 12 workers had left the agency. Wasserman concludes that the main difficulties, apart from heavy case loads, were provided by the institutional rigidity of the agency and allied welfare structures,

coupled to the fact that only 3 of the 12 beginning workers felt that their supervisors and consultants had sufficient knowledge and experience to assist them.[121]

Wasserman's American findings receive support from Hare's experience in South Africa. Hare, a South African social work teacher, conducted a seminar with 11 social work graduates of the University of the Witwatersrand in August 1969, after the graduates had had six months practice in the field, and also led a group of young social workers in regular fortnightly discussions during 1970. She reports that during their first year of practice, social work graduates encounter many frustrations, including the pressure of heavy case loads; professional standards which fall short of the graduate's expectations, or which are so high that the graduate feels that she cannot measure up to the practice of her colleagues; agencies that have rigid, bureaucratic structures that are resistant to change; inadequate supervision; and uneconomic use of welfare manpower. Hare emphasises that in her opinion, the provision of supervision is the most immediate need for these beginner social workers, and that further, the type of supervision needed is supervision that goes beyond helping the graduate with the "mechanics" of case management, and which also provides the worker with the opportunity to express her feelings.[122]

Dissatisfactions and strains resulting from shortcomings between educational ideals and practical realities have an increased significance in the social worker's first job, as the beginning social worker, often lacking extensive life experience, may become disillusioned not only with a particular job, but with the social work profession as a whole.

8. The work patterns of social workers: indices of work satisfaction and dissatisfaction?

The work patterns of social workers, as reflected by their rate of movement from job to job, or by their attrition rate, are frequently discussed in the professional literature, and there is widespread agreement among investigators that two of the most important administrative problems facing social welfare agencies today are staff morale and staff longevity, both of which are directly related to the quality of service received by the community.

Perhaps it is this concern about social workers' job movements and wastage from the profession that has led some social work writers to take a naive view of occupational mobility and occupational wastage rates, and to interpret them as direct indices of work satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Meisels, for example, has stated that "Workers who change (jobs) frequently are expected as a group to show low job-satisfaction",[123] and Vinter has suggested that workers tend to leave jobs when their balance of satisfaction-dissatisfaction becomes adverse.[124] Although there may well be truth in Meisels' and Vinter's statements, a case can be made for occupational wastage and occupational mobility being influenced by factors other than job dissatisfactions. To understand the meaning of occupational mobility and wastage rates, therefor, the investigator requires more than numerical rates per se: he needs a knowledge of the causes lying behind the figures.

(i) Occupational mobility

In discussing whether or not social workers' occupational mobility rates can be considered an index of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the profession, an examination of two main areas would seem relevant. Firstly, it is necessary to briefly survey existing data on occupational mobility rates, and secondly, the social work and social science literature can be reviewed for insights into the causes of occupational mobility.

The actual occupational mobility rates of social workers have been surveyed in a number of countries. For example, in the United States of America, Bishop has studied the careers of graduates of the University of Pennsylvania School of Social Work, and reports an average mobility rate of one inter-agency move every five years, although she notes that one-quarter of the sample make three-fifths of the moves.[125] In Britain, Timms has studied the occupational mobility of psychiatric social workers, and he reports that men spend an average of 4.1 years in each job, while the average duration of female workers' jobs differs according to their marital status. Those who marry after qualification have an average length of job of 2.3 years; those who marry before qualification have an average length of job of 4.2 years; and single women have an average length of job of 5.2 years.[126] In South Africa, McKendrick has reported on the occupational mobility of Durban social workers. Their average length of job is 3 to 4 years, and their occupational mobility is related to age, sex and race. Durban social workers are most occupationally mobile in the age range 20 to 29 years; the average length of job of male social workers is almost double that of female social workers (6 to 7 years, as compared to 3 to 4 years); and white female social workers have the lowest

average duration of job of all race/sex groups.[127]

When the social work and social science literature is surveyed for insights into the causes of occupational mobility, two distinct groups of influencing factors can be identified. The first group concerns specific job dissatisfactions, while the second group concerns factors unassociated with stress or dissatisfaction in the job terminated.

Specific job dissatisfactions have been found to play an important part in the occupational mobility of American social workers. For example, Tollen has studied the reasons for staff turnover in American child welfare and family service agencies, and of the five major reasons for job termination that he reports, three are related to job dissatisfaction. They are dissatisfaction with supervision, dissatisfaction with programme policies, and having "better jobs" to move to. The other two reasons are family-oriented: geographical movement unassociated with work (particularly the geographical migration of husbands), and maternity.[128] More recent information on reasons for the occupational mobility of social workers in the United States of America is provided by Ferguson, who states that studies of staff turnover in social welfare agencies indicate that workers' reasons for leaving mention dissatisfaction with working conditions, including all aspects of personnel policies and practices.[129]

The writer knows of no empirical British or South African data concerning the influence of job dissatisfactions on job termination, and thus upon occupational mobility. It would seem reasonable to suspect, however, that British and South African social workers, like their American colleagues, will be influenced to some extent by job

dissatisfaction in terminating jobs, and in moving from one job to another.

The second group of factors influencing the occupational mobility of social workers is comprised of causes unrelated to stress or dissatisfaction in the job terminated. Four specific issues can be identified: the attitudes of professional persons to job changing; the state of the labour market; whether or not the profession is undergoing a phase of growth; and, particularly for female social workers, family-related factors.

Firstly, there is evidence that professional people are more occupationally mobile than other groups. Carr-Saunders and Wilson observe that professional people pass from the service of one organization to that of another: the professional is attached primarily to his profession, and not to his employer.[130] Parnes has empirically established that the mobility of professional workers is greater than that of other established occupational categories,[131] and Taylor has stated that the reason for this high occupational mobility is that professional people are willing to move where they can achieve the most excellence.[132] Not only is high occupational mobility characteristic of a profession, but a lack of occupational mobility may be disadvantageous: as Caplow comments, long identification with a single establishment may be an indifferent or even negative factor in the professional person's personnel record.[133]

Can these professional mobility characteristics be found in the emergent profession of social work? American material would seem to indicate that this is the case. Blau and Scott have shown that

professional social workers are more committed to the content of their profession than they are to a loyalty towards their particular employing agency. They state that the professional social worker is willing to move from one employer to another for opportunities that will enable her to better serve her discipline, even although this mobility may not contribute to the goals of the bureaucracy in which she works. Blau and Scott conclude that social workers with the greatest professional orientation are least loyal to a bureaucratic agency.[134] Similarly, Scotch has studied high staff turnover in the Jewish community centre field in the United States of America, and he reports that most social workers have a primary loyalty to their profession, so that given an open system of employment with free competition for workers, those organizations with the highest status in the profession will be most successful in attracting and retaining personnel.[135] If loyalty to the profession, rather than the agency, is also characteristic of South African social workers, this factor may be a potent influence on their occupational mobility patterns.

A second area of relevance to occupational mobility is the state of the social work labour market. In a market where there is great demand and a supply that does not meet this demand, occupational mobility from job to job will be facilitated, whether the movement is prompted by the search for professional excellence or by other factors. In this regard, the constant shortage of social workers in South Africa, which can be identified from the 1950's to the present time (see pp.45-52 , supra), may contribute to the occupational mobility of professional social workers in the Republic.

Thirdly, closely related to the state of the social work labour market is whether or not the profession is passing through a phase of growth. In periods of growth, increased turnover can be expected, and in the United States, Hollis and Taylor have commented that rapid personnel turnover is characteristic of a rapidly expanding profession.[136] In a country such as South Africa, the recent pace of growth of social work and social welfare services does not appear to be as rapid as that reported in the United States, or for that matter in the United Kingdom. However, as and when the community become more conscious of the under-developed nature of welfare provisions for some population groups in the Republic, a spurt in the development of both social services and posts for social workers can be expected.

Finally, there is a considerable body of evidence to support the notion that, for female social workers, family-oriented factors play a significant part not only in their occupational wastage, but also in their occupational mobility. This issue is discussed in the following chapter of this dissertation, which deals specifically with female social workers and work.

The foregoing discussion of occupational mobility rates and the reasons for social workers' occupational mobility, leads on to two related questions. Firstly, how advantageous or disadvantageous to social work is the job movement of social workers? Secondly, is there an optimum occupational mobility rate for social workers?

A case can be advanced for occupational mobility having both advantages and disadvantages for individual social workers and for social work as a whole, according to the circumstances in which it takes place. Thomas considers desirable occupational mobility to be

that mobility which allows for knowledge and experience to be transferred between individuals and organizations; which allows ambitious, capable and efficient people to follow opportunities for personal advancement; and which allows for the "shedding" of unsuitable employees.[137] On the other hand, he considers occupational mobility to be undesirable when it does not lead to the better utilisation of manpower, or when it occurs so frequently that there is no stability or continuity in a particular work force.[138] Thomas' latter points are relevant to social workers if it is accepted that the "better utilization of manpower" in social work refers to the highest standards of service to the community. Besides the possibility of excessive mobility of social workers leading to a reduced standard of client service, it can be noted that high mobility of professional personnel also has economic consequences for welfare organizations. Following Gaudet,[139] it can be argued that these economic consequences may include recruiting costs (e.g. advertising); selection and hiring costs; training costs (e.g. in-service training, and allowing new personnel to acquire a knowledge of the agency and its clients); "on the job costs" (e.g. supervision of new workers, learning a new neighbourhood, becoming acquainted with case histories); and intangible costs, particularly in the loss of client goodwill.

If occupational mobility of social workers has both desirable and undesirable aspects, can an optimum mobility rate be found? It would seem that an optimum occupational mobility rate for social workers, where the desirable aspects are greatest, and the undesirable aspects least, cannot be established for the profession generally. This is because of variable demands between field and field, agency and agency, and between individual workers. However, some fields of social work

have attempted to lay down a minimum length of job before a worker becomes effective. In psychiatric social work, for example, the Scottish branch of the Association of Psychiatric Social Workers has established a minimum length of 4 years in the worker's first job, before the full benefits of training are apparent.[140] Similarly, practitioners of particular social work methods have tried to establish minimum employment periods. In the case of social group workers, for example, Kindelsperger has written that it is usually not desirable to keep a good worker for less than two years.[141]

Interpreting social workers' occupational mobility rates is made more difficult by a lack of an optimum occupational mobility rate for social workers as a whole. It is of note, however, that occupational mobility need not always be disadvantageous, and that the movement of personnel from job to job can have beneficial effects both for individual social workers and for the profession generally.

In summary, it can be stated that while the occupational mobility rates of social workers may well be a partial index of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the profession, they cannot be accepted as such without detailed investigation: evidence exists to suggest that movement from job to job can be influenced by a range of other factors not directly associated with job discontent.

(ii) Occupational wastage

Many of the arguments against viewing occupational mobility rates *per se* as indices of job dissatisfaction and satisfaction are also applicable to occupational wastage rates. Occupational wastage *rates* may be a useful figure in planning for social welfare manpower, but knowledge of the causes behind the rates is necessary for a full understanding of the phenomenon.

As with occupational mobility, occupational wastage may have desirable and undesirable aspects for the profession. For example, absence from the profession after qualification for the purposes of obtaining a higher social work qualification may well be considered desirable occupational "wastage"; while full-time employment outside social work after qualification may be considered undesirable occupational wastage. In addition to occupational wastage having desirable and undesirable aspects for the profession, it can also have desirable and undesirable aspects for society at large. Further, the interests of society and the profession may not be identical in this regard. An example would be occupational wastage due to maternity and child-rearing, where the profession would lose the services of a social worker, but where society would gain the addition of a new member. Thus society at large, placing a high premium on the rearing of a young child at home by his mother, might consider this desirable occupational wastage; while the profession might not necessarily adopt the same view.

Information on the occupational wastage of social workers is available for a number of countries. In the *United States of America*, Bishop has studied the work patterns of University of Pennsylvania

social work graduates, and reports that while 8 out of 10 men remain continuously in the profession, only 6 out of 10 women have unbroken employment in social work. She states that her sample as a whole realise only 83% of their potential service in social work, with men realising more than women (92.8%, as compared to 80%).[142] Lewin, also in the United States of America, has surveyed the careers of married female graduates of the New York School of Social Work, and he reports that they realise only 52.9% of their potential service to the profession.[143]

In Britain, Rodgers has studied the careers of social science students completing courses at British universities in 1950, 1955 and 1960. She states that in spite of some increase in the number of men and women completing professional training, the wastage due to marriage among the younger women has defied all efforts to increase significantly the proportion of trained to untrained workers throughout the social services.[144] Timms is able to provide specific figures about occupational wastage in the field of psychiatric social work. Comparing social workers who qualified in 1947/48 and 1952/53, he shows that occupational wastage increases with experience since qualification. Single women have the least amount of occupational wastage (10% for the 1952/53 group, and 12% for the 1947/48 group), while women who marry after qualification have the greatest occupational wastage (32% for the 1952/53 group, and 55% for the 1947/48 group).[145] Surveying the attrition rate from British social work as a whole, Haines writes that it is "much too great", and he notes that many of the personnel who drop out of social work are relatively new entrants to the profession.[146]

In South Africa, indirect and direct material exists on the occupational wastage of social workers. Indirectly, certain inferences can be drawn from studies such as the 1959 survey of social workers employed in voluntary welfare organizations. This study showed that while the average age of female social workers was 29.40 years, their average experience in social work was 68.9 months, or 5 years 8.9 months.[147] As education for social work in the Republic is generally immediately post-school, and normally of three years duration, a considerable amount of occupational wastage can be suspected.

Direct South African data is reflected in McKendrick's study of Durban social workers. As a whole, the workers had an average occupational wastage of 26% of their potential working lives. The greatest part of this wastage (67%) was due to marital and family reasons, but a further 25% of all wastage was due to full- and part-time employment outside social work. McKendrick notes that occupational wastage is age related (most wastage occuring over the 23 to 46 year age range), and also related to sex and race (White females having an average occupational wastage rate of 33%, the highest of all race/sex groups).[148]

McKendrick's Durban findings lend support to the notion that occupational wastage rates per se are not a direct indication of work satisfaction or dissatisfaction, although his finding that 25% of all wastage was due to full- and part-time work outside social work may possibly indicate discontent within the profession. What would seem significant in the Durban study is that the greatest part of social workers' occupational wastage is a result of some female social workers

having the dual roles of social worker and wife/mother, and a discussion of this situation forms the major part of the following chapter.

In conclusion, it can be noted that numerical measurement of occupational mobility and occupational wastage provides only a crude indication of the work patterns of social workers. These measurements can be refined by detailed investigation into the causes of movement from job to job, and movement in and out of the profession. Without such additional refinement, neither occupational mobility rates nor occupational wastage rates can be regarded as direct indications of social workers' work satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

9. Summary

A person's work can be regarded as more than a means of making a living: it has far-reaching psychological, social and economic functions, and the satisfaction or stress experienced at work may colour the person's total living situation.

As an occupation, social work may be regarded as a source of satisfaction and stress to its practitioners. The satisfactions of social work as work are varied, and depend to a large extent on the individual, her values, reference groups, ambitions and personality.

The principal stresses or dissatisfactions of social work as an occupation can be identified, and their origins analysed. It is postulated that social work is a particularly stressful sort of work, and that this stress arises from non-ideal working and service conditions; discontent with the image, status and prestige of social

work; the bureaucratic setting of social work practice; and the nature and demands of social work itself. In addition, a further cause of tension and discontent can be found in the discrepancy between social work ideals and social work practice.

A recurring theme throughout this chapter is that social workers themselves can take action to ameliorate many of the sources of dissatisfaction in the profession, and that the main action indicated is for professional social workers to increasingly concentrate on educating the community to become aware of its wider social welfare responsibilities. Such endeavour will lead to improved social welfare provisions and services, and from this will flow greater community recognition for the social worker.

Finally, the suggestion is made that it is naive to regard occupational mobility and occupational wastage rates *per se* as direct indices of work satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The view is advanced that while these measurements may be influenced by work dissatisfactions, mobility and wastage are also affected by a wide range of other factors, some of which can be identified.

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Chapter 4

FEMALE SOCIAL WORKERS AND SOCIAL WORK

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1. Women and work in Western Society

Few revolutions can have had greater impact on Western society than the revolution that has taken place over the last seventy years, where women have won the right to be individuals rather than possessions. Of the many areas of living where the repercussions of this revolution have been felt, one of the most noticeable is the increased participation of women, particularly women from the middle and upper socio-economic classes, in society's work force.

Myrdal and Klein consider that at the turn of the Century, the middle class woman had little choice about whether or not to work, as her adult role was prescribed for her by the mores and customs of society: her place was in the home, as wife and mother. With the increasing political agitation of women's movements in the early 1900's, and particularly as a result of social changes brought by the 1914-1918 War, the middle-class woman became able to choose between the roles of wife-mother, or worker. By the late 1930's the choice had been extended, so that a middle class woman could choose between the three alternatives of worker, wife-mother, or both.[1] While political, social and cultural change all played a part in this transition, one of the greatest factors in the emancipation of women, and of direct relevance in enabling them to combine work and home roles, is what Titmuss has called the "Enlargement of women's freedom brought about by the power to control their own fertility".[2]

However, emancipation and the choice to work or be a housewife, or both, has not placed women on a par with men as far as work opportunities or work recognition are concerned. Their work opportunities are limited by the fact that their careers are subject to interruption through maternity and child-rearing; and the recognition that society accords them for their work contribution is limited by society's ambivalent attitude towards the working woman. In regard to this latter point, Rose has studied women who work, and he states that while men are considered to have their major and most significant life role outside the home, no specific and definite role outside the home is ascribed to women. Thus, he concludes, when women choose extra-home roles and succeed in them, acclaim and recognition is somewhat short of universal.[3]

While ambivalent attitudes towards women and work still exist, there is little doubt that women are increasingly participating in the labour force, and further, that they are working during those years when they are also engaged in child-rearing. In 1960, for example, 42% of all working women in the United States of America were aged between 25 and 44 years, and in 1964, 36% of all working women in Great Britain were aged between 20 and 39 years.[4] South African census material does not provide an age analysis of working women, but in 1960, adult white women formed 19.1% of the total white work force.[5] However, there is evidence that married women, including married women who are mothers, are increasingly working outside the home in South Africa. The recent Departmental Committee to formulate draft standards for the care of white children in creches, makes this comment[6]:-

> "As a result of increasing industrialisation, the rapidly changing economic structure, and the shortage of manpower in the Republic, the number of married women entering the open labour market or carrying on with their work after marriage, is increasing ..... Irrespective of motive, the married woman and mother does in fact work outside the home and this must be accepted."

The combination of work and home roles by women has led to typical women's occupations acquiring particular characteristics. Caplow has analysed these hallmarks of women's jobs, and identifies four main tendencies: employment is typically short-term; the gain in skill achieved by continuous experience is slight; interchangeability among workers is very high; and loss of skill during long periods outside the occupation is relatively small.[7] Caplow considers that these characteristics have consequences for predominantly female occupations such as social work, nursing, primary school teaching and librarianship. He suggests that the discontinuity of employment will be fatal to the development of professional solidarity; that the occupations will not be accorded high prestige and status, and will have poor working conditions; and that the occupations will be vulnerable owing to a large part of the work force being outside the occupation at any given moment.[8]

Changing attitudes and practices regarding women and work have particular relevance to social work. Not only is social work predominantly a woman's profession, and thus subject to some of the same characteristics and disadvantages of all women's occupations; social work is also intimately associated with the movement leading to the emancipation of women. Some of social work's founding fathers, like Zilpha Smith and Jane Adams, were social actionists and leading advocates of women's rights, and the growth of social

work as an occupation began when feminists were struggling to win equality.[9] Social work became one of the twentieth century's first acceptable occupations for middle class women.

2. Work as a source of conflict: women's two roles.

Opinion varies on the amount of conflict that can result from women having a work role in addition to the home roles of wife and mother. Taylor, for example, writes that in the world of work, wife and mother roles constitute complications for women, in that if a woman puts her wife-mother role first, she will in many cases be excluded from, or at least handicapped in, participation and advancement in many types of occupations.[10] Similarly, Caplow feels that it is seldom fully practicable to combine an occupational role with that of wife and mother, because "The interruptions occasioned by pregnancy, the care of small children, and miscellaneous family emergencies create a hopeless set of handicaps in competition with male workers".[11] Myrdal and Klein, on the other hand, write that modern technical and social developments have given women the opportunity to combine and integrate their two interests of home and work, and they state with optimism that, "... The best of both worlds has come within their grasp, if only they will reach out for it."[12]

For the professional woman, however, a special set of factors exists that may influence her to try and combine work and home roles, and to find some adjustment to the conflict that may arise between them. The basic psychological situation of the married professional woman in regard to work has been described ay Arregger, who considers that the professional woman experiences tension between a fundamental

urge at the instinctual level to breed and rear offspring, and the desire, as a member of society, to be a useful and responsible member of the community together with the need for self-expression and self justification.[13]

The married woman may reduce conflict between home and work roles by accommodation along a broad continuum, ranging from complete acceptance of domestic role to a satisfactory integration, where by good organization and careful management, she is able to adjust her work and home responsibilities so that she can adequately fulfil both home and extra-home tasks. Successful accommodation to a dual work- home role is facilitated or hindered by a wide number of factors, both practical and cultural, tangible and intangible, some of which are discussed in the succeeding sub-sections of this chapter.

(i) Dis-incentives to a dual work-home role

Conflict and tension can be created for the married woman who attempts to combine home and extra-home roles by a number of groups of associated factors. For the purposes of analysis, they can be categorised as factors associated with the socialization of women; societal and cultural attitudes; family attitudes and responsibilities; economic factors; and factors associated with female workers' working conditions.

The starting point for any examination of conflict between women's work and home roles is the socialization procedures and experiences to which women are subjected in Western society. One of the individual's

first socialization experiences is to acquire an identification with his or her sex, and to adopt a society's sex-appropriate behaviour. Thus, in South Africa, as in other Westernised countries, the young girl is encouraged to identify with the traditional women's roles: she plays with dolls, learns to knit and sew, is encouraged to experiment with cooking, and so forth. This primary identification with female home-maker roles is continued and reinforced as the young female attends school, where even the curriculum has certain socializing influences, for example, learning domestic science rather than woodwork. Throughout this impressionable period, the growing female is inculcated into a formal and informal female sub-culture, where she observes older women's wedding days as being called "the happiest day of their life", where she sees the increased prestige given within the female sub-culture to a woman who produces her first child, and where woman's primary role in the home is propagated and reinforced by religion, by social contact and example, and by the mass media to which she is exposed. As she emerges into maturity, the female is under social and family pressure to conform to sex-appropriate patterns, to marry, to bear children, and to be a home-maker. This intense socialization experience results in what Arreggor terms, "most women taking marriage for granted" and internalizing the attitude that only in marriage will they be fulfilled as women.[14]

The effects of socialization on some women in Western society are substantiated by research studies. Rosenberg, for example, has compared the career expectations of men and women university students, and reports that three times as many men as women expect their careers to represent their major life satisfaction. Even more significantly, he states that 52% of women (as compared to 0.5% of men) do not expect

to be working ten years after graduation.[15] Similarly, Rose has compared the adult role expectations of male and female university students, and writes that a significant proportion of women have unclear, inconsistent and unrealistic expectations about their future extra-home adult roles.[16]

Overall, female socialization can be expected to result in many women regarding their home roles as their major source of life meaning and satisfaction, and if they do work, to consider their work role as secondary to the roles of wife and mother. For married women who have such a set of priorities, the demands and responsibilities of work may engender feelings of conflict, resentment and guilt, particularly if they consider that their work duties reduce the quality of their performance in their primary home-maker roles.

A second set of dis-incentives to the combination of work-home roles are societal and cultural attitudes towards women and work. In South Africa, these attitudes seem ambiguous, or at best ambivalent. On the one hand, a societal value is placed on increased reproduction, expecially by the white population group. Thus, the Minister of Social Welfare and Pensions, addressing a meeting of the National Welfare Board, is reported to have said:-[17]

> "... And I should appreciate it if the Commission (i.e. the Family Life Commission) would make every effort to promote healthy family life throughout the country and a natural increase in the population." (writer's emphasis)

On the other hand, increased industrialization, the prevailing political policy and a shortage of labour has resulted in many white women entering or returning to the work force.[18] These two opposing pressures place the married woman in an invidious position, as

maternity and the rearing of young children are normally incompatible with extra-home employment.

Central to the apparent contradiction between a wish for increased population, and the need for women to enter the work force, is whether or not it is harmful for the child to be separated from his mother, as would happen is she worked outside the home. In the case of infants and young children, informed opinion on this issue has shown a swing over the last two decades. In the early 1950's, Bowlby's theory of child deprivation[19] engendered considerable public concern about the potentially damaging consequences of the working mother being separated from her young child. This concern did not rapidly abate, despite Bowlby retracting his theory and replacing it by an amended statement, where he clearly differentiated between the effects of "separation" and "deprivation".[20]

As regards the impact of a working mother on the quality of family life and the development of children generally, Thompson and Finlayson have surveyed existing studies in this area, and they state that no empirical evidence can be produced to show intellectual or emotional damage to children that is directly attributable to maternal employment.[21] Indeed, in their own study of working mothers in Aberdeen, they write that they have found little evidence of harmful effects on families caused by working mothers, and that the quality of family life sometimes appears to gain strength when the mother has outside commitments.[22] In addition, it is of more than passing interest that the work of persons such as Rose[23] and Goldberg[24] has suggested that rather than children being harmed by having working mothers, they are sometimes more likely to be harmed by excessive

maternal care and overportection from non-working mothers.

The relationship between the quality of family life and the employment of mothers is not a simple one. However, in the absence of empirical evidence to suggest that the employment of mothers per se is deleterious to child-rearing and family living, it is appropriate to view the common belief that the working mother hazards the development of her children and the stability of her marriage, as a social phenomenon, formed and perpetuated by societal attitudes and cultural values.

In the final analysis, however, the extent to which maternal employment can damage children is closely related to a practical issue, namely the quality of alternative care available for the employed mother's children, more especially her pre-school children. This issue is examined in a following sub-section of this chapter.

A third set of factors which can be identified as dis-incentives to a woman having both work and home roles, are those factors associated with family attitudes and responsibilities. Three types of dis-incentive may exist in this category: those associated with the family structure and internal competition; the family's social class; and the quality and quantity of available services that supplement or replace some of the working woman's traditional home responsibilities.

The nature of the family's structure influences the ease with which a married woman can carry an extra-home role. For example, the Western pattern of family structure, sanctioned by law and

reinforced by religion, is for the head of the family and principal wage-earner to be the husband. Thus, the working wife can present a threat to her husband, and may introduce role confusion and consequent tension in the family. Commenting on this issue, Parsons has written that a woman's abandonment of a career is thought to have positive consequences for a marriage, as it minimises rivalry and promotes solidarity.[25] Similarly, Caplow states that the system of motivations which ties the male breadwinner to his family obligations implies the elimination of competitive pressures within the family. He suggests that by serious involvement in the occupational world, the working wife can threaten the breadwinner rather than assist him.[26]

The family's social class, and folkways pertaining to the behaviour of members of that social class, can similarly prevent a married woman from working. Caplow comments that in general, the higher the class status of the family, the higher the probability that a woman's work will be interrupted at marriage, and the lower the chance that she will return to the work force after the birth of children.[27] Empirical investigation supports Caplow's comments. For example, in a study of graduate women in Britain, Arregger shows a constant relationship between the size of a husband's salary and the propensity of his wife to remain at home: the greater the husband's income, the lesser the chance of the wife working.[28]

Irrespective of the family's internal structure and social class, a practical issue that dominates the ability of the married woman to return to work is the quality of quantity of available services that supplement or replace her traditional home responsibilities as wife

and mother. In the literature, two aspects of this issue are normally stressed: the availability of domestic assistance to the working mother, so that her home-maker duties may be reduced; and the a availability of suitable substitute care for her children, particularly her pre-school children. In South Africa, the white woman who works is fortunate in being able to obtain domestic help relatively easily and realtively cheaply; but the reverse is true of adequate substitute care for children, particularly pre-school children.

Four recognised types of substitute care exist for the pre-school children of working mothers in the Republic. They are nursery schools, creches, pre-school play groups and child-minder services.

The shortage of nursery school facilities for white children in South Africa is chronic.[29] Many factors contribute to this situation, including a reliance on private initiative to establish and operate nursery schools,[30] the prohibition in the late 1950's of local authority involvement in pre-school education,[31] and the low priority given by the various Provincial administrations in the Republic to the establishment and/or financing of nursery school facilities. As regards the Provincial administrations, there is a lack of uniformity in pre-school education policy. In the Orange Free State, the Province's contribution is to pay the salaries of teachers in approved nursery schools, but in the Cape, the Province limits itself to a per capita subsidy for children aged 3 to 6 in non-profit nursery schools.[32] In Natal, the Province has adopted a revised system of grants-in-aid to approved non-profit nursery schools,[33] while in the Transvaal, the Province has only recently amended its education ordinance to accept increased responsibility

for nursery school education.[34] The shortage of nursery school accommodation can be illustrated by a brief summary of the position in the Transvaal. In 1971, the Transvaal had 144 non-profit nursery schools run by voluntary organisations, providing care for 9,510 white children.[35] If only 80% of white Transvaal parents with pre-school children wished to send their children to nursery school, accommodation would have to be provided for a total of 107,570 children, requiring the establishment of 1,500 new nursery schools.[36]

Whereas the shortage of nursery school places is considerable, the non-availability of creche care for children of working mothers is even more actue. In the Republic as a whole in March 1970, there were 263 registered creches or places of care for white children, with accommodation for a total of only 11,376 children.[37]

No information on a National basis is available to the writer on the extent of pre-school play groups or child-minder services in the Republic. However, the small amount of localised information that is available indicates that these types of alternative care for the children of working mothers are similarly under-developed. For example, in Johannesburg, South Africa's major metropolitan centre, only 9 pre-school play groups are reported for white children, and slightly over 100 child-minder services (each operating in a private home, with 6 or fewer children) are known to the City Health Department.[38]

There can be little doubt that the shortage of substitute care for the pre-school children of working mothers is a major obstacle to married women returning to the work force in South Africa. This deficiency has been recognised, and the Family Life Commission of the

National Welfare Board is engaged in a detailed study of the problem, and potential solutions to it.[39]

For the mother of young children who works, or who contemplates returning to work, the alternative care received by her pre-school child may provide a sense of guilt or a source of worry, and may worsen conflict between work and home roles.

A fourth set of factors that inhibit the return to work of the married woman, or which may add conflict to the adjustment of work and home roles in a woman already working, are economic considerations.

It has already been noted that the higher the husband's salary, the less likely it is for the wife to work. However, other economic factors also play a part in a married woman choosing to rejoin the labour force. For example, she may return for a specified period, with the objective of earning enough to pay for some special family project, such as a new car; or she may be offered a salary great enough for her to consider that the financial advantages of work outweigh potential conflicts between work and home roles. Whatever the motivation for working or returning to work, the married woman faces a particular economic dis-incentive in the form of reduced take-home pay. The means by which her earnings diminish are two-fold: firstly, by direct income tax; and secondly, by indirect costs which come about as a consequence of her working.

South Africa, like many Western countries, has traditionally followed a taxation philosophy where the earnings of working wives are added to their husbands' earnings for taxation purposes. In the

early and middle 1960's, this situation was exacerbated by the introduction of an income tax table where taxation increased steeply, as earnings rose above those paid to the average artisan or skilled technical worker. In the case of a working woman, the extra taxable income which she brought to the family was added to her husband's income, and thus lifted the family into a higher taxation category.

The situation can be clearly demonstrated by an illustration. In the case of a married couple with two children living in Natal (there is a slight difference in taxation according to Province of residence), where the husband had a taxable income of R6,000, and the wife one of R2,000, tax paid by the family in 1962 would have been R1,609.80. If the wife had not worked, and the family had only been taxed on the husband's taxable earnings of R6,000, the income tax paid would have been R 797.80.[40] In other words, of the extra taxable income earned by the wife, R812.00, or more than 40% of her taxable earnings, was paid in additional taxation.

Taking the same hypothetical example, by 1964 a very slight reduction in additional taxation on the wife's earnings would have been apparent: in that year, the family would have paid an extra R793.00 on the wife's additional earnings.[41] By 1967, however, a new taxation formula had been introduced involving differential taxation levels on the salaries of the two spouses, and in 1967, the same family would have paid R498.34 extra tax on the wife's additional income.[42] By 1969, the tax position was considerably modified for families with a total taxable income of R8,000 or under (particularly through a provision making the first R500 of the wife's income tax-free), and in this year, the same family would have paid an extra tax

of R276.50 on the wife's additional R2,000.[43]

The example used above (a husband earning R6,000 and a wife earning R2,000) is a relatively modest one in terms of salaries paid to some executives, managers and professional men. Thus, it can be said that the income of a working professional woman, married to an executive or professional man, would have been extensively eroded by additional income tax for the larger part of the decade 1960 to 1970. This high level of taxation can be interpreted as a disincentive to the married professional woman remaining in employment. Although the taxation system in 1971 remains more favourable to the married woman worker than in the early 1960's, recent anti-inflatory income tax and loan levy provisions announced by the Minister of Finance[44] carry with them the potential of once again making paid work outside the home a financially unattractive proposition to the married professional woman.

Overall, differentially high income tax on the earnings of married women serves to reduce the financial return that they receive for their work, and thus minimises the monetary reward that they obtain for the inconveniences, accommodations and compromises that they may experience in combining work and home roles.

In addition to the reduction of the married woman's work earnings by income tax, it is possible to identify a number of indirect ways by which her real income is diminished. Corporately, these indirect costs can be referred to as extra expenses which arise as a consequence of the married woman working. They may include costs of keeping children in suitable alternative day care; wages for extra

servants that are required to carry out the woman's home duties; labour-saving home appliances; and additional transport costs, sometimes even including the purchase and upkeep of a second car. For the British working woman, Williams suggests that the home food budget escalates, as the married working woman is swayed into buying more expensive easily-prepared food,[45] and this may also pertain in South Africa.

The economic costs of a married woman assuming extra-home work may therefore be considerable, and can include direct and indirect shrinkage of her real salary due to taxation and additional expenditure resulting from her dual work-home roles. These factors may serve to emaciate her actual financial reward to the extent that it ceases to be a work incentive.

The final group of factors which may act as a dis-incentive to the combination of work and home roles are those factors associated with working conditions. Here the principal concern is a lack of employment opportunities where working and service conditions permit the easy combination of work and home demands. The literature reflects a concern at a shortage of part-time jobs;[46] an inflexibility of service conditions, where, for example, employers are not willing to give female employees periods of unpaid leave of absence in the event of family crises, such as children's illness;[47] and a lack of "sessional" jobs where, for example, women could work during school terms, and be absent during school holidays.[48]

(ii) Incentives to a dual work-home role

In an examination of two sides of the same problem, such as a discussion of dis-incentives and incentives to women combining home and work roles, a certain amount of repetition is inevitable. For example, some of the incentives to the combination of work-home roles, such as flexible working conditions and the provision of adequate substitute day care for pre-school children, have been indirectly examined in the preceeding section of this chapter.

For convenience of discussion, it is helpful to divide work incentives into those that are external, and those that are internal. External incentives are factors outside the woman herself that facilitate the combination of home and work roles; while internal incentives are what Myrdal and Klein call the "economic and psychological motivations" within a woman that can stimulate her to seek extra-home employment.[49]

External incentives refer mainly to practical arrangements and convenient services which the married woman may use to reduce conflicts that spring up between home and work demands. Thus, such factors as a range of suitable jobs within easy reach, convenient working hours, flexible work conditions, good transport services, provision for adequate child care, and availability of domestic help, could all constitute external incentives to work.

Internal incentives, or economic and psychological motivations within a married woman to work outside the home, are different from external incentives. While external incentives generally reduce

potential conflict between work and home roles, this is not always the case with internal incentives, which in some cases can heighten these conflicts. Internal incentives fall into three groups: a desire for self-fulfilment not available in the home; boredom; and financial pressures.

The desire for self-fulfilment not available in the home can be attributed to a number of causes, not least of which is what has been termed the "social isolation of the modern housewife".[50] For the professional woman who has been trained to use special skills in the service of the community, the satisfactions of home-making and child-rearing can sometimes be limited, and a feeling of dissatisfaction with exclusively domestic duties can result. Taylor notes that a common factor which encourages married professional women to return to work is a wish to contribute more fully to society,[51] and Myrdal and Kelin suggest that professional women such as teachers, nurses and social workers are often prompted to return to work by a sense of vocation unfulfilled in purely domestic roles.[52] Arregger, in a study of British graduate women, states that interest in their work is the main incentive for the return of graduate married women to paid employment, while the second most frequent reason given is a combination of interest and money incentives.[53]

Closely related to the incentive of self-fulfilment, is boredom with exclusively home roles. Myrdal and Klein point out that under present conditions, with smaller families and increased amenities, the average housewife can be considered to be employed on tasks that are necessary for home-making during only one quarter to one third of her adult life,[54] and Taylor notes that boredom increases at a

certain stage of the female life cycle. In Taylor's view, occupational women are characterised by a two-phase working life: the first phase is from the completion of basic education until marriage or child-bearing, and the second occurrs when children begin to grow up, and the woman's family duties are contracted.[55]

A third set of internal work incentives is associated with economic factors. Myrdal and Klein view economic pressures as being of two types: firstly, the desire for a higher standard of living; and secondly, the desire of some women for a degree of independence from their husbands.[56] The actual importance of economic motivations in influencing married women to return to the labour market remains a source of disagreement in the literature. Thompson and Finlayson, for example, report that in a study of Aberdeen working women, economic reasons were the main motivation for a return to work.[57] Their finding is apparently contradicted by the studies of investigators like Zweig and Arregger. Zweig has studied British working class women, and he reports that only 1 in 3 married women return to work because of "economic pressure";[58] while Arregger, in a study of married British professional women, reports that only 19% of her sample have money as their main incentive in returning to work, although a further 32% do return to work because of a combination of interest in work and a money incentive.[59]

Overall, when examining the potential incentives and dis-incentives that exist for married women to combine work and home roles, it must be noted that all incentives and dis-incentives do not apply to all women in the same degree. The effect of the various influences identified will be different for each individual woman,

depending upon her personality, personal and familial situation, aspirations, motivations, and on her organizing and managing abilities.

3. The female social worker and work

As a woman, the female social worker is subject to the same feminine dilemmas regarding work as all women; and as a professional woman, she is exposed to the same tensions and conflicts in attempting to combine work and home roles as the female members of allied professions such as nursing and teaching. Thus, much of the discussion contained in the preceeding section of this chapter applies to the married female social worker.

Myrdal and Klein consider that in England, the on-going shortages in skilled occupations that are traditionally feminine can be traced to a high marriage rate at increasingly early years.[60] They receive support from Gray, who states in a study of women's contribution to social work that the profession is experiencing manpower crises as a consequence of female social workers marrying and establishing families at younger ages.[61]

No complete South African data is available to the writer to indicate that social workers are marrying at increasingly early ages, but indirectly, there is evidence that most female social workers do marry, and that they marry at a young age. For example, the 1959 survey of social workers employed in voluntary welfare organizations showed that over 50% of all female social workers in the field at the time of the study were married,[62] and bearing in mind that other female social workers were very probably out of the field for marital

and family reasons when the study was made, the indication is that the majority of female social workers were married. This notion is supported by a more recent statement, where Winckler has written that the average beginning social worker gives only 2½ years of service before resigning, usually to get married.[63]

This indirect evidence suggests that female social workers in the Republic will be subject to career disruption as a result of home responsibilities impinging on their potential work contributions. If this is so, two consequences can be postulated. Firstly, their work continuity and longevity will not generally be the equivalent of male social workers; and secondly, their career motivation may be reduced by home roles becoming their major life interest.

Empirical evidence on the career disruption of female social workers can be provided from the United States of America, Britain and South Africa.

In the United States of America, empirical studies show that the occupational mobility and occupational wastage of female social workers is influenced by family responsibilities; and that a particularly significant cause of occupational wastage is the presence of young children. Lewin has studied married women graduates of the New York School of Social Work, and he states that while married women without children realise an average of 91.1% of their potential work contribution in social work, married women with children realise an average of only 44.6%.[64] Further, Lewin notes that the absence of children was a controlling variable on whether or not his female subjects were in the social work field at the time of his study:

where no children were present, the members of his sample were almost without exception working in social work in a full-or part-time capacity.[65] Additional information about the influence of children on their mothers' employment is provided by Tropman, who has studied married female social work graduates of the University of Chicago. He states that at the time of his study, 59% of his subjects were unemployed, 23% in part-time employment, and 18% in full-time employment; and that the presence of children of six years and under was linked to social workers' present employment status. Only 23% of those social workers who had children six years and under were in employment, as compared to 65% of social workers without children of this age.[66] Whereas Lewin and Tropman have surveyed the influence of family factors on occupational wastage, Tollen provides evidence on how family responsibilities influence occupational mobility. He reports that of the five major reasons advanced by female social workers for leaving posts in child welfare and family service agencies, two are family-oriented: geographical mobility unassociated with the job terminated (including the migration of husbands), and maternity.[67]

In Britain, no comprehensive study of the occupational mobility and wastage of social workers is known to the writer, but Timms has provided data on female psychiatric social workers. He reports that of female workers who qualified in 1947/48, single females have realised an average of 88% of their possible service to the profession; female workers who married before qualification have realised 79%; and female workers who married after qualification have realised 45% of potential service.[68] He also reports that marital status influences occupational mobility as measured by average length of job. Of workers qualifying in 1947/48, single females have an average

length of job of 5.2 years; females married before qualification an average length of job of 4.2 years; and females married after qualification an average length of job of 2.3 years. Timms attributes the greater occupational wastage and mobility of the latter group to their having proportionally more young children.[69]

In South Africa, McKendrick has studied Durban social workers, and has shown that while white male social workers realise an average of 93% of their potential service in social work, white female social workers realise an average of only 67%; and that although marital and family factors cause 71% of all white female workers' wastage, no wastage for this reason is reported by white male workers.[70] The Durban study does not provide an analysis of the reasons for occupational mobility, but it is of note that the median number of jobs for white males is 1, while for white females it is 3; and that the median length of job for white females is 2 years, while that of white males is 6 years.[71]

Whereas direct evidence exists to show the disruptive effect of family responsibilities on the work patterns of female social workers, only indirect evidence exists to support the notion that, because of dual home and work responsibilities, the <u>female social worker may have reduced career motivation</u>. In the United States of America, Rosenblatt and his collaborators have shown that while two-thirds of practicing American social workers are women, more than two-thirds of the authors of books reviewed in five leading social work journals are men; that 60% of the journal article authors are men; and that men are twice as likely as women to hold high administrative jobs in the profession.[72] Rosenblatt <u>et al</u>

attribute this imbalance to constraints on the career aspirations of women (particularly their desiring child-rearing as a primary role), and to socializing influences on girls and young women to seek fulfilment as mothers and home-makers. Rosenblatt et al continue their argument further, to suggest that advantages accrue to female social workers who accept limited career goals, as "They need not drive themselves as ambitious men do. They can enjoy the intrinsic merits of their social work efforts. They fret less about position".[73]

In South Africa, there is some evidence to support the view of Rosenblatt and his collaborators. The overwhelming proportion of persons trained for social work in the Republic have been women (see p. 30 , supra), yet at the 11 South African universities at which white social workers are trained, only 3 have professors of social work, or alternatively heads of the department in which social work is taught, who are females.[74] This figure lends some support to Rosenblatt et al's allegations. However, it should be noted that other factors besides reduced female career motivation may be involved: for example, there may be a prejudice in South Africa towards appointing female departmental heads in universities.

Overall, it can be stated that empirical evidence supports the notion that the work patterns of female social workers are influenced by their responsibilities as wives and mothers. Further, there are grounds to suspect that the dual work-home roles of some female social workers may result in their having a reduced career motivation in social work.

4. The work patterns and work satisfactions of female social workers: a theoretical perspective.

As a social worker, the female social worker is subject to the same influences upon her work patterns as other social workers. Thus, she may be influenced in her occupational wastage and occupational mobility by the sources of work satisfaction and dissatisfaction discussed in Chapter 3 of this dissertation; and similarly, she may be influenced in her mobility and wastage by extra-job factors such as professional attitudes to work, the state of the labour market, and whether or not the profession is passing through a phase of growth (see pp. 107-108, supra).

However, as a woman, the married female social worker is subject to a third set of forces that may influence her work patterns and her work satisfactions. These forces involve her adjustment to the potentially conflicting demands that can arise from attempting to combine work and home roles. Bearing in mind the probability that a large majority of all female social workers in South Africa are married (p. 144 , supra), it can be suggested that their accommodation to potential work-home conflict will play a central part in their taking and leaving jobs, in their temporary or permanent absence from the social work field, and even in their movement from job to job within the profession.

Considerable support can be found for the notion that accommodation to potential work-home role conflict is central in determining the work patterns and work satisfactions of most female social workers. Firstly, a combination of forces exist in contemporary

Western society to encourage women to regard their home roles as their major source of gratification and fulfilment (pp.129-131 , supra), and the ability to satisfactorily combine principal home roles with secondary work roles may be a paramount consideration in working or not working. Secondly, there is evidence to suggest that female social workers, in comparison to male social workers, have reduced career motivation (pp.147-148,supra) and may therefor be less succeptible to career-linked work satisfactions and dissatisfactions. Thirdly, some aspects of the wife and mother role, such as maternity and care of infants, normally preclude working; while other aspects of the role (in Western society) make the woman's work participation secondary in importance to that of the man. Thus, for example, it is common practice for a woman to give up her job and migrate with her husband when he is transferred, or when he moves to another geographical region; while the converse is extremely rare. Finally, the social worker's professional education may serve to heighten her consciousness of the importance of family life, and could make her additionally aware of satisfactory performance in wife and mother roles.

The assumed precedence of family-linked factors in determining the work patterns and satisfactions of female social workers has led investigators of the topic to adopt hypothetical approaches that focus upon one or other aspect of accommodation to work-home role conflict. Lewin, for example, worked on the assumption that the married female social worker "works just so long as the perceived rewards (psychological, monetary and prestige) are greater than the perceived rewards of staying at home";[75] while Tropman adopted the view that the perception and reduction of conflict between work and home roles

depended upon whether the female social worker was service-oriented or intellectually-oriented. Social workers with the former orientation were expected to see social work as an extension and possible substitute for tasks typically performed in the home, and thus have less conflict in combining work and home roles. Those with the latter orientation were expected to see the satisfactions of home and work as being different, and be subject to increased intrapersonal conflict.[76]

The research study that forms the following chapters of this dissertation is an attempt to explore and describe the work patterns and work satisfaction priorities of a group of female social workers. In particular, an attempt is made to guage the extent to which their occupational mobility, occupational wastage and work satisfaction values are influenced by family-related considerations.

5. Summary

One far-reaching consequence of the emancipation of women has been an increased tendency in middle-class women to combine work and home roles. Such a combination is discouraged by a wide range of dis-incentives, associated with female socialization, societal attitudes, family attitudes and responsibilities, economic considerations, and working conditions that are not conducive to the combination of work and home responsibilities. On the other hand, the combination of work and home roles is encouraged by external incentives, and internal psychological and economic motivations.

The professional woman is under particular pressure to attempt a combination of work and home roles, and in the case of married female social workers, dual work and home responsibilities can be shown to influence their occupational mobility and occupational wastage patterns, and may also be suspected to reduce their career motivation.

The suggestion is advanced that central to an understanding of the work patterns and work satisfactions of female social workers, is the concept of accommodation to potential conflict between work and home demands.

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PART III : THE RESEARCH STUDY

Chapter 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

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RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1. Research objectives

This research study is a sequel to a pilot study, undertaken in 1966, into the occupational wastage and occupational mobility of social workers in Durban, Natal.[1] The pilot study found that social workers as a whole had an average occupational wastage of 26% of their potential working lives, and that of the race-sex groups, white females spent an average of 33% of their potential working lives outside social work, largely for marital and family reasons. In addition, white female social workers were found to be the most occupationally mobile of all race-sex groups, having a median number of 3 changes of job, and a modal length of job of only 1 year.[2]

Analysis of the pilot study data also showed that the occupational wastage of white female social workers was linked to age, and was greatest in the age range 22 to 41 years[3], during which period women would normally be expected to fulfil maternity and child-rearing functions.

As white females form the bulk of all persons educated for social work in South Africa, and constitute the great majority of all qualified social workers in the Republic, an understanding of their work behaviour would be of value to the social work profession.

The aims of this study, stimulated by the 1966 study of the Durban social worker population, are three-fold:-

Firstly, to establish the reasons for white female social workers' occupational mobility and occupational wastage;

Secondly, to establish the work satisfaction priorities of white female social workers; and

Thirdly, to use the data obtained on occupational mobility, occupational wastage and work satisfactions, as a basis for testing two tentative hypotheses.

The two tentative hypotheses put forward for testing both concern the impact of a wife-mother role on the social worker's work performance. They can be stated as follows:-

H1. The demands of the role of wife-mother may at times be so pressing that female social workers will be prevented from work participation.

H2. The need to accommodate conflicting home and work demands will have two consequences for female social workers:-

Firstly, they will give high work satisfaction importance to aspects of work which reduce, or compensate for, work-home role conflict;

Secondly, they will give low work satisfaction importance to aspects of work associated with long-term career goals.

2. Research design

Kahn has identified four levels of research design: they are, in order of their sophistication, random observation; exploratory-formulative studies; diagnostic-descriptive studies; and experimental studies.[4] However, Kahn goes on to comment that in the world of the researcher, most studies are at points on a continuum somewhere between these "pure" forms that have been given names.[5]

The present research study is no exception to Kahn's rule: its design lies midway between the diagnostic-descriptive and exploratory-formulative models, and contains elements of both.

The design resembles the diagnostic-descriptive model, as two of the study's three major aims are to establish and accurately convey the characteristics of certain phenomena, namely the work patterns and satisfactions of social workers. This information is required as an end in itself, as knowledge of social workers' work movements and gratifications is needed for a better understanding of social welfare manpower.

At the same time, the research design of this study has aspects of the exploratory-formulative model. This comes about as a result of the study's third major aim, which is to use the data obtained from the diagnostic-descriptive survey to test two tentative hypotheses. The object is to establish whether or not the hypotheses receive support from the limited empirical data of this study, as if they do, they could then form a basis for more sophisticated hypotheses which could be rigourously tested in subsequent research projects.

3. Research methodology

(i) Location of the universe for study

The universe chosen for study is the white female social work graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand, 1955 to 1965. In choosing this particular universe, the investigator was influenced by a number of factors. Firstly, combining the white female graduates of the two universities provided for a larger universe. Secondly, both universities use English as the medium of instruction, and thus unilingual research tools could be utilised. Thirdly, as the investigator was attached to the University of the Witwatersrand in a work capacity, yet registered as a student at the University of Natal, he was present at both places from time to time. Finally, the choice of graduates over the 11-year period 1955 to 1965 was influenced by the availability of addresses for these relatively recent graduates, and also by the fact that the most recent graduates in the group (i.e. 1965 graduates) would have had a potential working life in social work of at least 5 years.

Despite the fact that availability of addresses influenced the selection of 1955-1965 white female graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand as the universe for study, later investigation revealed that many of the addresses were incorrect, mainly as a result of marriage, consequent change of name, and movement away from the childhood home. The search for current addresses of graduates involved the use of both universities' administrative records, the records of both universities' convocations, and finally letters to parents of graduates, or to university classmates with whom graduates might have kept up a correspondence. This process lasted from late

1968 until May 1970, by which time the confirmed addresses of 111 of the 117 graduates had been obtained. Of the remainder, the addresses of 5 were unknown, and one graduate was deceased.

(ii) Questionnaire construction

In a study of the work patterns and work satisfactions of social workers, a preferred research tool would be the administered questionnaire or schedule. Such an instrument permits the investigation of personal data, and also allows the investigator to follow up or clarify comments which, when written in reply to a mailed questionnaire, can be incomplete or inexplicit.

However, the wide geographical distribution of the graduates' places of residence precluded the administration of individual schedules by the investigator, and resulted in the choice of the mailed questionnaire as the main research tool. Although not ideal, the questionnaire has advantages, principally in economy of time and money, and in the evidence which exists to indicate that professional groups respond particularly well to questionnaire surveys. In regard to this latter point, Goode and Hatt state that the questionnaire is fairly effective if a select group is the object of study[6], and Maas and Polansky point out that the questionnaire is best used when those asked to complete it are motivated to help to get answers to the questions raised ... "Professional groups, therefore, constitute ideal groups for questionnaire administration".[7] Further, in a 1966 questionnaire study of Durban social workers, an 89% response to the questionnaire was reported.[8] On the other hand, the use of the questionnaire in this study produced disadvantages. Firstly, it was necessary to restrict the amount of data requested, as voluminous questionnaires could reduce response rates. Secondly, it

was necessary to limit the amount of personal data requested from the respondents, as it was considered that a large amount of personal information, requested by a researcher who might be unknown to most respondents, might similarly inhibit response. Thus, the questionnaire did not include requests for respondents' present age (as this could be computed from the respondents' age at graduation, which was requested), nor did it include direct requests for information about marriage, divorce, widowhood or maternity (as it was anticipated that respondents would indicate the influence of these factors when they gave reasons for occupational wastage and mobility).

After a number of drafts, a questionnaire was evolved (see Appendix 1, infra) that consisted of four sections:-

The first section briefly enquired after the professional qualifications of the respondent, in social work and in allied disciplines;

The second section requested explicit information about the respondent's work history and occupational wastage. The respondent was asked to identify reasons which influenced her in choosing and terminating social work jobs. She was also requested to account for periods of time spent outside the field;

The third section requested the respondent to assess the work satisfaction importance to herself of ten selected work considerations, by the two methods of assessing them individually, and ranking them comparatively. In addition, she was asked to assess the adequacy with which the same ten considerations were fulfilled in her present social work position (or, if not currently employed in social work, in her most recent social work job).

The fourth and final section of the questionnaire comprised of an invitation to the respondent to comment on additional factors which, in her opinion, might influence the occupational wastage, occupational mobility and work satisfactions of social workers.

Where possible, questions with a structured choice of answer were used in the questionnaire. Where this was not possible, the exact nature of information required was specified. In addition, answering two questions involved respondents in assessing ten considerations on a simple three-point scale (questions 5 and 6); and in answering a further question (question 7), they were required to rank ten considerations in the order of their work satisfaction importance.

One aspect of the questionnaire's construction requires clarification: the investigator's choice of ten work considerations as criteria against which to assess "work satisfaction". In an earlier section of this dissertation (pp. 64-67 , supra) the difficulty involved in identifying social workers' work satisfactions has been discussed, and in the present study, the investigator found himself confronted by two methodological choices in measuring respondents' work satisfaction. On the one hand, he could leave it up to respondents to identify the gratifications which they seek from work, by using either the critical incident technique or a series of open-ended questions. On the other hand, he could establish a pre-determined set of work considerations, which all respondents could be asked to assess in work satisfaction importance. Although the first alternative is the most complete, past studies have shown extreme difficulty in classifying comments culled from "spontaneously"

disclosed data[9;10], and as a result, the investigator chose the second approach.

Ten work considerations were chosen on the basis of a literature survey. The objective in selection was to include aspects of work associated with ethical values; with reward to the worker for her services; with long-term career goals; and with the effective delivery of a social work service. The method used in categorising each of the ten considerations is outlined on pp.342-345, infra.

One consequence of using only ten aspects of work as a basis for assessing work satisfaction, is that findings will necessarily be limited. No set of ten work considerations can include all the work satisfaction priorities of all social workers.

Finally, the order of listing work considerations in the questionnaire was randomly determined. No attempt was made to group like considerations together, or to list one particular consideration before another.

The questionnaire was pre-tested during March 1970, on a group of 27 social workers employed by a large Johannesburg social welfare agency. The social workers involved in the pre-test of the questionnaire were not eligible to be included in the final research sample. After completing the pre-test questionnaire form, subjects were asked to comment on the clarity of the questionnaire, and any difficulties encountered in its completion. No problems of this kind were reported, but the suggestion was made that one item presented for consideration in questions 5,6 and 7, be amended. On the pre-test

questionnaire, this item read, "Easy communication and co-operation between staff and volunteers", but as a result of suggestions made by pre-test subjects, the wording for the final questionnaire form was changed to, "Easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers".

The completed pre-test questionnaires were analysed by the investigator, to ensure that the questionnaire form yielded the type of information desired in the study proper.

(iii) Questionnaire administration

Questionnaires were posted to potential respondents in July, 1970. Included in the envelope with each questionnaire was a stamped, addressed envelope for questionnaire return, and a letter from the Head of the Department of Social Work at the University of Natal. The letter explained the purpose of the research study, and requested the co-operation of potential respondents. In addition, the letter included a reassurance that information provided would be treated confidentially, and used only in the compilation of group data.

Questionnaire forms were numbered, to facilitate follow-up in the case of non-return. The list linking respondents' names to questionnaire numbers was kept by the investigator, and was not disclosed to other persons.

By mid-September, 57% of the questionnaire forms had been returned, and at this juncture, a letter of reminder was sent to those persons who had not returned their forms. This letter resulted in

a number of completed questionnaires being sent to the investigator, and by early October, 69% of all questionnaires had been returned. Final letters of reminder were dispatched on 4th October, 1970, and by the end of that month, just under 75% of questionnaires had been returned. Note was taken of the dates on which completed questionnaires were received by the investigator, but subsequent analysis of questionnaire data revealed no marked difference between questionnaires returned in response to the first approach, and those returned in response to the two later follow-up requests.

(iv) Analysis of the data

Data from the completed questionnaires was analysed and cross-related. Tabulated material from this analysis forms the basis for later chapters of this dissertation. The main sub-groupings of data are in terms of experience, age, employment quotients and fields of social work employment. Data is not sub-grouped in terms of the universities at which respondents obtained their basic social work qualifications, as the small number of respondents in some of the university graduation groups would permit the identification of individual persons.

The principal measurements used in analysis are measures of central tendency (means, medians and modes), ratios, percentages, rank orderings and rank order comparisons. No statistical tests of significance have been used in this study. As Pins has pointed out, statistical tests of significance were developed for use with random samples, and they are not used when the sample studied is the "universe".[11]

Three special measurements are used in this study. They are the Employment Quotient (or EQ), the Work Consideration Assessment Score (or WCAS), and the Work Satisfaction Importance Score (or WSIS). Each of these measurements is briefly described below:-

An individual's employment quotient can be defined as the person's percentage employment, arrived at by computing his maximum potential employment and his actual employment between two specified dates, and representing actual employment as a percentage of 100, the maximum potential employment figure. The employment quotient (or EQ) can therefore range from 0 (no employment at all), to 100 (where actual employment equals maximum potential employment). In this research study, the investigator has adopted a simplified variation of Lewin's[12] technique to compute the EQ's of respondents. The maximum potential employment period of respondents is taken as the period between the 1st January immediately following the completion of their basic social work education, to the 30th June, 1970, both dates inclusive. Part-time employment in social work is computed as 0.5 of a full-time unit of service.

For the purpose of this study, a work satisfaction importance score (or WSIS) can be defined as a mean measure of the work satisfaction importance that respondents attach to a particular work consideration. As such, the WSIS enables a comparison to be made between the work satisfaction importance of one work consideration, and that of others. The WSIS is calculated by allocating points to respondents' assessments of the work satisfaction importance of each work consideration: 3 points for "essential"; 2 points for "desirable", and one point for "not necessary". Points so allocated are totalled (T^1), as are the maximum points that could be allocated if every

respondent assessed the consideration to be "essential" (T^2). These two totals are then used to express the degree of work satisfaction importance as a proportion of 100, viz:-

$$WSIS = \frac{T^1}{T^2} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

Thus, if of 86 respondents who assess the work satisfaction importance of a work consideration, 32 consider it "essential", 50 consider it "desirable", and 4 consider it "not necessary", the following computation would be used to arrive at a work satisfaction importance score for that consideration:-

$$WSIS = \frac{(32 \times 3) + (50 \times 2) + (4 \times 1)}{(86 \times 3)} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

$$WSIS = \frac{(96 + 100 + 4)}{258} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

$$WSIS = \frac{20,000}{258}$$

$$WSIS = 77.52$$

The <u>work consideration assessment score</u> (or WCAS) is a mean measurement that can be used to compare respondents' assessment of how adequately one work consideration is met in their jobs, with that of others. The WCAS is calculated by allocating points to each respondents' assessment of how her most recent social work post meets a particular work consideration: 3 points are allocated to "good"; 2 points to "fair"; and 1 point to "poor". Points so allocated in respect of a particular work consideration are totalled (T^1), as are the maximum points that could be allocated to the consideration if all respondents assessed it as "good" (T^2). These two totals are then used to express the extent to which jobs meet the work consideration adequately, as a proportion of 100, viz:-

$$WCAS = \frac{T^1}{T^2} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

Thus, if of 79 respondents who assess the adequacy with which a work consideration is met in their most recent posts, 20 consider it "good", 35 consider it "fair", and 24 consider it "poor", the following computation would be used to arrive at a work consideration assessment score:-

$$WCAS = \frac{(20 \times 3) + (35 \times 2) + (24 \times 1)}{(79 \times 3)} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

$$WCAS = \frac{154}{237} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

$$WCAS = \frac{15400}{237}$$

$$WCAS = 64.98$$

(v) <u>The supplementary questionnaire</u>

During the final stages of data analysis, it became apparent that crucial to the interpretation of data was an understanding of what respondents meant by the term, "interesting work". On 26th June, 1971, a supplementary questionnaire was posted to all 86 social workers who responded to the original questionnaire, canvassing their opinion on this question. As with the first questionnaire, each supplementary questionnaire was accompanied by a stamped, addressed envelope for questionnaire return, and in the case of respondents living outside South Africa, appropriate money orders were enclosed to cover the cost of airmail return postage. The supplementary questionnaire is included in this dissertation as Appendix II.

Of the original 86 respondents, 77 returned their supplementary questionnaires by 13th August, 1971, constituting a return rate of 89.5%. Of the 77 respondents, 74(or 96.1%) interpreted interesting work to mean, "Work which gives me personal satisfaction", while 3(or 3.9%) of respondents interpreted it to mean, "Work which will lead to my improved development as a professional person". In this study, therefore, "interesting work" is interpreted to primarily mean work that provides the social worker with personal satisfaction.

4. Limitations of the research study

A number of limitations can be noted in this research study.

Firstly, the accuracy and completeness of data presented is subject to three limitations. Of the 117 European female social work graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand in the 11-year period 1955 to 1965, only 86 (or 73.50%) responded to the research questionnaire. Thus, data presented in this study is not representative of all graduates. Indeed, if all graduates had replied to the questionnaire, it is possible that findings could be substantially different.

The accuracy and completeness of data is also limited by the use of a postal questionnaire. A questionnaire does not elicit the same detailed, precise information as the administered schedule, and respondents to the questionnaire sometimes provided written replies that were incomplete or inexplicit. In addition, the postal questionnaire imposes restrictions on the amount of data that can be requested from respondents.

The use of respondents as the sole source of information about their own work histories constitutes a further limitation on accuracy and completeness. The information that they have provided may be distorted by poor or selective memory, or by the rationalisation of unconscious motivations.

Secondly, there are limitations imposed on the interpretation of study findings. All variables are not controlled in this study, and in consequence, study findings must be viewed as trends or tendencies, rather than as firm conclusions. In addition, interpretation of findings is limited by difficulties that are inherent in the classification of data. For example, one social worker might regard "good salary" as a short-term reward for her work, while another might consider "good salary" to be associated with long-term career goals. Difficulties in classification are particularly prominent in the categorisation of "work satisfactions" (Chapter 10), and the ambiguous nature of data sometimes necessitates relatively arbitrary classification. For these reasons, Chapter 10 includes a detailed frame of reference, outlining the investigator's method of categorising work satisfactions.

Finally, the findings of this study are of limited applicability. Findings cannot be generalised to all social workers, and must be restricted to the 86 respondents studied.

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Chapter 6

DESCRIPTION OF RESPONDENTS

Chapter 6

DESCRIPTION OF RESPONDENTS

1. Selection of the Sample for study

The sample for this research study consisted of the European female social work graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand, for the 11 year period 1955 to 1965. Table I, overleaf, shows that during this period, 117 (or 78.00%) of the 150 social work graduates from the two Universities were European females, the remainder being European males and male or female members of the African, Coloured and Indian groups.

The University of Natal had fewer social work graduates, overall, than the University of the Witwatersrand, with 60 graduates, as compared to 90. The proportion of European females amongst Natal graduates (41 out of 60, or 68.33%), was smaller than that of the University of the Witwatersrand (76 out of 90, or 84.44%), indicating that the University of Natal produced proportionally more graduates who were European males, or who were Africans, Coloureds or Indians.

With the exception of one year (The University of Natal in 1961), European female graduates formed the majority of all social work graduates at both Universities in each year from 1955 to 1965.

Table I reflects an irregular growth in the proportion of European female graduates to all other graduates from the year 1958, to 1965. This enlarged proportion of European females may be a partial result of legislation which has limited the two Universities'

TABLE I

PROPORTION OF EUROPEAN FEMALE SOCIAL WORK GRADUATES TO OTHER SOCIAL WORK GRADUATES * AT THE UNIVERSITIES OF NATAL AND THE WITWATERSRAND, 1955 TO 1965

YEAR in which social work education was completed	UNIVERSITY OF NATAL **			UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND ***			TOTAL		
	ALL graduates in social work (No.)	EUROPEAN FEMALE graduates in social work		ALL Graduates in social work (No.)	EUROPEAN FEMALE graduates in social work		ALL graduates in social work (No.)	EUROPEAN FEMALE graduates in social work	
		No.	%		No.	%		No.	%
1955	1	1	100.00	8	7	87.50	9	8	88.88
1956	1	1	100.00	5	5	100.00	6	6	100.00
1957	2	2	100.00	5	5	100.00	7	7	100.00
1958	5	3	60.00	7	5	71.43	12	8	66.66
1959	12	7	58.33	4	4	100.00	16	11	68.75
1960	5	4	80.00	13	11	84.62	18	15	83.33
1961	5	2	40.00	4	4	100.00	9	6	66.67
1962	11	8	72.72	10	7	70.00	21	15	71.43
1963	3	2	66.67	11	8	72.72	14	10	71.43
1964	4	3	75.00	7	6	85.71	11	9	81.81
1965	11	8	72.72	16	14	87.50	27	22	81.48
TOTALS:	60	41	68.33%	90	76	84.44%	150	117	78.00%

* "Other social work graduates" includes European males, and male and female graduates of the Indian, Coloured and African groups.

** Source of Data: Calendars of the University of Natal, 1956 to 1966, inclusive

*** Source of Data: Graduation programmes of the University of the Witwatersrand, 1956 to 1966 inclusive

right to admit non-white students, and does not necessarily represent a trend of more European females than members of other race and sex groups undertaking a social work training. At the same time, Table I does reflect an irregular, but perceptible increase in the number of European females graduating as social workers at the two Universities from 1955 to 1965.

2. Geographical location of European female Social Work Graduates

Table II, overleaf, shows the geographical location of the 117 European female social work graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand, 1955 to 1965, as at 30th June 1970, the time of this study.

Of the University of Natal graduates, 23, or 56.09% were resident in the Republic, while 16, or 39.02% were resident in foreign countries, and 2, or 4.89% were either deceased, or their addresses unknown.

Of University of the Witwatersrand graduates, a larger proportion (50, or 65.79%) were resident in the Republic, and a smaller proportion (22, or 28.95%) resident abroad. The addresses of a further 4, or 5.26% of University of the Witwatersrand respondents were unknown.

For European female social work graduates of both Universities as a whole, 73, or 62.39% were resident in the Republic; 38, or 32.48% were resident in ten foreign countries, principally the United Kingdom

TABLE II

GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF EUROPEAN FEMALE SOCIAL WORK GRADUATES OF THE UNIVERSITIES OF NATAL AND THE WITWATERSRAND, 1955 TO 1965, AS AT 30TH JUNE 1970

GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF GRADUATES	UNIVERSITY OF NATAL		UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND		TOTAL	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Republic of South Africa	23	56.09	50	65.79	73	62.39
Other countries:-						
Australia	1		1		2	
Canada	0		1		1	
Israel	3		1		4	
Jordan	1	39.02	0	28.95	1	32.48
Lesotho	0		1		1	
Malaysia	1		0		1	
Rhodesia	1		1		2	
Swaziland	0		2		2	
United Kingdom	9		13		22	
United States of America	0		2		2	
Address not known	1	4.89	4	5.26	5	5.13
Deceased	1		0		1	
TOTALS:	41	100.00	76	100.00	117	100.00

and Israel; and 6, or 5.13% of respondents were either deceased or their addresses unknown.

3. Response to the research questionnaire

Research questionnaires were sent to 111 of the 117 European female social work graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand, 1955 to 1965. Of the six respondents to whom questionnaires were not sent, the addresses of 5 were not known, and one respondent was known to be deceased.

Table III, overleaf, reflects the response of graduates to the research questionnaire, by University and by year of graduation. The term, "year of graduation", refers to the year in which graduates completed their studies for their basic social work degree.

Table III shows that in the case of University of Natal graduates, response to the research questionnaire varied by year of graduation from 50.00% to 100.00%. Overall, 29 respondents, or 70.73% of all European female social work graduates in the 11-year period, responded to the questionnaire. In the case of the University of the Witwatersrand, a slightly higher response rate of 75.00% was achieved, as 57 of the 76 graduates returned their completed questionnaires. By years of graduation, the response rate of University of the Witwatersrand graduates ranged from 50.00% to 100.00%.

For graduates of both Universities, an overall response to the questionnaire of 73.50% was achieved, as 86 out of 117 graduates returned their completed questionnaire forms. By years of graduation,

TABLE III

EUROPEAN FEMALE SOCIAL WORK GRADUATES OF THE UNIVERSITIES OF NATAL AND THE WITWATERSRAND, 1955 TO 1965: RESPONSE TO THE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

YEAR OF GRADUATION *	UNIVERSITY OF NATAL			UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND			TOTAL		
	All European Female Graduates	No. of European Female Graduates responding to questionnaire	% of European Female Graduates responding to questionnaire	All European Female Graduates	No. of European Female Graduates responding to questionnaire	% of European Female Graduates responding to questionnaire	All European Female Graduates	No. of European Female Graduates responding to questionnaire	% of European Female Graduates responding to questionnaire
1955	1	1	100.00	7	5	71.43	8	6	75.00
1956	1	1	100.00	5	3	60.00	6	4	66.67
1957	2	1	50.00	5	3	60.00	7	4	57.14
1958	3	2	66.67	5	4	80.00	8	6	75.00
1959	7	5	71.43	4	3	75.00	11	8	72.72
1960	4	3	75.00	11	8	72.72	15	11	73.33
1961	2	2	100.00	4	2	50.00	6	4	66.67
1962	8	5	62.50	7	5	71.43	15	10	66.66
1963	2	2	100.00	8	6	75.00	10	8	80.00
1964	3	2	66.67	6	6	100.00	9	8	88.89
1965	8	5	62.50	14	12	85.71	22	17	77.28
TOTALS	41	29	70.73	76	57	75.00	117	86	73.50

* The term, "Year of Graduation" refers to the year in which basic social work education was completed.

the overall response rate varied from 57.14% to 88.89%.

Bearing in mind that questionnaires were not sent to 6 graduates, the actual return rate on questionnaires posted was 86 out of 111, or 77.47%.

4. Respondents' undergraduate education in social work

Table IV, overleaf, reflects the nature of the 86 respondents' undergraduate social work education.

Of all respondents, 60, or 69.77% possess a four-year degree in social work, while 26, or 30.23% possess a three-year degree.

All respondents who received their undergraduate social work education at the University of the Witwatersrand possess a four-year social work degree, and all but 3 of the respondents who received their undergraduate social work education at the University of Natal have a three-year social work degree.

The reason for the two types of qualification recorded by graduates of the University of Natal lies in the introduction, by this University in the mid nineteen-fifties, of a 3-year Bachelor of Social Science (Social Work) degree, to replace the former 4-year Bachelor of Social Science (Social Welfare) degree.

TABLE IV

RESPONDENTS' UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

YEAR OF GRADUATION *	NATURE OF SOCIAL WORK QUALIFICATION						
	UNIVERSITY OF NATAL		UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND		ALL RESPONDENTS		
	No. of respondents with 3-year degrees	No. of respondents with 4-year degrees	No. of respondents with 3-year degrees	No. of respondents with 4-year degrees	No. of respondents with 3-year degrees	No. of respondents with 4-year degrees	Total no. of respondents
1955	-	1	-	5	-	6	6
1956	-	1	-	3	-	4	4
1957	-	1	-	3	-	4	4
1958	2	-	-	4	2	4	6
1959	5	-	-	3	5	3	8
1960	3	-	-	8	3	8	11
1961	2	-	-	2	2	2	4
1962	5	-	-	5	5	5	10
1963	2	-	-	6	2	6	8
1964	2	-	-	6	2	6	8
1965	5	-	-	12	5	12	17
TOTAL:	26	3	-	57	26	60	86
% OF ALL RESPONDENTS	30.23	3.49	-	66.28	30.23	69.77	100.00

* The term, "Year of Graduation" refers to the year in which basic social work education was completed.

5. Age of respondents on qualification as social workers

Table V, overleaf, sets out the ages at which respondents qualified as social workers. Age at qualification ranged from 19 to 41 years, with the great majority of respondents (71, or 82.56%) qualifying in their 20th, 21st and 22nd years of age (19.77%, 44.19% and 18.60% of all respondents in each year respectively). The mean age of respondents at qualification was 21.59 years, and their modal age 21 years.

With only 3 exceptions, all respondents had qualified by the age of 26 years.

Respondents who qualified at the University of the Witwatersrand were generally older than those who qualified at the University of Natal. The median and modal age for the former was 21 years, while for the latter, it was 20 years. The mean age of respondents who qualified at the University of Natal (21.72 years) is misleading, as the average is heavily influenced by two respondents who qualified in their 31st and 41st years of age.

An explanation exists for Natal graduates' younger age at qualification: the majority (26 out of 29) have three-year undergraduate degrees, whereas all respondents who qualified at the University of the Witwatersrand have four-year undergraduate degrees.

TABLE V

AGE OF RESPONDENTS ON QUALIFICATION AS SOCIAL WORKERS

AGE AT QUALIFICATION * (years)	UNIVERSITY OF NATAL		UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND		ALL RESPONDENTS	
	No. and % of respondents qualifying at this age		No. and % of respondents qualifying at this age		No. and % of respondents qualifying at this age	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
19	4	13.79	1	1.75	5	5.82
20	11	37.93	6	10.54	17	19.77
21	6	20.69	32	56.14	38	44.19
22	5	17.24	11	19.30	16	18.60
23	-	-	5	8.77	5	5.82
24	-	-	1	1.75	1	1.16
25	-	-	-	-	-	-
26	1	3.45	-	-	1	1.16
27	-	-	-	-	-	-
28	-	-	-	-	-	-
29	-	-	-	-	-	-
30	-	-	-	-	-	-
31	1	3.45	-	-	1	1.16
32	-	-	-	-	-	-
33	-	-	-	-	-	-
34	-	-	-	-	-	-
35	-	-	1	1.75	1	1.16
36	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	-	-	-	-	-	-
38	-	-	-	-	-	-
39	-	-	-	-	-	-
40	-	-	-	-	-	-
41	1	3.45	-	-	1	1.16
TOTALS	29	100.00	57	100.00	86	100.00

RANGE (years)	19 to 41	19 to 35	19 to 41
Median AGE	20 years	21 years	21 years
Modal AGE	20 years	21 years	21 years
Mean AGE	21.72 years	21.53 years	21.59 years

* "Age at qualification" refers to age at which basic social work education was completed.

6. Respondents' additional academic and professional qualifications in social work, and in allied disciplines.

Table VI, overleaf, reflects the additional academic and professional qualifications of respondents, both in social work and in allied disciplines.

Eleven social work qualifications are reported by respondents in addition to their Bachelor's degrees in Social Work. Two respondents possess honours Bachelor's degrees, another two possess Master's degrees, and five have diplomas in specialist fields (two in marriage guidance, and three in mental health). Two respondents record their associate-ship of the Institute of Medical Social Workers (England) as an additional Social work qualification.

Seven additional non-social work qualifications are reported: two Bachelor's degrees (both in the social sciences); two Honours Bachelor's degrees in psychology; a Master's degree in psychology; and two Master's degrees in Sociology.

TABLE VI

RESPONDENTS' ADDITIONAL ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS, IN SOCIAL WORK AND IN ALLIED DISCIPLINES

Nature of Additional Qualification	No. of respondents who received their under-graduate education at the University of Natal, who possess this qualification	No. of respondents who received their under-graduate education at the University of the Witwatersrand, who possess this qualification	TOTALS
(a) Social Work Qualifications			
Hons. degree in Social Work	2	-	
Masters degree in Social Work	-	2	
Diploma in Mental Health	-	3	11
Diploma in Marriage Guidance	2	-	
Associate of the Institute of Medical Social Workers (England)	-	2	
(b) Qualifications in Allied Disciplines			
Bachelors degree (Social Sciences)	-	2	
Hons. degree (Psychology)	2	-	7
Masters degree (Psychology)	1	-	
Masters degree (Sociology)	2	-	
TOTALS	9	9	18

7. Age of respondents at the time of this study

Table VII, overleaf , reflects the ages of respondents at the time of this study (30th June 1970). Individual ages range from 24 years to 48 years, with all but 6 respondents concentrated in the 26 to 36 year age group. As might be expected, present ages of respondents cover a wider age range than do the ages of respondents at graduation (Table V, supra). This comes about as a result of the majority of respondents completing their undergraduate social work education when aged 20, 21 or 22 years, and the sample for this study incorporating 11 consecutive years of graduates. The median age of respondents as a whole is 30 years, while their modal age is 31 years, and their mean age is 30.57 years.

Although the median and modal ages of both the Natal and the Witwatersrand groups correspond at 30 and 31 years, respectively, there is a very slight difference in the mean ages of the two groups: the mean age for the Natal group is 30.69 years, while that of the Witwatersrand group is 30.50 years.

8. Employment status of respondents at the time of this study

Table VIII, page 189., reflects the employment status of respondents as at 30th June, 1970, the time of this study, and shows that more than three out of four respondents (65, or 75.60%) are not employed in social work.

TABLE VII

AGE OF RESPONDENTS, AS AT 30 JUNE, 1970

YEAR OF AGE	UNIVERSITY OF NATAL GRADUATES		UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND GRADUATES		ALL RESPONDENTS	
	No. and % of respondents in this year of age		No. and % of respondents in this year of age		No. and % of respondents in this year of age	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
24	1	3.45	-	-	1	1.16
25	1	3.45	-	-	1	1.16
26	2	6.90	7	12.28	9	10.46
27	4	13.79	7	12.28	11	12.78
28	3	10.34	7	12.28	10	11.62
29	-	-	7	12.28	7	8.16
30	4	13.79	3	5.27	7	8.16
31	5	17.24	8	14.03	13	15.12
32	3	10.34	2	3.50	5	5.82
33	1	3.45	4	7.02	5	5.82
34	-	-	3	5.27	3	3.48
35	1	3.45	3	5.27	4	4.65
36	1	3.45	5	8.77	6	6.97
37	1	3.45	-	-	1	1.16
38	-	-	-	-	-	-
39	1	3.45	-	-	1	1.16
40	-	-	-	-	-	-
41	-	-	-	-	-	-
42	-	-	-	-	-	-
43	-	-	-	-	-	-
44	-	-	-	-	-	-
45	-	-	-	-	-	-
46	1	3.45	-	-	1	1.16
47	-	-	-	-	-	-
48	-	-	1	1.75	1	1.16
TOTAL:	29	100.00	57	100.00	86	100.00

RANGE (Years)	24 to 46	26 to 48	24 to 48
MEDIAN AGE	30 years	30 years	30 years
MODAL AGE	31 years	31 years	31 years
MEAN AGE	30.69 years	30.50 years	30.57 years

TABLE VIII

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF RESPONDENTS, AS AT 30TH JUNE, 1970

Description of respondents' FIELDS OF EMPLOYMENT IN SOCIAL WORK, or of REASONS FOR ABSENCE FROM SOCIAL WORK EMPLOYMENT	RESPONDENTS WHO ARE UNIVERSITY OF NATAL GRADUATES			RESPONDENTS WHO ARE UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND GRADUATES			ALL RESPONDENTS		
	No. and % engaged in this area		No. and % Employed and not Employed	No. and % engaged in this area		No. and % Employed and not Employed	No. and % engaged in this area		No. and % Employed and not Employed
	No.	%		No.	%		No.	%	
(a) EMPLOYED IN SOCIAL WORK: (FIELDS)									
Aged	1	3.45					1	1.16	
Alcoholism	1	3.45		1	1.76		2	2.32	
Child and Family	3	10.34		5	8.78		8	9.30	
Community Work			9, or	2	3.50	12, or	2	2.32	21, or
Psychiatric			31.03%	2	3.50	21.04%	2	2.32	24.40%
Physical Handicap	1	3.45					1	1.16	
Social Work Education	3	10.34		2	3.50		5	5.82	
(b) NOT EMPLOYED IN SOCIAL WORK: (REASONS)									
Pregancy & Childrearing	11	37.93		32	56.14		43	50.00	
Marriage	2	6.90		1	1.76		3	3.48	
Further Study	2	6.90	20, or	1	1.76	45, or	3	3.48	65, or
Full-time employment	4	13.79	68.97%	8	14.04	78.96%	12	14.00	75.60%
Part-time employment				2	3.50		2	2.32	
Holiday and Travel	1	3.45		1	1.76		2	2.32	
TOTALS:	29	100.00	29, or 100.00%	57	100.00	57, or 100.00%	86	100.00	86, or 100.00%

Of the 21, or 24.40% of respondents employed in social work, the majority are in the two fields of child and family welfare (8, or 9.30% of all respondents), and social work education (5, or 5.82% of all respondents). Two, or 2.32% of all respondents are employed in each of the fields of alcoholism, psychiatric social work, and community work; and one respondent, or 1.16% of all respondents, is employed in each of the fields of the aged, and the physically handicapped.

Of the 65 respondents not employed in social work, the great majority (43 respondents, or 50% of all respondents) report their reason for non-employment to be "pregnancy and child-rearing", while a further 3 respondents (or 3.48% of all respondents) give "marriage" as their explanation. In addition, a total of 14 respondents report being in employment outside social work: 12, or 14% of all respondents are in full-time employment; and 2, or 2.32% are in part-time positions. Of the remaining 5 respondents not engaged in social work, 3, or 3.48% of all respondents are engaged in "further studies", and 2, or 2.32% of all respondents are occupied with extended holidays and travel.

A larger proportion of respondents from the Natal group are engaged in social work than respondents from the Witwatersrand group (9, or 31.03%, as against 12, or 21.04%). Conversely, a greater proportion of the Witwatersrand group than the Natal group are outside the field of social work (45, or 78.96%, as against 20, or 68.97%). This latter finding is primarily due to a greater proportion of Witwatersrand group than Natal group respondents being occupied with pregnancy and child-rearing (32, or 56.14%, as compared

to 11, or 37.93%, respectively). Both groups include a number of respondents engaged in employment outside social work: in the Witwatersrand group, 8 respondents are in full-time employment, and 2 in part-time employment (14.04% and 3.50% of all respondents in the Witwatersrand group, respectively); and in the Natal group, 4 respondents (13.79% of all Natal group respondents) are engaged in full-time employment outside the profession. In addition, the Natal group records 2 respondents engaged in further study, and 1 respondent on an extended holiday (6.90%, and 3.45% of all Natal group respondents, respectively); while the Witwatersrand group records 1 respondent engaged in further study, and another respondent on an extended holiday (each accounting for 1.76% of all respondents in the Witwatersrand group).

9. Summary

During the 11-year period 1955 to 1965, 150 social workers graduated from the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand, and of these, 117 (or 78.00%) were European females. The majority (73, or 62.39%) of the European female social work graduates were resident in the Republic of South Africa at the time of this study (30th June, 1970).

A response rate of 73.50% (or 86 out of 117) was recorded for postal questionnaires sent to the European female graduates.

The 86 respondents were made up of 29 graduates from the University of Natal, and 57 graduates from the University of the Witwatersrand. Most respondents (69.77%) possessed 4-year undergraduate degrees in social work, and most (82.56%) had graduated in their 20th, 21st or 22nd years of age. Respondents reported 18 additional qualifications in social work or in allied disciplines.

At the time of this research study, the median age of respondents was 30 years, and their mean age was 30.57 years. Less than a quarter of respondents were employed in social work, and of the 65 or 75.60% of respondents not actively engaged in the profession, the major reasons recorded were pregnancy and child-rearing, and employment (full- and part-time) outside social work.

Chapter 7

EMPLOYMENT AND OCCUPATIONAL WASTAGE

Chapter 7

EMPLOYMENT AND OCCUPATIONAL WASTAGE

1. Gross employment and occupational wastage of respondents

Table IX, overleaf, reflects gross employment and occupational wastage for respondents as a whole, by years of graduation. The table shows that the 86 respondents have a total potential working life in social work of 8760 months. Of this potential contribution to the profession, 2890.5 months (or 32.99%) of service is actually realised, while just under two-thirds of respondents' potential working lives (5869.5 months, or 67.00%) is lost to social work.

There is a propensity, among respondents as a whole, for the proportion of occupational wastage over service in social work to increase with years of experience since graduation. The column in Table IX headed, "% Wastage", reflects a much higher percentage wastage for 1955 and 1956 graduates (85.25%, and 87.50%, respectively) than for the more recent 1964 and 1965 graduates (57.86%, and 53.26%, respectively). However, no regular increase in wastage is apparent in each successive year from 1955 to 1965. In the respondent group who graduated in 1958, for example, an extremely high wastage rate of 90.34% is recorded.

Irregular fluctuations in the amount of wastage may be a consequence of individual respondents within a particular graduation year group having an unusually high or low occupational wastage rate. As a result of the small numbers of respondents in some of the

TABLE IX

GROSS EMPLOYMENT AND OCCUPATIONAL WASTAGE OF RESPONDENTS

YEAR OF GRADUATION *	No of Respondents	Potential Employment in Social Work of all respondents in this graduation group (months)	Actual Social Work Employment of all respondents in this graduation group (months)	Percentage Employment	Occupational Wastage of Respondents in this graduation group (months)	Percentage Wastage	Percentage Wastage by two-year graduation groups
1955	6	1044	154	14.75	890	85.25	86.05
1956	4	648	81	12.50	567	87.50	
1957	4	600	253.5	42.25	346.5	57.75	76.64
1958	6	828	80	9.66	748	90.34	
1959	8	1008	276	27.38	732	72.62	62.30
1960	11	1254	573	45.69	681	54.31	
1961	4	408	190	46.57	218	53.43	58.14
1962	10	900	357.5	39.72	542.5	60.28	
1963	8	624	274	43.91	350	56.07	56.90
1964	8	528	222.5	42.14	305.5	57.86	
1965	17	918	429	46.93	489	53.26	
TOTAL:	86	8760	2890.5	32.99	5869.5	67.00	-

* "Year of Graduation" refers to the year in which basic social work education was completed.

graduation year groups (the largest such group has 17 respondents, and five groups have six or fewer respondents), the average wastage for a graduation group may be distorted by the idiosyncratic wastage pattern of a single respondent. There is some suggestion that this phenomenon may have occurred, as when respondents are divided into two-year graduation groups (and the number of respondents in each enlarged group is 10 or more), a definite increase in the proportion of occupational wastage over professional service is perceived with the passing of time after graduation.

The far right-hand column of Table IX reflects percentage occupational wastage by two-year graduation groups. It can be noted that percentage occupational wastage is greatest for the 1955 - 1956 group (86.05%), decreasing to 76.64%, 62.30%, 58.14% and 56.90% in successive two-year groups up to 1963 - 1964. The last group (1965, a one-year group, but with 17 respondents) has a percentage occupational wastage of 53.26%, and indicates a continuation of the trend observed in earlier two-year groups.

2. The nature of respondents' occupational wastage.

The nature of the 5869.5 months of occupational wastage reported by respondents is analysed in Table X, overleaf. Overall, respondents report 256 periods of wastage from the profession. The average duration of each wastage period is 22.49 months, and the mean occupational wastage of individual respondents is 68.24 months.

TABLE X

ANALYSIS OF OCCUPATIONAL WASTAGE

Reason for occupational wastage	Total Wastage for this reason		No. of individual periods of wastage for this reason	Average length of individual periods of wastage for this reason
	Total (Months)	% of all wastage		
Pregnancy and child-rearing	3296.0	56.15	86	38.32
Marriage	204.0	3.47	20	10.20
Full-time employment outside social work	1410.0	24.03	51	27.64
Part-time employment outside social work	278.0	4.74	11	25.27
Further study	213.0	3.64	13	16.30
Ill-health	37.0	.63	4	9.25
Awaiting a social work vacancy	103.0	1.76	10	10.30
Extended holidays and travel	116.0	1.97	19	6.10
Did not wish to work	12.0	.20	1	12.00
No reason given	1.0	.02	1	1.00
(WASTAGE DUE TO PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN SOCIAL WORK) *	199.5	3.39	40	* 4.99
TOTALS:	5869.5	100.00	256	22.49

* Sec. p. 199 for an explanation of this category

MEAN WASTAGE OF RESPONDENTS	68.24 months.

As may perhaps be expected with a group of female respondents presently aged between 24 and 48 years, the major reason reported for occupational wastage is that of pregnancy and child-rearing. This category accounts for 56.15% of all wastage, or 3296 months. The mean length of each individual wastage period for this reason is 38.32 months, the longest mean wastage period for all occupational wastage categories. An associated category, occupational wastage due to marriage , accounts for only 204 months, or 3.47% of all wastage; the mean length of individual wastage periods in this category being 10.2 months. Respondents report 86 absences from the field of social work on account of pregnancy and child-rearing, but only 20 occasions on which they are out of the field as a result of marriage per se.

Falling after the marriage-linked category of pregnancy and child-rearing in occupational wastage importance, is the category of full-time employment outside social work. Respondents report 51 instances during which they undertake full-time employment outside the profession, the mean duration of each being 27.64 months. This accounts for 1410 months of wastage, or 24.03% of all occupational wastage. Part-time employment outside social work plays a lesser part in wastage from the profession: respondents report only 278 months of wastage for this reason, or 4.74% of all occupational wastage. The eleven wastage periods attributed to part-time work have a mean duration of 25.27 months. Taken together, full and part-time employment outside social work accounts for 1688 months of wastage, or 28.77% of all occupational wastage.

Apart from marriage-linked reasons, and employment outside the profession, seven other categories are used in analysing the reasons reported by respondents for their occupational wastage. One category in particular merits explanation, and this is that of part-time employment within social work. As part-time social work employment is computed at the rate of 0.5 of a month's employment for each month of part-time work, a further 0.5 of a month has to be categorised as "wastage". The asterisked figure in the right hand column of Table X, 4.99 months, should therefore be doubled to give an exact reflection of the average length of part-time jobs. Part-time work within social work accounts for 199.5 months, or 3.39% of all wastage. Forty periods of part-time work in the profession are reported, the average length of each being 9.98 months.

Further study accounts for 213 months of wastage, or 3.64% of all wastage. Respondents record 13 periods of absence from the profession against this category, and the average length of such further study periods is 16.30 months. It is of note that not all further study is towards a higher degree or professional qualification in social work. Table VI, supra, shows that 7 of the 18 additional qualifications which respondents hold are in disciplines allied to social work, mainly psychology and sociology.

Respondents attribute 116 months of wastage (1.97% of all occupational wastage) to extended holidays and travel. The 19 trips recorded by respondents average 6.10 months each.

Table X shows that respondents report 10 instances of wastage from the profession due to their awaiting social work vacancies. Most

respondents report this cause of wastage when they are resident either in small rural communities, or in foreign countries. In the former situation, they attribute their lack of employment to a paucity of social work posts; in the latter to a non-recognition of South African qualifications, or an inability to speak the relevant foreign language. In one instance, however, a respondent reports that no suitable social work post was available. Wastage due to a lack of social work positions accounts for 103 months of wastage, or 1.75% of all wastage. The relatively small amount of wastage in this category would seem to indicate that special circumstances aside, respondents have little difficulty in securing a social work position when they wish to do so.

Remaining occupational wastage is due to ill-health (37 months, or 0.63% of all wastage), to "not wishing to work" (12 months, or 0.20% of all wastage), and to unspecified wastage (1 month, or 0.02% of all wastage).

Two main trends are revealed by the foregoing data:-

Firstly, pregnancy and child-rearing is the major cause of respondents' occupational wastage. Marriage *per se* plays only a minor part in absence from the profession.

Secondly, full-time employment outside social work is the second most important cause of occupational wastage, while part-time employment outside the profession is the third most important cause.

3. The nature of respondents' employment

Table XI, overleaf, reflects the fields of social work in which respondents report employment, together with the proportion of time that they spend in each field, and the number and average length of their jobs.

Respondents as a whole record 2890.5 months of full- and part-time employment in social work, comprising 198 different social work jobs with an average duration of 14.59 months. The mean total employment in social work of respondents is 33.61 months.

The most favoured field of employment is that of child and family welfare, where respondents report 68 jobs totalling 884.5 months, or 30.60% of all their employment. Second and third most favoured fields are those of medical social work and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. In the former, respondents report 28 jobs totalling 446.5 months, or 15.45% of all their employment; and in the latter, 16 jobs totalling 432 months, or 14.95% of all employment.

Respondents' fourth most favoured field is that of psychiatric social work, where they report 20 jobs, totalling 307 months, and accounting for 10.62% of all employment. Fifthly and sixthly, respondents choose employment in the fields of prisoners (6.28% of all employment, or 13 positions totalling 181.5 months) and social work education (4.24% of all employment, or 8 positions totalling 122.5 months). A close seventh in popularity of employment is the field of the physically disabled, where respondents record 11 positions totalling 122 months, or 4.22% of all their employment.

TABLE XI

ANALYSIS OF EMPLOYMENT, BY FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK AND NUMBER AND LENGTH OF JOBS.

Field of Social Work	Total Employment in this field, and % of all employment.		Total No of Jobs in this field	Mean length of jobs in this field (months)
	Total (Months)	%		
Aged	53.0	1.83	9	5.88
Alcoholism	91.5	3.17	7	13.07
Child and family	884.5	30.60	68	13.00
Community	42.0	1.45	5	8.40
Dept. of Social Welfare & Pensions	432.0	14.95	16	27.00
Housing	69.0	2.39	4	17.25
Industry	19.5	0.67	2	9.75
Legal Aid	18.0	0.62	1	18.00
Medical	446.5	15.45	28	15.94
Prisoners	181.5	6.28	13	13.96
Psychiatric	307.0	10.62	20	15.35
Physical disability	122.0	4.22	11	11.09
Recreation	85.5	2.96	5	17.10
School	16.0	0.55	1	16.00
Social work education	122.5	4.24	8	15.31
TOTALS	2890.5	100.00	198	14.59

MEAN EMPLOYMENT (ALL RESPONDENTS)	33.61 months

N of respondents = 86

In the remaining 8 fields in which respondents report employment (the aged, alcoholism, community, housing, industrial social work, legal aid, recreation and school social work), between 3.17% and 0.55% of all employment is reported in each field, with the number of jobs per field

ranging from 1 to 9, and the average duration of jobs ranging from 5.88 months to 17.1 months.

The extreme right-hand column of Table XI reflects mean lengths of job by fields of social work. These mean lengths of job are set out as a histogram in Figure I, overleaf.

The average length of job for all jobs in all fields is 14.59 months. Figure I shows that in 8 fields of social work, the average length of job exceeds the overall average length. These fields, with their average length of job, are the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions (27 months); legal aid (18 months); housing (17.25 months); recreation (17.1 months); school (16 months); medical (15.94 months); psychiatric (15.35 months); and social work education (15.31 months). Of particular note is the longer length of job in the field of the Department of Social Weflare and Pensions, which is 9 months longer than the next highest average length of job.

In seven fields of social work, the average length of job is below the average length of all jobs. These fields, with their average length of job, are: prisoners (13.96 months); alocholism (13.07 months); child and family (13.00 months); physical disability (11.09 months); industry (9.75 months); community (8.40 months); and the aged (5.88 months). In noting these fields with a relatively shorter average length of job, it should be borne in mind that average length of job in a field can be influenced by the degree to which respondents accept part-time posts in that field. This possibility is explored in the following sub-section of this chapter.

FIGURE I

AVERAGE LENGTH OF JOB, BY FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK

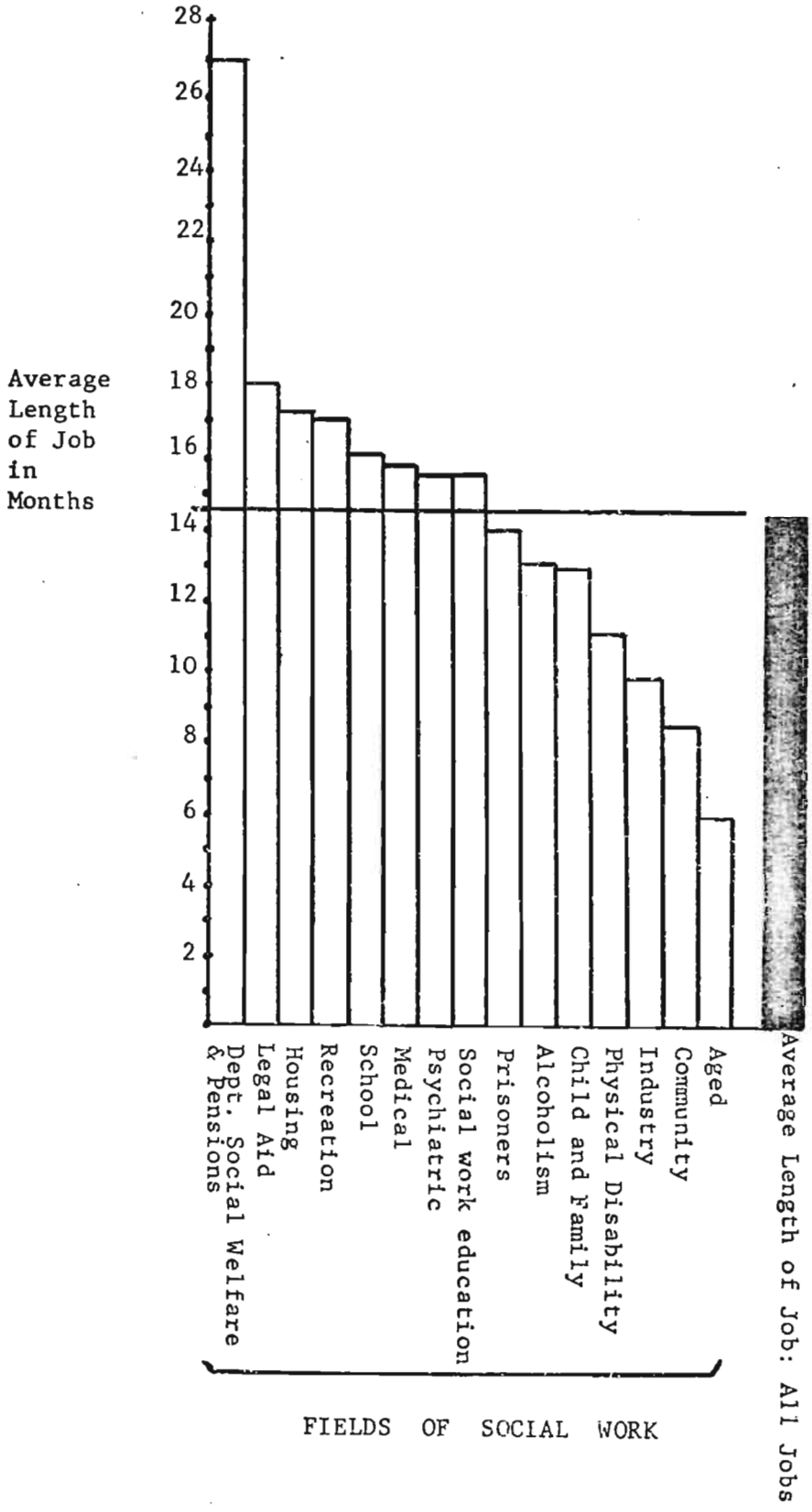


Table XI reveals three principal trends:-

Firstly, respondents spend an average of less than one and one-quarter years in each job.

Secondly, there is considerable difference in average length of job by fields of social work employment. Average length of job is longest in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions (27 months), and shortest in social work with the aged (5.88 months).

Thirdly, most employment (54.45%) is in specialised fields of social work. Only 30.60% of all employment is in the field of child and family welfare, and 14.95% in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions.

4. Part-time employment in social work

The method used to compute part-time employment in social work as units of service has been described in an earlier section of this chapter (page 199, supra). In an examination of respondents' employment, it is helpful not only to identify patterns of part-time employment, but also to provide an indication of the extent to which part-time employment may have reduced the "average length of job" in those social work fields where it is prevalent.

Table XII, overleaf, reflects the distribution of the 40 jobs and 199.5 months of part-time employment reported by respondents.

TABLE XII

PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN SOCIAL WORK, BY FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK

Fields of Social Work	No. of part-time jobs in this field	Total part-time employment in this field, and % of all part-time employment		Total full- and part-time employment in this field (months)	% part-time employment of all employment in this field
		Total part-time employment * (Months)	% of all all part-time employment		
Aged	3	12.0	6.02	53.0	22.6
Alcoholism	3	9.5	4.76	91.5	10.4
Child and family	12	33.5	16.79	884.5	3.8
Community	1	2.0	1.00	42.0	4.8
Dept. of Social Welfare & Pensions	-	-	-	432.0	-
Housing	-	-	-	69.0	-
Industry	1	14.5	7.27	19.5	74.5
Legal Aid	1	18.0	9.02	18.0	100.0
Medical	2	16.0	8.02	446.5	3.6
Prisoners	6	30.5	15.29	181.5	16.8
Psychiatric	5	28.5	14.29	307.0	9.3
Physical disability	2	16.0	8.02	122.0	13.1
Recreation	1	7.5	3.76	85.5	8.8
School	-	-	-	16.0	-
Social Work education	3	11.5	5.76	122.5	9.4
TOTALS:	40	199.5	100.00%	2890.5	6.9%

* "Total part-time employment" is used here to mean the amount of time, in full months of service, which respondents give in a part-time capacity. As part-time work is computed as half of the service that would be rendered on a full-time basis, a part-time job lasting 12 months in time, would for example, be recorded as a 6 month unit of service.

Of all part-time work, the greatest amounts are spent in the three fields of child and family welfare (33.5 months, or 16.79% of all part-time work); prisoners (30.5 months, or 15.29% of all part-time work); and psychiatric social work (28.5 months, or 14.29% of all part-time work). In the other 9 fields in which part-time work is reported (aged, alcoholism, community, industry, legal aid, medical, physical disability, recreation and social work education), respondents report from 2 to 18 months part-time work, or from 1% to 9.02% of all part-time work, in each field. Three fields in which respondents record full-time work, have no part-time work recorded. They are the fields of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, housing, and school social work.

Table XII shows that part-time employment accounts for 6.9% of all service, both full and part-time.

Of note are the fields of legal aid (where 100% of service is part-time), and social work in industry (where 74.5% of service is part-time). In a further 4 fields, part-time employment accounts for more than 10% of all service: the fields of the aged (22.6%); prisoners (16.8%); physical disability (13.1%); and alcoholism (10.4%). It is of interest that 5 of these 6 fields have average lengths of job below the average length for <u>all</u> jobs (Figure I, supra). It can be suggested that the larger proportion of part-time work in these fields may have reduced the average length of job reflected in Table XI, and in Figure I. The sixth field, legal aid, where the average length of job is higher than the average length of all jobs, consists of only one job, where a single respondent rendered part-time service over a long period.

In the remaining fields in which respondents record part-time work (child and family, community, medical, psychiatric, recreation, and social work education) such service constitutes from 9.4% to 3.6% of all service reported in each field. Of particular note is the field of child and family welfare, which has the greatest amount of part-time work (33.5 months, or 16.79% of all part-time work), the greatest number of part-time jobs (12), yet one of the lowest proportions of part-time service to all service: part-time service comprises only 3.8% of all service in the field.

Two major trends emerge from the foregoing discussion of part-time employment in social work:-

Firstly, part-time employment forms a minor part of all employment (6.9%).

Secondly, most part-time work (83.21% of all part-time work) is in specialised fields of social work. Only 16.79% of all part-time work is in the field of child and family welfare, and no part-time work is reported in the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions.

5. Age, employment and occupational wastage.

Is occupational wastage related to age? To explore this question, Table XIII, overleaf, contains an examination of respondents' employment status on the 30th June of each year of their lives since qualification as social workers. The date of 30th June has been

TABLE XIII

AGE, EMPLOYMENT, AND OCCUPATIONAL WASTAGE

Year of Age Respondents *	No. of respondents who had qualified as social workers at this year of age	No. of respondents employed (full or part time) in social work at this year of age	No. of respondents Not employed in social work at this year of age	% Employment	% Wastage	% Wastage by 4-year age groups
19	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	
20	5	3	2	60.00	40.00	
21	22	13	9	59.20	40.80	34.35
22	61	43	18	70.50	29.50	
23	75	48	27	64.00	36.00	
24	84	35	49	41.65	58.35	
25	84	32	52	38.15	61.85	65.30
26	78	25	53	32.05	67.95	
27	71	18	53	25.20	74.80	
28	61	13	48	21.20	78.80	
29	51	10	41	19.56	80.44	81.77
30	44	7	37	15.90	84.10	
31	36	5	31	13.90	86.10	
32	26	6	20	23.20	76.80	
33	20	2	18	10.00	90.00	84.50
34	14	1	13	7.15	92.85	
35	11	2	9	18.20	81.80	
36	8	3	5	37.50	62.50	
37	3	2	1	66.67	33.33	53.33
38	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	
39	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	
40	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	
41	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	33.33
42	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	
43	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	
44	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	
45	2	0	2	0.00	100.00	62.50
46	2	0	2	0.00	100.00	
47	2	2	0	100.00	0.00	
48	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	
TOTALS:	773	277	496	35.83	64.17	-

* This table was computed by analysing the employment status of respondents on the 30th June of each year of their professional lives, up to and including 30th June, 1970

specifically chosen, as this study examines respondents' careers up to and including 30th June, 1970.

Two preliminary observations should be made about Table XIII. Firstly, the proportions of gross occupational wastage and employment in Table XIII, and in the earlier Table IX do not show an exact correspondence. Table IX incorporates each month of wastage or employment of each respondent, from her qualification as a social worker, to the 30th June, 1970; while Table XIII only reflects the occupational status of respondents at one particular date in each year of their lives as social workers. As some respondents make up to 3 changes of occupational status in a single year of their lives, Table XIII is not an exact measure of the relationship between age, employment and wastage.

The reliability of figures in Table XIII can be partially verified by comparing the overall proportions of employment and occupational wastage to the more exact proportions reflected by Table IX. Table XIII shows a proportion of occupational wastage to employment of 64.17% to 35.83%; while Table IX reflects a proportion of 66.09% to 33.91%. Table XIII, therefore, shows 1.92% more employment than does Table IX, a relatively small degree of disparity. A further factor should be considered, which throws light on this disparity: Table IX is computed taking differential account of part-time employment (and the partial occupational wastage caused thereby), whereas in Table XIII, respondents in employment on the 30th June of each year, full- or part-time, are classified as "employed in social work". This will tend to raise the proportion of respondents "employed" in the tabulation contained in Table XIII, and will have

contributed to the small disparity in the proportions of respondents employed and non-employed, between figures in Tables IX and XIII.

A second preliminary note about Table XIII concerns the range of respondents' professional lives incorporated into the tabulation. A respondent who qualifies aged 21, whose first year as a social worker is 1955, will have 16 years of her professional life reflected in the tabulation; but a respondent who qualifies at the same year of age, whose first year as a social worker is 1965, will have only 6 years of her professional life included. As it is known that the majority of respondents qualify as social workers in their 20th, 21st and 22nd years of age (Table V, supra) a preponderance of respondents' years of life in the 20 to 30 year-old age groups can be expected in Table XIII, and this in fact does occur.

The implication of this latter phenomenon is that as fewer respondents have spent their thirties and fourties in social work, the reliability of employment and occupational wastage proportions may decrease with an increase in respondents' age. This would be a consequence of the smaller number of respondents in each older age group, and the increased possibility of findings being distorted by one or more respondents with idiosyncratic employment patterns.

Table XIII reflects a close relationship between respondents' ages, and their social work employment or non-employment. In their 22nd year, 70.50% of respondents are engaged in the field of social work in a full- or part-time capacity. From the age of 22, there is an overall decrease in the proportion of respondents in employment, until the age of 34 years, when only 7.15% of the 14 respondents in

this group are employed. After 34 years of age, the percentage employment of respondents follows no regular pattern, possibly because of the small number of respondents included in each yearly age group from 35 to 48 years. These figures indicate that respondents give their greatest amount of service to social work in their early and middle twenties, that is, when they are least experienced. As their age increases up to the age of 34 years, fewer and fewer give service to the profession, and a progressively greater proportion of respondents are wasted to social work.

A clearer picture of employment and wastage in social work emerges from the consolidation of individual year groups into four-year age groups. In each of the years between the ages of 20 to 23 years (inclusive), an average of 34.35% of respondents do not give full- or part-time service to social work. The proportion of respondents wasted to the profession increases to 65.30% in each year of the age period 24 to 27 years; 81.77% for each year in the age period 28 to 31 years; and 84.50% for each year in the age period 32 to 35 years. After this latter age period, the proportions of wastage to employment become irregular: 53.33% of respondents are wasted to the profession in the 36 to 39 year age period; 33.33% in the 40 to 43 year age period; and 62.50% in the 44 to 47 year age period.

Overall, the greatest occupational wastage occurs in the age range 24 years to 34 years, inclusive. During this period, the lowest yearly wastage rate is 58.35% (at 24 years), and the highest 92.85% (at 34 years).

These findings about the relationship between age, and employment and occupational wastage, pave the way to a number of questions. For example: If occupational wastage is greatest in the age period 24 to 34 years, is this a consequence of marriage and child-rearing? What are the reasons for wastage, and are there age periods in respondents' working lives at which they are particularly prone to occupational wastage for specific reasons? Does the nature of employment change, for respondents of different ages?

The following sections of this chapter explore these questions.

6. Age at which occupational wastage occurs and reasons for this wastage

Table XIV, overleaf, contains an analysis of reasons for occupational wastage, and the ages at which wastage takes place.

Wastage due to family-oriented reasons (that is, wastage attributed to "pregnancy and child-rearing", or to "marriage") takes place between the 20th and 36th years of age of respondents, although one respondent is absent from social work at the age of 46 years on account of marriage. As might be expected, wastage due specifically to pregnancy and child-rearing takes place mainly in the twenties and early thirties, with a peak between the ages of 27 years and 32 years. During this latter period, wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing accounts for from 65% to 70% of the total wastage of all respondents.

Overall, wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing shows a general increase from 23 years of age (where it accounts for 45% of

TABLE XIV

ANALYSIS OF OCCUPATIONAL WASTAGE, BY AGE OF RESPONDENTS *

Year of Age of respondents	No. and % of all respondents who were not employed in social work at 30th June of this year of their age		No. and % of Respondents not employed in social work at 30th June of this year of their age, who were absent from the profession for this reason:-																			
			Pregnancy and/or child-rearing		Marriage		Full-time Employment outside social work		Part-time Employment outside social work		Further Study		Ill Health		Awaiting a social work vacancy		Extended holidays and travel		Did not wish to work		Unspecified	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
20	2	40.00	1	50	-	-	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
21	9	40.80	5	56	-	-	2	22	-	-	2	22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
22	18	29.50	9	50	-	-	4	22	-	-	2	11	-	-	-	-	3	17	-	-	-	-
23	27	36.00	12	45	1	4	8	30	2	7	2	7	-	-	-	-	2	7	-	-	-	-
24	49	58.35	27	55	2	4	13	27	-	-	3	6	-	-	1	2	3	6	-	-	-	-
25	52	61.85	33	63	1	2	14	27	-	-	1	2	-	-	2	4	1	2	-	-	-	-
26	53	67.95	34	64	-	-	14	26	2	4	3	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	53	74.80	36	68	1	2	11	20	2	4	1	2	1	2	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-
28	48	78.80	31	65	2	4	11	23	2	4	1	2	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-
29	41	80.44	27	66	1	2	10	25	1	2	2	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
30	37	84.10	26	70	2	5	7	19	1	3	-	-	1	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
31	31	86.10	21	68	2	6	7	23	1	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
32	20	76.80	14	70	-	-	6	30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
33	18	90.00	11	62	-	-	6	33	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5	-	-	-	-
34	13	92.85	8	62	-	-	5	38	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
35	9	81.80	4	44	1	12	4	44	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
36	5	62.50	2	40	1	20	2	40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	1	33.33	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	--	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
38	1	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-
39	1	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
41	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
42	1	50.00	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
43	1	50.00	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
44	1	50.00	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
45	2	100.00	-	-	-	-	1	50	-	-	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
46	2	100.00	-	-	1	50	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	--	-	-	-
47	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
48	1	100.00	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

* This tabulation was computed by analysing the employment and non-employment of respondents on the 30th June of each year of their professional lives, up to and including 30th June, 1970.

all wastage) to 32 years of age, where it accounts fo 70% of all wastage. After 32 years of age, wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing shows a steady decline to 40% of all wastage at the age of 36 years.

The second type of family-oriented wastage, that of marriage (or being a full-time housewife), occurs mainly from 23 to 31 years of age, during which period it accounts for 2% to 6% of all wastage in each year. Wastage due to marriage also takes place in the 35th, 36th, and 46th years of age (accounting for 12%, 20% and 50% of all wastage in these years, respectively), but the small number of respondents in these three year-groups may magnify the contribution of the one respondent who is responsible for the large wastage proportion in each of these years.

Employment outside social work consists of both full- and part-time employment. A popular explanation for the employment of social workers outside the profession is that they can obtain part-time employment with congenial hours of work during those years that they are engaged in rearing their children. Figures reflected in Table XIV do not wholly support this point of view: full-time employment outside social work far exceeds part-time employment, although both of these types of occupational wastage from social work do occur principally in the age range at which wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing is particularly prevalent.

Full-time employment outside the profession is recorded in the age ranges 20 to 37 years, 42 to 46 years, and at 48 years of age. It is most marked in the age period 20 to 37 years, where it accounts

for from 19% to 100% of all wastage in each year. The 100% figure (at 37 years of age) is potentially misleading, as only one respondent was outside the field of social work, and she was in full-time employment. All the wastage due to full-time employment in the age range 42 to 46 years, and at 48 years, is recorded by a single respondent. Overall, it can be suggested that occupational wastage due to full-time employment oustide social work occurs over most of the ages of respondents studied, but particularly at the ages of 20 to 37 years inclusive. The main amount of wastage due to full-time employment outside the profession, therefore, takes place over the period when absence from the field due to pregnancy and child-rearing also takes place (i.e. 20 to 36 years), and these two categories together account for most of the wastage in the "high wastage years" of 28 to 34, when from 78.80% to 92.85% of all respondents are outside social work.

Part-time employment oustide the field of social work occurs at 23 years, and from 26 to 31 years. At its highest proportion (7% of all wastage) at 23 years of age, part-time employment outside social work does not exceed 4% of all wastage in the other years at which it occurs. As wastage of this type takes place at age-ranges during which large numbers of respondents are absent from the field due to pregnancy or child-rearing, a possible associated factor may be that part-time work outside the profession offers suitable hours to the mothers of young children.

In the year ranges 22 to 25 years, 27 to 28 years, and at 33 years, wastage is recorded as a result of extended holidays and travel, usually overseas. Although this wastage may be due in part to a

middle-class South African folkway of a holiday overseas before "settling down", two respondents volunteer the information that they have taken their extended holidays in order to accompany their husbands on long business trips.

Further study in social work or in allied disciplines is recorded as a reason for occupational wastage in the 21st to 29th years of age, and also at ages 39 and 45. There appears to be a trend for further study to occur in the younger age ranges (starting from 21 years), irregularly decreasing as a proportion of all wastage until 29 years of age. Thereafter, there are scattered instances of respondents undertaking further educational courses at older ages. In the age range 21 to 29 years, between 2% and 22% of all wastage each year is due to further study. The high proportions of wastage attributed to further study in the years 39 and 45 (100% and 50% of all wastage, respectively), are a consequence of the small numbers of respondents in each of the two year-groups.

Other wastage recorded by respondents, and apparently unrelated to age, is due to ill-health (recorded at the ages of 27 and 30 years), to a lack of suitable social work vacancies (recorded at the ages of 24 and 25 years) and an instance of a respondent not wishing to work (in her 38th year).

Three main trends emerge from the above discussion.

Firstly, four types of occupational wastage appear related to age. Wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing occurs between 20 and 36 years of age; wastage due to full-time employment outside the profession

occurs mainly in the age range 20 to 37 years (thus overlapping the period during which wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing takes place); wastage due to part-time employment outside social work takes place at 23 years, and between 26 and 31 years; and wastage due to further study is concentrated in the age range 21 to 29 years.

Secondly, a less clear relationship can be suspected between age and two other categories of occupational wastage: extended holidays/travel tends to take place in the younger years of age (from 22 to 33 years); while wastage due to marriage per se is centred at the 23rd to 31st years of age, but with sporodic appearances at later ages.

Thirdly, three types of wastage do not reflect or imply any relationship with age. They are occupational wastage due to ill-health, to awaiting social work vacancies, and to the desire simply "not to work".

7. Age at which employment takes place in various social work fields

Table XV, overleaf, contains an analysis of respondents' fields of social work employment, by their years of age. The table can be approached in two ways: firstly, in terms of the proportion of respondents of different ages in particular fields (a vertical analysis), and secondly, in terms of the different fields of social work favoured by respondents of a particular age group (a horizontal analysis).

Respondents tend to work in the field of child and family welfare during their earlier and less experienced years of age. From the ages of 20, 21 and 22 years, where 67%, 46% and 51% respectively of

TABLE XV

ANALYSIS OF FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK EMPLOYMENT, BY AGE OF RESPONDENTS *

Year of Age of Respondents	No. and % of all respondents who were employed in social work at 3oth June of this year of their age.		No. and % of respondents employed in social work at 30th June of this year of their age, working in this field of social work																													
			Aged		Alcoholism		Child and family		Community		Dept. of Social Welfare and Pensions		Housing		Industry		Legal Aid		Medical		Prisoners		Psychiatric		Physical disability		Recreation		School		Social work education	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
20	3	60.00	-	-	-	-	2	67	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	33	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
21	13	59.20	1	8	-	-	6	46	1	8	-	-	1	8	-	-	-	-	3	22	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	8	-	-	-	-
22	43	70.50	-	-	2	5	22	51	-	-	4	9	1	2	-	-	-	-	5	12	1	2	3	7	3	7	2	5	-	-	-	-
23	48	64.00	1	2	1	2	14	30	-	-	8	17	2	4	-	-	-	-	6	13	5	10	4	8	4	8	2	4	1	2	-	-
24	35	41.65	2	6	-	-	9	26	-	-	7	20	1	3	-	-	-	-	8	23	2	6	2	6	1	2	-	-	1	2	2	6
25	32	38.15	-	-	1	3	11	35	-	-	5	16	-	-	-	-	1	3	4	12	1	3	6	19	1	3	1	3	-	-	1	3
26	25	32.05	-	-	1	4	10	40	-	-	4	16	-	-	-	-	1	4	3	12	1	4	4	16	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4
27	18	25.20	-	-	2	11	3	16	2	11	3	16	-	-	1	6	1	6	2	11	-	-	2	11	-	-	1	6	-	-	1	6
28	13	21.20	-	-	1	8	2	15	1	8	1	8	-	-	1	8	-	-	3	22	-	-	1	8	-	-	1	8	-	-	2	15
29	10	19.56	-	-	1	10	2	20	-	-	2	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	10	-	-	-	-	1	10	1	10	-	-	2	20
30	7	15.90	-	-	-	-	1	14	-	-	1	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	29	1	14	-	-	-	-	2	29
31	5	13.90	-	-	-	-	2	40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	20	1	20	-	-	-	-	1	20
32	6	23.20	1	17	-	-	1	17	1	17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	32	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	17
33	2	10.00	1	50	-	-	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
34	1	7.15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
35	2	18.20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	50	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
36	3	37.50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	33	2	67	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	2	66.67	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	50
38	1	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
39	1	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
40	1	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
41	1	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
42	1	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
43	1	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
44	1	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
45	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
46	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
47	2	100.00	-	-	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
48	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

* This table was computed by analysing the fields of employment of those respondents who were employed on the 30th June of each year of their professional lives, up to and including 30th June, 1970

all employed respondents work in this field, there is an irregular decrease in respondents employed in child and family welfare until the age of 30 years (14% of all employed respondents). From 31 to 33 years of age, the proportion of respondents in this field fluctuates, possibly as a consequence of the smaller number of respondents in these age groups (5,6 and 2 employed respondents, respectively).

A field closely allied to the field of child and family welfare is that of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. The age and employment pattern in this field is similar to that of child and family welfare; respondents record employment in the Department from the ages of 22 to 30 years, during which period from 9% to 20% of all employed respondents had their employment in this field each year.

The division into two fields of "child and family welfare" and "The Department of Social Welfare and Pensions", is perhaps an artificial dichotomy. Both fields incorporate a broad service to children and families, and in practice, the division of labour between social work in the two fields is often the age of the child who is the "presenting problem". Thus, it might be helpful to combine the two fields for the purposes of comparison with employment in other, less generic social work fields. This is done in Table XVI, overleaf.

Table XVI shows that, in each year of the age range 20 to 26 years, between 46% and 67% of all employed respondents work in the broad field of child and family welfare, either in community welfare organizations, or in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. After 26 years, until 32 years, there is an irregular decrease in the

TABLE XVI

AGES AT WHICH RESPONDENTS REPORT EMPLOYMENT IN THE FIELDS OF CHILD AND FAMILY WELFARE, AND THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE AND PENSIONS *

Year of Age of Respondents	No of respondents employed in the field of child and family welfare, and the % that they form of all employed respondents at this year of age		No of respondents employed in the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, and the % that they form of all employed respondents at this year of Age		No of respondents employed in both the fields of child and family welfare and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, and the % that they form of all employed respondents at this year of Age	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
20	2	67	-	-	2	67
21	6	46	-	-	6	46
22	22	51	4	9	26	60
23	14	30	8	17	22	47
24	9	26	7	20	16	46
25	11	35	5	15	16	50
26	10	40	4	16	14	56
27	3	16	3	16	6	32
28	2	15	1	8	3	23
29	2	20	2	20	4	40
30	1	14	1	14	2	28
31	2	40	-	-	2	40
32	1	17	-	-	1	17
33	1	50	-	-	1	50

* This table is computed by analysing the employment status of respondents on the 30th June of each year of their professional lives, up to and including 30th June, 1970.

proportion of respondents employed in this broad field. At 33 years, however, the proportion again jumps to 50% of all employed respondents, but caution must be excercised in accepting this latter figure as typical - only 2 respondents, a very small group, were in employment during their 33rd year.

These findings about the broad field of child and family welfare pose an interesting converse: if the proportion of employed respondents in the field of child and family welfare decreases after the age of 25, it should follow that the proportion of employed respondents in other, more specialised fields of social work will increase after this age. When this concept is tested by examining the ages at which respondents accept employment in specialised social work fields, it is supported only in the fields of alcoholism, psychiatric social work, physical disability, recreation and social work education.

In the field of alcoholism, respondents report employment from the ages of 22 to 29 years, with a further one respondent working in the field at the age of 47 years. Over the age range 22 to 29 years, there is a general, but irregular increase in the proportion of respondents employed with progressing age (5% of employed respondents work in the field at 22 years of age, while 10% are employed there at the age of 29 years).

The tenuous indication in the field of alcoholism appears more strongly in the field of psychiatric social work. An increased proportion of employed respondents choose this field as their age (and experience) increases. Employment in the field is reported from the age of 22 (7% of all employed respondents) to the age of

47 (50% of all employed respondents). The bulk of employment is in the age ranges 22 to 28 years, 30 to 32 years, and 34 to 36 years, with a progressively higher proportional amount of employment in each of the three successive age ranges.

Similarly, the trend is apparent, although less markedly, in the field of social work with the physically disabled, where respondents report working from 22 years (7% of all employed respondents) to 31 years (20% of all employed respondents); and also in the field of recreation, where respondents report work from the age of 21 years (8% of all employed respondents) to the age of 29 years (10% of all employed respondents).

The trend of moving to more specialised fields with progressing age is apparent in the very "specialised" field of social work education, where employment is reported from 24 to 32 years, and again at 37 years. The proportion of employed respondents in this latter field increases irregularly from 6% at age 24, to 29% at age 30, drops to 20% and 17% at ages 31 and 32, respectively, and appears again as 50% at age 36. This latter proportion should be viewed with reservation, as only 2 respondents are employed in social work in their 36th year of age.

In the remaining fields in which respondents record employment, no clear relationship is apparent between proportional employment and age. In medical social work, respondents record work from the ages of 20 (33% of all employed respondents) to 29 (10% of all employed respondents), with irregular upward and downward fluctuations in the proportion of employed respondents working in this field during the intervening years.

Similarly, in the field of social work with prisoners, there is no firm support for a tendency in the older worker to move to a more specialised field. Work in this field is recorded between the ages of 22 and 26 years, 35 and 41 years, and 43 to 44 years. Although the two latter age ranges reflect a very high proportion of employed respondents working in this field each year (ranging from 33% to 100%), a single respondent in each of the small year-groups is responsible for the apparent popularity of the field. In the more populous age range of 22 to 26 years, there is an overall decrease in the proportion of employed respondents working in the field as age increases: from a peak of 10% of all employed respondents at age 23, to 4% at age 26.

The oldest age at which respondents report work in the fields of housing and school social work is 24 years. In the fields of the aged, community, industry and legal aid, no relationship appears to exist between age and employment.

The examination of respondents' ages, and their employment in particular fields of social work, would seem to indicate a tendency for respondents to spend their younger and less experienced years in the more generic fields of child and family welfare, and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, moving later (if they remain in social work employment) to other more specialised fields, particularly those of alcoholism, psychiatric social work, physical disability, recreation and social work education.

8. Age and part-time employment in social work

An earlier tabulation in this chapter (Table XIV, supra) shows that part-time employment outside social work occurs over the same age range that occupational wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing takes place. Does this also apply to part-time employment within the profession?

Table XVII, overleaf, reflects the proportion of part-time employment to all employment, by years of age. The tabulation shows that part-time employment takes place between the ages of 22 to 31 years, 36 to 37 years, and 43 to 44 years. From the age of 22 years to 31 years, there is an overall, but irregular increase in the proportion of part-time to full-time employment in social work. At the age of 22, only 2.32% of employed respondents' work is part-time, but at the age of 31 years, 40% of employed respondents are engaged in part-time work.

The part-time employment reported at the ages of 36, 37, 43 and 44 years accounts for 33.33%, 50%, 100% and 100% respectively of all employment in these years. The small number of employed respondents in each of these older age groups, however, means that these proportions should be viewed with caution.

Overall, the bulk of part-time employment within social work occurs between the ages of 22 and 31 years, and thus overlaps the age range 20 to 36 years, when most occupational wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing takes place. A relationship between part-time employment in social work, and pregnancy and child-rearing may therefore be suspected.

TABLE XVII

AGE AND PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN SOCIAL WORK *

Years of Age	No. of respondents in Social Work employment (Full and Part-time) at this year of age	No of respondents in part-time Social Work employment at this year of age	% of respondents in part-time employment, of all respondents in employment at this year of age
20	3	-	-
21	13	-	-
22	43	1	2.32
23	48	3	6.35
24	35	1	2.86
25	32	4	12.48
26	25	3	12.00
27	18	3	16.65
28	13	2	15.36
29	10	2	20.00
30	7	2	28.60
31	5	2	40.00
32	6	-	-
33	2	-	-
34	1	-	-
35	2	-	-
36	3	1	33.33
37	2	1	50.00
38	1	-	-
39	1	-	-
40	1	-	-
41	1	-	-
42	1	-	-
43	1	1	100.00
44	1	1	100.00
45	-	-	-
46	-	-	-
47	2	-	-
48	-	-	-

* This table is computed by analysing the employment status of respondents on the 30th June of each year of their professional lives, up to and including 30th June, 1970

9. Employment quotients of respondents

The concept of an employment quotient (or EQ) is defined, and its method of computation described, in an earlier section of this dissertation (p.168, supra).

Table XVIII, hereunder, reflects the distribution of respondents' individual EQ's. The data contained in the tabulation is graphically presented in Figure 2, p. 228.

TABLE XVIII

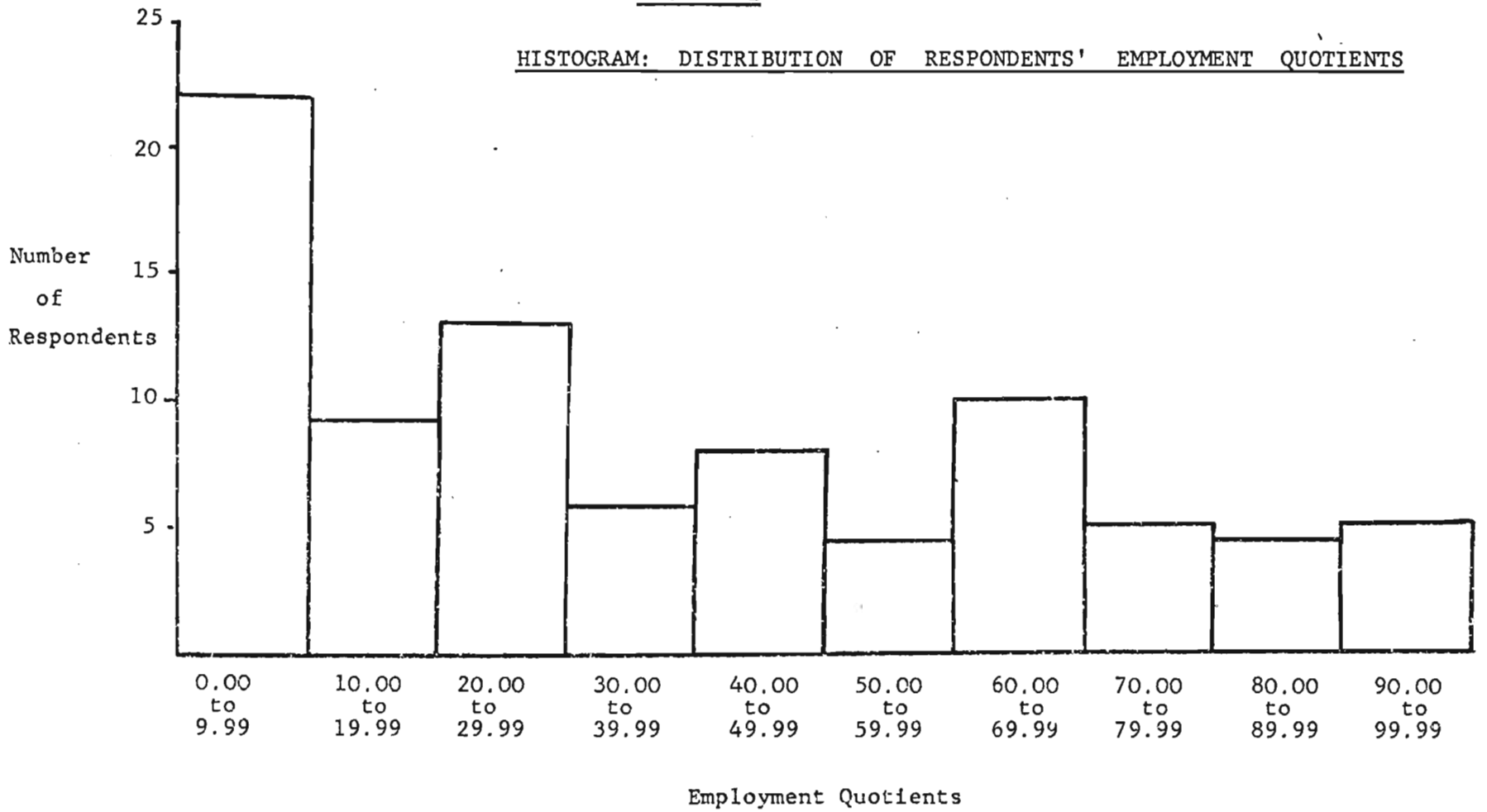
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS' EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENTS

Employment Quotient (EQ)	No. of respondents with an EQ within this group (N = 86)	% of respondents with an EQ within this group
0.00 to 9.99	22	25.58
10.00 to 19.99	9	10.46
20.00 to 29.99	13	15.13
30.00 to 39.99	6	6.97
40.00 to 49.99	8	9.30
50.00 to 59.99	4	4.65
60.00 to 69.99	10	11.62
70.00 to 79.99	5	5.82
80.00 to 89.99	4	4.65
90.00 to 99.99	5	5.82
TOTALS	86	100.00

Range of EQ's: 0.00 to 96.29

FIGURE 2

HISTOGRAM: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS' EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENTS



An examination of Table XVIII shows that there is a preponderance of respondents in the three lowest EQ groups (with 22, 9 and 13 respondents in each group, respectively), and that a total of 44 respondents, or 51.17% of all respondents, have an EQ below 30.00. There is a gradual but irregular decrease in the number of respondents in each higher EQ group, with only 5 (or 5.82%) of all respondents in the EQ group 70.00 to 79.99, 4 (or 4.65%) in the EQ group 80 to 89.99, and 5 (or 5.82%) in the EQ group 90.00 to 99.99. The range of EQ's for respondents as a whole is from 0.00 to 96.29.

10. Division of respondents into high, median and low employment quotient groups.

It is possible to pursue an examination of employment and occupational wastage by dividing respondents into two groups: the 43 respondents with the highest EQ's, and the 43 respondents with the lowest EQ's. The nature of the two groups' employment and occupational wastage can then be compared. This method of division produces a problem, however, in that the inclusion of middle-range EQ respondents in the high and low EQ halves may tend to blur the characteristics of those respondents with more extreme EQ's, either high or low. An alternative is to divide the respondent group into three groups and to compare the characteristics of the high EQ "third" with those of the low EQ "third". This is the method chosen by the investigator.

As the number of respondents totals 86, division into exact thirds is not possible. To effect a compromise, respondents are divided into three groups: the 29 highest EQ's and 29 lowest EQ's, and a middle

group between the highest and lowest EQ's, comprising a further 28 respondents. These groups are referred to as the "high EQ group", the "low EQ group", and the "median EQ group", respectively. Table XIX, below, shows the salient characteristics of these three groups.

TABLE XIX

DIVISION OF RESPONDENTS INTO HIGH, MEDIAN AND LOW EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENT GROUPS: SALIENT CHARACTERISTICS OF THE THREE GROUPS

Characteristic	High EQ group	Median EQ group	Low EQ group
Number in Group	29	28	29
Range of individual EQ's	49.44 to 96.29	17.94 to 48.14	0.00 to 16.66
Median EQ	60.25	20.68/21.08	4.61
Mean EQ	72.31	31.13	6.14
Combined maximum potential employment of all respondents in the group (months)	2526	2892	3342

Table XIX reflects an imbalance in the range of respondents' EQ's within the three EQ groups. The high EQ group, for example, includes respondents with EQ's over the wide range of 49.44 to 96.29, while the low EQ group includes a much narrower range of EQ's from 0.00 to 16.66. The mean employment quotient for both the high and low EQ groups is influenced by very high EQ's, and very low EQ's, respectively, and the median EQ figure (60.25 for the high EQ group, and 4.61 for the low EQ group) is perhaps a more reliable indication of central tendency in the employment quotients of the two groups.

A particularly important characteristic of the high and low EQ groups, reflected in Table XIX, is the difference between the total potential employment of the two groups: the high EQ group have a potential total employment in social work of 2526 months, while that of the low EQ group is 3342 months. This finding indicates that the high EQ group are younger than the low EQ group. Bearing in mind that occupational wastage increases with advancing age (Table XIII, supra), it can be suggested that the low EQ group have low EQ's because they have spent a longer time in the high-wastage age range of 24 to 34 years.

The following two sections of this chapter contain an examination of the employment and wastage configurations of respondents in the high and low EQ groups. An attempt is made to clarify whether or not the apparent difference in age between members of the high and low EQ groups is the only reason for their particular employment and wastage patterns.

11. The nature of occupational wastage: high and low employment quotient groups.

Table XX, overleaf, contains an analysis of the occupational wastage of respondents in the high and low employment quotient (EQ) groups.

As might be expected from the method by which the two groups were formed (that is, according to their employment quotients), the group mean wastage is lowest in the high EQ group (24.55 months), and greatest in the low EQ group (108.36 months). What is not expected, however,

TABLE XX

ANALYSIS OF OCCUPATIONAL WASTAGE: HIGH AND LOW EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENT GROUPS

Reason for occupational wastage	HIGH EQ. GROUP (N = 29)				LOW EQ. GROUP (N = 29)			
	Total wastage for this reason		No. of individual periods of wastage for this reason	Average length of individual periods of wastage for this reason (months)	Total wastage for this reason		No. of individual periods of wastage for this reason	Average length of individual periods of wastage for this reason (months)
	Total months	% of all wastage			Total months	% of all wastage		
Pregnancy and child-rearing	248.0	34.83	16	15.50	1659.0	52.79	30	55.30
Marriage	90.0	12.65	12	7.50	18.0	0.58	1	18.00
Full-time employment outside social work	87.0	12.22	6	14.50	974.0	30.99	29	33.58
Part-time employment outside social work	31.0	4.35	4	7.75	246.0	7.84	6	41.00
Further study	51.0	7.16	6	8.50	138.0	4.39	5	27.60
Ill-health	11.0	1.54	2	5.50	26.0	0.83	2	13.00
Awaiting a social work vacancy	45.0	6.32	2	22.50	29.0	0.92	2	14.50
Extended holidays and travel	59.0	8.28	10	5.90	24.0	0.76	3	8.00
Did not wish to work	-	-	-	-	12.0	0.38	1	12.00
No reason given	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Wastage due to part-time employment in social work)*	90.0	12.65	11	8.18*	16.5	0.52	4	4.12*
TOTALS	712.0	100.00	69	10.30	3142.5	100.00	83	37.86
GROUP MEAN WASTAGE	24.55 months				108.36 months			

* See p.199 for an explanation of this category

is that the average length of individual wastage periods for respondents in the high and low EQ groups should show such a wide disparity: in the high EQ group, the average length of all individual wastage periods is 10.30 months, while in the low EQ group, it is 37.86 months, over three times longer.

A possible explanation for this latter finding could be that the low EQ group have a greater proportion of wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing (as it is known from Table X, supra, that the average length of individual wastage periods for this reason is considerably greater than the average lengths of wastage periods for any other cause). Table XX shows that this is the case. However, this explanation does not suffice to explain why the high EQ groups' average wastage period for pregnancy and child-rearing is only 15.50 months, while that of the low EQ group is 55.30 months.

Before examining the patterns in which high and low EQ group respondents apportion their occupational wastage, it is important to note that there is a vast difference in the total amount of occupational wastage incurred by each group: the low EQ group have 3142.5 months as 100% of their wastage, while the high EQ group have 712 months as 100%.

Both EQ groups record pregnancy and child-rearing as their major reason for occupational wastage. This category accounts for 248 months, or 34.83% of the high EQ group wastage, and 1659 months, or 52.79% of the low EQ group wastage. It is of interest that, in contrast, the high EQ group has a larger proportion of wastage ascribed to the second family-oriented category, marriage per se, than does the

low EQ group (90 months, or 12.65% of all wastage, as compared to 18 months, or 0.58% of all wastage). No clear explanation appears for these latter two findings, but is is possible to speculate that respondents in the high EQ group may have fewer children.

The second major category of occupational wastage in the low EQ group is full-time employment outside social work, which accounts for 974 months, or 30.99% of all wastage. This category is only the fourth most important cause of wastage for the high EQ group, who report 87 months, or 12.22% of all wastage for this reason. The average length of individual occupational wastage periods for full-time occupation outside the profession is more than twice as long in the low EQ group than in the high (29 jobs averaging 33.58 months each, as compared to 6 jobs averaging 14.50 months each).

The low EQ group record a greater proportion of wastage due to part-time work outside the profession, than do the high EQ group. The low EQ group report 246 months, or 7.84% of all their wastage, in part-time employment outside social work; while the high EQ group figure is only 31 months, or 4.35% of all their wastage. The average length of individual part-time jobs outside social work is more than five times as great for the low EQ group than for the high (41 months, as compared to 7.75 months).

In four categories of wastage, the high EQ group record a greater proportion of wastage than the low. Three of these categories concern "positive" wastage (further study; awaiting a social work vacancy; and part-time work within social work); and the fourth is the category of extended holidays and travel.

The high EQ group attribute 51 months, or 7.16% of all wastage to further study, and the low EQ group 138 months, or 4.39% of all wastage. An examination of the nature of "further study" shows that in the high EQ group, all but one of the six instances of further study are for further study in social work; while in the low EQ group, all instances of further study are in fields allied to social work. In the case of wastage due to awaiting social work vacancies, the high EQ group record 45 months of wastage, or 6.32% of all their wastage, while the low EQ group record 29 months, or 0.92% of all their wastage.

In regard to part-time work within social work, the high EQ group report 90 months of wastage, or 12.65% of all their wastage; while the low EQ group report 16.5 months of wastage, or 0.52% of all wastage. The high EQ group, therefore, show a considerably greater propensity to work part-time within the profession, than do the low EQ group.

An unexpected finding is that the high EQ group have, proportionally, a greater amount of wastage due to extended holidays and travel, than do the low EQ group. The former report 59 months of wastage, or 8.28% of all wastage as being attributable to this reason, while the latter report 24 months, or 0.76% of all their wastage.

Two other categories of wastage are recorded. Wastage due to ill-health accounts for 11 months, or 1.54% of all wastage in the high EQ group, and 26 months, or 0.83% of all wastage in the low EQ group. In addition, the low EQ group record 12 months, or 0.38% of wastage in the category, "Did not wish to work".

Four main trends can be established from the foregoing comparison of the high and low EQ groups' patterns of occupational wastage:-

Firstly, the low EQ group have proportionally more occupational wastage, and the mean length of their individual wastage periods is longer.

Secondly, the low EQ group record proportionally more wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing, as well as to full- and part-time employment outside social work. In each of these categories, the average length of their individual wastage periods is more than double the length of equivalent wastage periods in the high EQ group.

Thirdly, the low EQ group show proportionally less "positive" wastage than the high EQ group. They have proportionally less wastage for further study, for part-time employment within social work, and for awaiting social work vacancies.

Finally, the low EQ group show proportionally less wastage than the high EQ group on account of marriage per se, extended holidays and travel, and ill-health.

It would seem, therefore, that different occupational wastage trends can be identified for the high and low EQ groups, and that further, these different patterns of occupational wastage cannot be exclusively attributed to the high EQ group being a generally younger group than the low EQ group.

12. The nature of employment: high and low employment quotient groups

Table XXI, overleaf, contains an analysis of the employment of respondents in the high and low EQ groups, by fields of social work and by number and length of jobs.

As may be anticipated from the way in which the two employment quotient groups were selected, there is a relationship between the high and low EQ groups, and their mean employment figures: respondents in the high EQ group have a mean employment of 62.55 months, and respondents in the low EQ group have a mean employment of 6.88 months.

(i) The Low EQ group

Of the 199.5 months of social work employment reported by the low EQ group, the largest proportion of their employment is in the field of child and family welfare, where 15 jobs totalling 81.5 months, or 40.86% of all their employment, take place. The next most favoured field is that of recreation, with 2 jobs totalling 46 months, or 23.06% of all their employment. Thereafter, the next two most favoured fields are those of the physically disabled (3 jobs totalling 23 months, or 11.53% of all employment) and medical social work (3 jobs totalling 19.5 months, or 9.77% of all employment). Employment, varying from 2 months to 11 months (or 1% to 5.51% of all employment), is also recorded in the fields of psychiatric social work, alcoholism, community work, housing and prisoners.

Of particular note is the low average length of the 29 jobs reported by low EQ group respondents: for the group as a whole, average length

TABLE XXI

ANALYSIS OF EMPLOYMENT, BY FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK AND NUMBER AND LENGTH OF JOBS: HIGH AND LOW EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENT GROUPS

Field of Social Work	HIGH EQ. GROUP (N=29)				LOW EQ. GROUP (N=29)			
	Total employment in this field and % of all employment		Total no. of jobs in this field	Mean length of jobs in this field (months)	Total employment in this field, and % of all employment		Total No. of jobs in this field	Mean length of jobs in this field (months)
	Total (months)	%			Total (months)	%		
Aged	22.0	1.21	2	11.00				
Alcoholism	83.0	4.58	5	16.60	2.5	1.25	1	2.50
Child and family	485.0	26.73	29	16.72	81.5	40.86	15	5.43
Community	18.0	0.99	1	18.00	2.0	1.00	1	2.00
Dept. of Social Welfare & Pensions	363.0	20.01	11	33.00				
Housing	63.0	3.47	3	21.00	6.0	3.01	1	6.00
Industry	19.5	1.07	2	9.75				
Legal Aid								
Medical	242.0	13.34	12	20.17	19.5	9.77	3	6.50
Prisoners	84.5	4.67	5	16.90	8.0	4.01	2	4.00
Psychiatric	217.5	11.99	11	19.77	11.0	5.51	1	11.00
Physical disability	56.0	3.09	5	11.20	23.0	11.53	3	7.66
Recreation	39.5	2.18	3	13.16	46.0	23.06	2	23.00
School								
Social work education	121.0	6.67	7	17.28				
TOTALS:	1814.0	100.00	96	18.80	199.5	100.00	29	6.88

of jobs is 6.88 months. Within different social work fields, the low EQ group have an average length of job of six months or less in the five fields of alcoholism (2.50 months), child and family (5.43 months), community (2.00 months), housing (6 months), and prisoners (4 months). In three other fields, the average length of job is over 6 months, but less than 12 months: medical social work (6.50 months), physical disability (7.66 months), and psychiatric social work (11 months). In only one field (recreation, with an average length of job of 23 months), is the average length of job over one year.

(ii) The High EQ group

The high EQ group have a total of 1814 months of service in social work. Like the low EQ group, they have the largest proportion of all their work in the field of child and family welfare, where 29 jobs totalling 485 months, or 26.73% of all employment, is recorded. The second most popular field is the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, where 11 jobs totalling 363 months, or 20.01% of all employment, takes place. Adding these latter two amounts of employment together, the high EQ group spend 848 months, or 46.74% of all their employment, in the broad field of child and family welfare. Over 10% of all employment is spent in each of the fields of medical social work (12 jobs totalling 242 months, or 13.34% of all employment), and psychiatric social work (11 jobs totalling 217.5 months, or 11.99% of all employment). In addition, the high EQ group record from 121 months to 18 months (or from 6.67% to 0.99% of all employment) in each of the nine fields of care of the aged, alcoholism, community,

housing, industry, prisoners, physical disability, recreation and social work education.

The average length of all 96 jobs reported by the high EQ group is 18.80 months. In no individual field of social work do they have an average length of job of six months of less, but in three fields they record an average length of job between six and twelve months: the fields of the aged (11 months), industry (9.75 months), and physical disability (11.20 months). In the remaining fields in which the high EQ group have employment, the average length of job exceeds one year, and ranges from 13.16 months in the field of recreation, to 33 months in the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions.

When the employment patterns of the high and low EQ groups are compared, three main trends can be noted:-

Firstly, the low EQ group have less employment in social work, and the average length of time that they spend in individual jobs is just over a third of the average time that the high EQ group spend in jobs.

Secondly, the low EQ group give proportionally less service to the broad field of child and family welfare, and favour employment in community welfare organizations, rather than State welfare agencies.

Thirdly, with the exception of the field of recreation, the low EQ group have a shorter average length of job than the high EQ group in all the fields of social work in which they record employment.

The foregoing analysis of the high and low EQ groups' employment gives support to the notion that their different employment patterns cannot be solely attributed to the low EQ group being an "older" group. The younger high EQ group (with a potential of 2526 months of employment in social work) realise 1814 months of actual employment, while the older low EQ group (with a potential of 3342 months of employment in social work) realise only 199.5 months. In addition, the average time that the high EQ group spend in each job is almost three times greater than that of the low EQ group (18.80 months, as compared to 6.88 months).

13. Additional factors contributing to occupational wastage

The final section of the questionnaire sent to respondents (See Appendix I, infra) invited respondents to suggest additional reasons which they consider might influence the occupational wastage, occupational mobility or work satisfaction of social workers. Forty-nine reasons are listed by respondents, all concerning occupational wastage. These reasons are classified into five groups, and are reflected in Table XXII, overleaf.

Table XXII shows that the most frequently reported reason (recorded by 23 respondents, and forming 46.94% of all reasons reported) is the lack of adequate pre-school care for children. Respondents place stress on the adequacy of pre-school care. For example, one respondent writes: "Although I could leave my child with a servant, I feel that this is no substitute for the stimulation that he would get from me .... there are no vacancies in nursery schools

TABLE XXII

RESPONDENTS' SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING ADDITIONAL FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE OCCUPATIONAL WASTAGE OF SOCIAL WORKERS

Factor Influencing Occupational Wastage	No. and % of instances where this factor is suggested by respondents	
	No.	%
Lack of adequate pre-school care for children	23	46.94
Lack of social work posts where workers are employed on a sessional basis	15	30.61
Lack of social work posts where working hours coincide with school hours	6	12.25
Income Tax excessive for married women workers	3	6.12
Social work is palliative	2	4.08
TOTALS:	49	100.00%

in my area, and as a result I have no choice but to remain at home until he starts primary school". Another respondent states, "My first duty is to my family. If I cannot be sure that my younger children are in good hands, I will not be happy at work, and from talking to other social workers who have young children, I know that they feel the same". Respondent social workers appear very conscious of pre-school care being more than physical care per se, and attach importance to the quality of their childrens's pre-school experience.

The second and third most frequently reported additional reasons for occupational wastage are closely related. They are a lack of

social work posts where workers are employed on a sessional basis (recorded by 15 respondents, and forming 30.61% of all additional factors reported), and a lack of social work posts where working hours coincide with school hours (recorded by 6 respondents, and forming 12.25% of all additional factors reported). Both reasons concern an absence of social work jobs where respondents can work in the profession and still fulfil their mother roles. The first category can refer to the mothers of school-going or pre-school children, while the second category refers specifically to the mothers of school-going children. Together, reasons in these two categories account for 21, or 42.86% of all the additional reasons which respondents consider to influence the occupational wastage of social workers.

Respondents also report that income tax is excessive for married women workers. This category accounts for 3 or 6.12% of all additional reasons that influence occupational wastage. A respondent writes in this regard: "I wanted to go back to work, but it simply was not worth it ... my husband is a (professional man), and most of the salary that I could get from working would go straight into the extra income tax that we would have to pay".

Finally, two respondents report that social work is "palliative". This category forms 4.08% of all additional reasons that influence occupational wastage. In both cases, respondents qualify their comments by suggesting that social work does not result in real problem solving, and that it is thus of limited use to society.

Overall, Table XXII shows that of the 49 additional reasons which respondents identify as being of influence upon occupational wastage, 44 (or 89.80%) are related to difficulties in combining home roles (especially the mother role) with social work employment. This finding sheds light on an earlier finding of this study, namely that "pregnancy and child-rearing" is the predominant cause of respondents' occupational wastage (See Table X, supra).

14. Summary

Respondents as a whole have a total potential working life in social work of 8760 months. Of this, 2890.5 months are realised to the profession, and 5869.5 months are not. The overall percentage wastage is 67.00%.

Occupational wastage can be attributed to 12 reasons, the main ones of which are pregnancy and child-rearing (56.15% of all wastage), and full- and part-time employment outside social work (together amounting to 28.77% of all wastage). The average length of each wastage period is 22.49 months.

Respondents report employment in 15 different fields of social work. Of all employment, 30.60% is in the field of child and family welfare, 15.45% in medical social work, 14.95% in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, and 10.62% in psychiatric social work. Employment in each of the other fields varies from 6.28% of all employment to 0.55% of all employment. Part-time employment is reported in 12 of the 15 fields. The average length of all jobs is 14.59 months.

Age is related to both the occupational wastage and employment of respondents. From the age of 22, when 70.50% of respondents are in the field, there is a decrease in the proportion of respondents working each year until the age of 34 years, when only 7.15% are in employment. After 34 years, the employment pattern becomes irregular.

A relationship exists between age and the causes of occupational wastage. Wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing takes place from 20 to 36 years of age, steadily increasing its proportion of all wastage from the ages of 23 to 32 years; wastage due to full- and part-time occupation outside social work takes place extensively over the same broad age range; and wastage due to further study is greatest in the early and middle twenties. Other categories of wastage are less clearly age-related.

Respondents' age is also related to their employment patterns. There is a tendency for respondents to spend their younger and less experienced years in the more generic fields of child and family welfare and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, and then to move to more "specialised" fields of social work. There is also a tendency for the proportion of part-time to full-time employment in social work to increase each year from the ages of 22 to 31 years.

On the basis of their employment quotients (EQ's), respondents were divided into three EQ groups - high, median and low. The low EQ group show a different pattern of employment and occupational wastage from the high EQ group. The low EQ group spend, on an average, three times longer in each wastage period than the high group; and similarly, the average length of job of respondents in

the low EQ group is just over a third of that spent in each job by the high EQ group. The low EQ group record proportionally more employment in the field of child and family welfare than do the high EQ group, but if the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions is included in the field of "child and family welfare", the position is reversed, with the high EQ group spending proportionally more employment in the broad area of child and family welfare. The low EQ group record proportionally more wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing than do the high EQ group, and also proportionally more wastage in full- and part-time employment outside the social work profession.

A conclusion is drawn that the different employment and wastage configurations of the high and low EQ groups cannot be solely attributed to the high EQ group being a relatively younger group.

Finally, respondents record 49 additional reasons which, in their opinion, influence the occupational wastage of social workers. The majority of these factors (89.80%) are related to difficulties that female social workers encounter when they attempt to combine home and work roles.

Chapter 8

OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY

Chapter 8

OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY

Occupational mobility can be measured in two ways: by calculating the number and length of jobs; and by calculating the number of job changes over a specified period of time. Both methods have been used in this research study.

In the preceding chapter, where the employment and occupational wastage of respondents is analysed, Table XI reflects respondents' number and length of jobs. This tabulation shows that respondents have 198 jobs in social work, with jobs lasting a mean length of 14.59 months, and also provides an analysis of the fields of social work in which these jobs are reported.

The present chapter is concerned not only with occupational mobility rates *per se*, but with the factors which influence respondents in their acceptance and termination of social work posts, and which thus determine their movement towards, or away from, social work positions.

1. Experience and occupational mobility

If social workers were to change their social work posts at a regular rate throughout their professional lives, an analysis of the number of jobs by year of graduation would reveal a steady increase, with social workers who graduated in the earliest group (1955) having the most number of job terminations, and those who have most recently

entered the social work field (1965) having the least number of job terminations.

Table XXIII, overleaf, reflects an analysis of experience (as indicated by year of graduation) and the number of social work positions terminated. The tabulation shows no direct relationship between year of graduation and either mean or median numbers of jobs terminated. The 1955 group have 8 job terminations, or a mean number of job changes of 1.33, and a median number of 1. The 1965 group have 25 job terminations, or a mean number of job terminations of 1.47, and a median number of 1. In the nine groups after 1955 and before 1965, no pattern is apparent when mean or median number of job terminations are examined. The lowest mean number of job changes (1.00) is reported by the 1956 graduation group; the highest mean number of job changes (4.00) is reported by the 1957 group. The lowest median number of job changes (1) is recorded by the 1955, 1956 and 1965 groups, and the highest median number (between 3 and 4) by the 1957 graduation group. An examination of the individual mobility patterns of respondents in the 1957 group reveals that one respondent records 8 changes of job. While this sheds light upon the higher mean number of jobs for the group, it does not explain the higher median figure.

The number of years that have elapsed since graduation as a social worker would therefor seem to have no consistent bearing on respondents' occupational mobility.

Table XXIII shows that the 86 respondents terminate 177 social work positions (21 respondents are employed in the field on 30th June, 1970,

TABLE XXIII

EXPERIENCE AND OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY: MEAN AND MEDIAN NUMBER OF JOBS TERMINATED BY RESPONDENTS DURING THEIR PROFESSIONAL LIVES, BY YEAR OF GRADUATION

Year of Graduation *	No. of Respondents	No. of Jobs in Social Work	No. of Respondents employed in Social Work at the time of this study **	No. of Jobs Terminated	MEAN NO. of Jobs Terminated	MEDIAN NO. Jobs Terminated
1955	6	8	0	8	1.33	1
1956	4	4	0	4	1.00	1
1957	4	18	2	16	4.00	3,4
1958	6	9	0	9	1.50	2,3
1959	8	22	2	20	2.50	2
1960	11	29	4	25	2.27	3
1961	4	12	2	10	2.50	2,3
1962	10	27	2	25	2.50	2,3
1963	8	23	3	20	2.50	2
1964	8	16	1	15	1.88	2
1965	17	30	5	25	1.47	1
TOTAL:	86	198	21	177	2.06	2

* Year of Graduation = year in which basic social work education completed.

** 30th June, 1970

the time of this study), giving respondents as a whole a median number of 2 job terminations, and a mean number of 2.06 job terminations.

2. Factors that influence respondents to accept jobs in social work

Respondents report 267 individual factors which influence them to accept 198 jobs in social work. These influencing factors have been analysed and classified into thirteen categories, which are reflected in Table XXIV, overleaf.

Some preliminary observations are merited on the method of categorisation used in Table XXIV. The category, "Scope for a high standard of service", is not unidimensional. Included in this category are statements such as the following: "The organization had a good reputation"; "I thought there was scope for good social work"; "Standards were reputed to be high". As such, this category is closely related to another multidimensional category, "Better working conditions (non-physical)", which includes such statements as: "I knew that I would get good supervision"; "The caseload was small enough for me to do good work". This latter category of better working conditions (non-physical), therefore, relates to opportunities for a high standard of professional work by the individual respondent social worker, while the former category, scope for a high standard of service, relates to the professional standards of the employing social work agency.

TABLE XXIV

TOTAL NUMBER OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE RESPONDENTS TO ACCEPT SOCIAL WORK JOBS

Factors that influence job acceptance	No. of occasions in which this factor influences respondents to accept a social work post	% of occasions when this factor influences respondents to accept a social work post
Interest in field	111	56.06
Good salary	38	19.19
Suitable working hours	26	13.13
Only job available	36	18.18
Like agency personnel	3	1.52
Scope for a high standard of service	12	6.06
Wanted a change	2	1.01
More senior post	4	2.02
More prestigious field	2	1.01
Locum tenens post	22	11.11
Better working conditions (non-physical)	6	3.03
Convenient for travel	4	2.02
Required to take post, because study bursary had been received	1	0.51
TOTALS	267	134.85 *

N. of jobs accepted = 198

* Total exceeds 100%, as respondents frequently record more than one factor influencing job acceptance

Two further categories are also related, as they represent two viewpoints on the same basic issue. The category, "Interest in field", represents a pulling force, attracting a respondent to a field of social work in which she is interested; while the category, "wanted a change", implies a reduction of interest in a previous social work job, which "pushes" the respondent to another field in which she anticipates being more interested.

Table XXIV shows that the major influence on job choice is interest in a particular field of social work, which motivates the acceptance of 111 jobs, or 56.06% of all jobs accepted. Of second importance is good salary, which influences the choice of 38 jobs, or 19.19% of all jobs accepted.

Thirdly, jobs are accepted because they are the only jobs available in 18.18% of job taking, or 36 jobs. This influence upon job choice is of particular importance, as the implication is that a respondent does not especially wish to work in a particular post (or she would record "interested in the field", rather than "only job available"). There is also a further possibility: fields with more posts to offer (such as the field of child and family welfare, where respondents report most employment) may recruit a larger proportion of respondents who do not particularly want to work there, but who require a job. This would have consequences for occupational mobility away from these fields (as and when a preferable job becomes available), and also for occupational wastage.

Fourthly and fifthly, respondents are influenced in choosing jobs by two factors potentially related to their gender, and to the wife-

mother role that they may carry. Suitable working hours influences 13.13% of jobs accepted (26 jobs), and the availability of locum tenens posts influences 11.11% of jobs accepted (22 jobs).

The sixth and seventh most important influences on job choice arise out of the high professional standards of some social work agencies. Scope for a high standard of service influences 6.06% of jobs accepted (12 jobs), while better non-physical working conditions influences a further 3.03% of jobs accepted (6 jobs).

Thereafter, a number of lesser factors are reported to influence job choice: moving to a more senior post (4 jobs, or 2.02% of all jobs accepted); convenience for travel (4 jobs, or 2.02% of all jobs accepted); liking for agency personnel (3 jobs, or 1.52% of all jobs accepted); wanting a change (2 jobs, or 1.01% of all jobs accepted); and finally, a single respondent who has to take a particular job because she had received an undergraduate study bursary (0.51% of all jobs accepted).

Six trends can be established from the foregoing data:-

Firstly, interest plays the major part in choice of jobs. As the primary meaning which respondents attach to "interesting work" is work which gives them "personal satisfaction", an implication is that the major motivation in job choice is not related to long-term career goals, but concerns a personal gratification that the worker hopes to get from her work.

Secondly, "good" salary motivates less than one-fifth of jobs accepted by respondents. Although this could imply that respondents do not set great store by financial reward, it could also indicate that there is a relative uniformity in the financial remuneration received by social workers.

Thirdly, the desire (or the opportunity) to work in an agency with a high standard of professional practice is a minor influence on job choice. "Scope for a high standard of service" influences only 6.06% of jobs accepted, and "better non-physical working conditions" influences only 3.03%.

Fourthly, influences on job choice that are potentially related to respondents' home roles do not play a major part in job acceptance. "Suitable working hours" influences 13.13% of jobs accepted, while the "availability of locum tenens posts" motivates only 11.11% of jobs accepted. An explanation for the relatively small part family-oriented factors seem to play in job choice may lie in the fact that of the 198 jobs accepted by respondents, 79 were first jobs. It could be anticipated that in their first jobs, when respondents have just graduated from University, family-related factors might be of lesser importance.

Fifthly, just under one-fifth of all jobs are accepted because they are the "only jobs available", despite a shortage of social workers from the 1950's to the present time. This may be related to 79 of the 198 jobs accepted being first jobs. It can be suggested that social work posts are hardest to get at the end of each year, when the labour market is flooded with new graduates produced by the

universities. If this is so, then it could be expected that more first jobs than second or subsequent jobs would be accepted on the grounds that no others are available.

Sixthly, respondents move to a more senior post in only 2.02% of all jobs accepted. This may indicate a lack of career-orientation in respondents, but it could also imply a shortage of senior jobs of the type that respondents desire.

3. Major fields of social work employment, and factors that influence respondents to accept jobs in these fields

Three reasons prompt an analysis of reasons for job choice by fields of social work employment. Firstly, it is important to know whether or not individual fields of social work hold out particular gratifications to social workers. Secondly, it is helpful to establish whether or not there are definite patterns that influence job choice in all fields. Thirdly, an analysis of this nature is the first step for a later field-by-field comparison of the relationship between reasons for job choice, average length of job, and reasons for job termination.

Table XXV, overleaf, contains an analysis of influences upon respondents' job choice, by fields of social work. As respondents are often influenced by more than one reason in choosing a job, horizontal percentage totals are generally in excess of 100%.

TABLE XXV

FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK, AND FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB ACCEPTANCE IN THESE FIELDS

Field of Social Work	Total No. of jobs in this field	FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE ACCEPTANCE OF SOCIAL WORK JOBS No. and % of jobs in this field influenced by the following factors:																										Total No. of influencing factors on job acceptance in this field
		Interest in field		Good Salary		Suitable working hours		Only available		Liked Agency Personnel		Scope for a high standard of service		Wanted a change		More Senior Post		More Prestigious field		Locum Tenens Post		Better working conditions (non-Physical		Convenient for travel		Required to take post, as study bursary had been received		
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Aged	9	2	22	3	33	2	22	1	11	1	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	33	-	-	-	-	-	-	12
Alcoholism	7	4	57	-	-	1	14	1	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	29	-	-	8
Child and Family	68	39	57	11	16	10	15	20	29	-	-	5	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	6	9	1	1	-	-	-	-	95
Community	5	1	20	2	40	2	40	1	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	20	-	-	7
Department of Social Welfare & Pensions	16	12	75	4	25	1	6	2	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	6	1	6	21
Housing	4	-	-	2	50	-	-	1	25	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Industry	2	2	100	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Legal Aid	1	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Medicine	28	16	57	8	29	3	11	3	11	1	4	4	14	1	4	1	4	-	-	4	14	1	4	-	-	-	-	42
Prisoners	13	6	46	-	-	2	15	4	31	1	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	15
Psychiatric	20	17	85	2	10	1	5	-	-	-	-	1	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	10	1	5	-	-	-	-	24
Physical Disability	11	6	55	-	-	1	9	3	27	-	-	1	9	-	-	1	9	-	-	1	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	13
Recreation	5	4	80	3	60	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7
School	1	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Social Work Education	8	2	25	1	13	2	25	-	-	-	-	1	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	50	3	38	-	-	-	-	13
TOTALS:-	198	111	-	38	-	26	-	36	-	3	-	12	-	2	-	4	-	2	-	22	-	6	-	4	-	1	-	267

Table XXV is capable of examination horizontally (to assess reasons for job choice in a particular field), or vertically (to assess the incidence of a particular factor on job choice in one field, with its incidence in other fields).

Of the 15 fields of social work in which respondents have employment, only six fields have more than ten jobs recorded: child and family welfare; the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, medical social work, social work with prisoners, psychiatric social work and social work with the physically disabled. Because of the larger numbers of jobs in these fields, it is possible to compare the major reasons for job choice in each of them. On the other hand, the lesser number of jobs accepted in the remaining nine fields makes it difficult to identify trends in job choice.

Of the six major fields of employment, most jobs are chosen in the field of child and family welfare. Respondents record 95 reasons for accepting 68 positions in this field. The major influence upon job choice is interest, which is active in 57% of jobs accepted, but a large proportion of jobs (29%) are taken because they are the only jobs available. Other important reasons for job choice are good salaries (16% of jobs); suitable working hours (15% of jobs); the availability of locum tenens posts (9% of jobs); and scope for a high standard of service (7% of jobs). In addition, there are other minor influences on job choice.

Respondents record 21 reasons for choosing 16 jobs in the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. Interest in the field is the major reason for choice of jobs (75% of jobs). Other

influences upon job choice are good salary (25% of jobs), and the Department's post being the only position available (13% of jobs). No other reason for job choice is active in more than 6% of jobs accepted.

The field of medical social work is the second most popular field of employment. Respondents report 28 jobs, and 42 reasons for job choice. As in the previous two fields, the most important reason for job choice is interest in the field, which influences the acceptance of 57% of jobs. Other major influences are good salary (29% of jobs), the availability of locum tenens posts (14% of jobs), scope for a high standard of service (14% of jobs), suitable working hours (11% of jobs), and the field having the only jobs available (11% of jobs). No other reason for job choice is active in more than 4% of jobs accepted.

In the field of social work with prisoners, respondents record 15 reasons for accepting 13 posts. The major reason for choosing jobs is interest, which influences 46% of jobs accepted. However, a high proportion (31%) of jobs in this field are accepted because they are the only jobs available. To a lesser extent, other reasons for job choice are suitable working hours (15% of jobs), the availability of locum tenens posts (15% of jobs), and a liking for agency personnel (8% of jobs).

The field of psychiatric social work is the third most popular field of employment. Respondents report 20 jobs in this field, with 24 reasons for their acceptance. A very large proportion of jobs accepted (85%) are influenced by interest in psychiatric social

work, and other reasons for job choice are of lesser importance. Good salary and the availability of locum tenens posts each influence 10% of jobs accepted; while suitable working hours, scope for a high standard of service, and better non-physical working conditions, each influence 5% of jobs accepted.

Finally, respondents record 13 reasons for choosing 11 positions in the field of social work with the physically disabled. Interest is the major reason for job choice (55% of jobs), but 27% of all jobs are accepted because they are the only jobs available. Other lesser reasons for job choice, each active in 9% of jobs accepted, are suitable working hours, scope for a high standard of service, the availability of locum tenens posts, and moving to a more senior position.

Four trends emerge from the above data:-

Firstly, "interest" is the prime reason for job choice in every major field of employment. It is most influential in the field of psychiatric social work, where it motivates the acceptance of 85% of all jobs. A partial explanation for this finding may be that psychiatric social work is a prestigious field, which attracts social workers eager to work in the psychiatric setting. Interest is least influential in the field of social work with prisoners, where it motivates the acceptance of only 46% of all jobs. This finding is difficult to explain. However, it can be speculated that some social workers may regard work with prisoners and their families as an unattractive prospect.

Secondly, in three fields of social work (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, medical social work, and psychiatric social work) the second most important influence on job choice is "good salary". This suggests that salaries may be better when the employer is the State (as in the case of the Department) or the Province (as in many medical social work posts). In the field of psychiatric social work, however, although "good salary" is the second most important influence on job choice, it influences the acceptance of only one job in ten.

Thirdly, in three fields of social work (child and family welfare, social work with prisoners, and social work with the physically disabled), the second most important influence on job choice is that jobs are "the only jobs available". It is of note that these three fields are also the fields with the smallest proportion of jobs chosen because of "interest". No clear explanation emerges for this finding, but it can be speculated that some social workers may not find these fields appealing. Alternatively, the three fields may have a larger proportion of first jobs, in which case it might be expected that more jobs are taken because they are the only ones available.

Finally, besides the three reasons of "interest", "good salary" and jobs being "the only jobs available", no single reason influences more than 15% of all jobs accepted in any of the six major fields of employment.

It is difficult to identify reliable job acceptance trends in fields of minor employment. Nevertheless, two tentative patterns can be noted. The first is that respondents report the availability of locum tenens posts to influence 50% of jobs accepted in social work

education, and 33% of posts in the field of the aged. In the case of social work education, locum tenens posts become available as a result of long leave, unestablished posts, and posts which require personnel at only one period of the academic year. The convenience of academic working hours, and the frequent co-incidence of academic and school vacations, may make locum tenens post in this field attractive to married women social workers. In the field of the aged, temporary and locum posts can become available in social clubs for the aged and in other programmes where work can be of a short-term character and take place at times convenient to the married woman (i.e. during mornings). A second point of note also concerns social work education. Of all posts accepted in this field, 38% are influenced by the prospect of "better non-physical working conditions". This may indicate that, in comparison to agency practice, the field of social work education allows for higher professional standards.

4. Factors that influence respondents to terminate social work jobs.

Respondents report 204 reasons for resigning from 177 social work posts. These reasons are analysed in Table XXVI, overleaf.

Table XXVI reflects a classification of reasons for resignation into four main categories: Category A (family-oriented factors); Category B (job dissatisfactions); Category C (specific reasons that cannot be classified into Categories A or B); and Category D (no reason specified).

TABLE XXVI

TOTAL NUMBER OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE RESPONDENTS TO TERMINATE SOCIAL WORK JOBS

	Factor influencing termination of job	No. of job terminations where this factor is influential on job termination		% of job terminations where this factor is influential on job termination	% of all job termination factors reported by respondents
Category A: Family-oriented Influencing Factors	Transfer of husband/family	34	89	19.21	43.63
	Pregnancy	36		20.34	
	Marriage	18		10.17	
	Other family reasons	1		0.56	
Category B: Influencing Factors Associated with Work Dissatisfaction	More interested in another field	9	57	5.08	27.94
	Dissatisfied: working hours & overtime	8		4.52	
	Dissatisfied: salary inadequate	12		6.78	
	Dissatisfied: no opportunity for professional advancement	2		1.13	
	Dissatisfied: unable to practice social work of a high standard	8		4.52	
	Dissatisfied: poor working conditions (non-physical)	8		4.52	
	Dissatisfied with staff relationships	5		2.82	
	Dissatisfied with social work - consider it palliative	3		1.69	
	Dissatisfied with social work - find it depressing	2		1.13	
Category C: Other specific Influencing Factors	To run own business	1	53	0.56	25.98
	Further study	7		3.95	
	Position come to an end (Locum tenens)	23		12.99	
	Extended holiday/travel	21		11.86	
	Illness	1		0.56	
Category D: unspecified	Unspecified	5		2.82	2.45
	TOTALS	204		115.21% *	100.00%

N of jobs terminated = 177

* Total exceeds 100% as respondents often give more than one reason for job-termination

Of all the groups of influencing factors, family-oriented factors are the most common reasons for resignation (89 reasons, or 43.63% of all reasons). Most frequently reported is pregnancy, followed by the transfer of husband/family, marriage, and "other family reasons", in that order.

Job dissatisfactions are the second most important cause of resignation. They account for 57 reasons for resignation, or 27.94% of all reasons.

Included in Category B are dissatisfactions with working hours, salary, lack of opportunity for professional advancement, lack of opportunity to practice social work of a high standard, poor non-physical working conditions, and unsatisfactory staff relationships. Also included are respondents' dissatisfactions in finding social work either palliative or depressing, and their becoming "more interested" in another field. The rationale for the latter factors's inclusion in Category B merits explanation. It is assumed that "more interest" in another field of social work implies that the respondent's interest in her present field of social work is either diminished, or unsatisfied. Influencing factors in Category B, therefor, can be viewed as "push" factors - dissatisfactions about present jobs which push respondents away from jobs, to seek other social work positions.

The third most influential group of reasons for resignation are those included in Category C (factors which cannot be categorised into Categories A or B). Reasons included in this category are of a heterogeneous nature. Some can definitely be viewed as "pull" factors (or outside influences which pull the respondent away from her

present job to some other activity). Examples of these are "extended holidays and travel", or "further study". Other factors in the category may be thought of as either "push" or "pull" in their influence. An example is "leaving to run own business", which may represent the challenge of running a business ("pull"), or conversely, a dissatisfaction with some aspect of social work ("push"). Also included in Category C are two neutral factors which represent neither push nor pull influences - positions coming to an end (including locum posts), and illness. The 53 factors included in Category C account for 25.98% of all reasons for resignation.

The final category, Category D, consists of the five instances of resignation where no reason is given.

An examination of the data contained in Table XXVI reveals four trends:-

Firstly, family-oriented reasons are the major cause of resignation. Of the five most influential individual reasons, four can be described as directly or indirectly related to respondents' family responsibilities, and to their roles as wives or mothers. The four reasons are pregnancy, transfer of husband/family, positions coming to an end (locum tenens posts), and marriage. They influence 20.34%, 19.21%, 12.99% and 10.17% of all job terminations, respectively. The reason "locum tenens posts coming to an end" has an indirect family orientation: it can be suggested that locum tenens posts will tend to attract the social worker who is not the sole family breadwinner, that is to say, the married female social worker.

Secondly, more than one-quarter of all reasons for resignation concern dissatisfaction with the job terminated. On the one hand, this might indicate a low standard of agency practice; but on the other hand, it might indicate that respondents make high work satisfaction demands. It is of note, however, that no single job dissatisfaction has influence upon more than 12 resignations, or 6.78% of all resignations.

Thirdly, a relatively large proportion (11.86%) of jobs are terminated for "extended holidays and travel". The tendency in respondents to undertake extended holidays has been discussed in the preceding chapter.

Fourthly, a notable feature of respondents' reasons for resignation is the minor part played by some career-oriented influences. For example, only 2 jobs(or 1.13% of jobs) are terminated because respondents have no opportunity for professional advancement (i.e. promotion), and in no case does any respondent state that she terminates a job in order to accept a more senior post elsewhere.

It is interesting to compare factors that influence job acceptance, and factors that influence job termination. Table XXIV, supra, reflects reasons for respondents' choice of jobs, while Table XXVI, supra, shows their reasons for resignation.

The most important trend, in a comparison of reasons for taking and leaving social work positions, is the greater influence of factors that are directly family-oriented on job termination.

In their choice of social work jobs, respondents are affected to a slight degree by indirect family influences. For example, they report "suitable working hours" to influence the choice of 13.13% of all jobs, and the availability of locum tenens posts to influence the choice of 11.11% of all jobs. On the other hand, direct family influences play a large part in their job termination: pregnancy, transfer of husband/family, marriage and "other family reasons" form 43.63% of all reasons for resignation. In addition, potentially family-related factors are present in job termination: dissatisfaction with working hours influences 4.52% of all resignations, and locum tenens posts coming to an end are responsible for 12.99% of all resignations.

The main reasons for job choice are thus different from the principal reasons for job termination: in job choice, respondents are most influenced by interest in a field of social work, good salary, and jobs being the only jobs available; while in job termination, they are most influenced by factors associated with their family responsibilities.

5. Major fields of social work employment, and factors that influence respondents to terminate jobs in these fields

Table XXVII, overleaf, reflects reasons for job termination, by fields of social work employment. As in the case of the earlier Table XXVI, Table XXVII includes the classification of reasons into four categories.

TABLE XXVII

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE RESPONDENTS TO TERMINATE SOCIAL WORK JOBS, BY FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK

FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK	FACTORS INFLUENCING JOB TERMINATION: No. of times each factor is reported in this field of social work; division of factors into categories; proportionate influence of each category on termination.																							No of Jobs Terminated in this Field	No of Reasons for Job Termination in this Field
	CATEGORY A					CATEGORY B										CATEGORY C						CATEGORY D			
	Family Oriented Factors (No.)				% Category A factors of all factors influencing job termination in this field	Job-Dissatisfaction Factors (No.)									% Category B factors of all factors influencing job termination in this field	Specific Factors that cannot be included in Categories A or B (No.)					% Category C factors of all factors influencing job termination in this field	No Factor Specified (No.)	% Category D factors of all factors influencing job termination in this field		
	Transfer of husband/family	Pregnancy	Marriage	Other family reasons		More interested in another field	Dissatisfied: working hours and overtime	Dissatisfied: inadequate salary	Dissatisfied: no opportunity for advancement	Dissatisfied: unable to practice high-standard social work	Dissatisfied: unsatisfactory non-physical working conditions	Dissatisfied with staff relationships	Dissatisfied: consider social work palliative	Dissatisfied: consider social work depressing		To run own business	Further study	Position at end(locum tenens)	Extended holidays/travel	Illness		Unspecified			
Aged	0	1	1	0	25.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	12.50	0	0	3	0	0	37.50	2	25.00	8	8
Alcoholism	2	1	0	0	50.00	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	16.67	0	0	0	2	0	33.33	0	-	5	6
Child and Family	11	8	7	0	35.62	5	4	6	0	4	4	2	2	0	36.98	0	0	7	11	1	26.03	1	1.37	60	73
Community	0	0	1	0	25.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	50.00	0	1	0	0	0	25.00	0	-	3	4
Dept. of Social Welfare & Pensions	3	5	6	0	73.68	0	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	26.32	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	16	19
Housing	1	0	1	0	50.00	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	25.00	0	0	0	1	0	25.00	0	-	4	4
Industry	1	1	0	0	100.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	2	2
Legal Aid	0	1	0	0	100.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	1	1
Medical	7	6	1	0	48.27	3	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	17.24	1	1	4	3	0	31.04	1	3.45	28	29
Prisoners	3	3	1	1	53.33	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	20.00	0	0	3	1	0	26.67	0	-	13	15
Psychiatric	3	4	0	0	35.00	0	0	0	1	2	2	0	0	0	25.00	0	5	2	0	0	35.00	1	5.00	15	20
Physical disability	1	4	0	0	38.46	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	2	38.46	0	0	1	2	0	23.08	0	-	10	13
Recreation	1	1	0	0	33.33	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	33.33	0	0	1	1	0	33.33	0	-	5	6
School	0	1	0	0	100.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	1	1
Social work education	1	0	0	0	33.33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	2	0	0	66.67	0	-	3	3
TOTALS	34	36	18	1	-	9	8	12	2	8	8	5	3	2	-	1	7	23	21	1	-	5	-	1[illegible]	204

Three issues prompt an analysis of reasons for job termination by fields of social work. Firstly, it is important to establish whether or not persistent dissatisfactions occur in any particular social work field. Secondly, it is helpful to know whether or not there are common patterns in job termination throughout all major fields of employment. Thirdly, an analysis of this nature prepares the ground for a later field-by-field comparison of the relationship between reasons for job choice, average length of jobs, and reasons for job termination.

Table XXVII shows that of the 15 fields of social work in which respondents terminate jobs, nine fields have 8 or fewer job terminations each. These nine fields correspond to the fields in which respondents accept fewest jobs. Because of the small number of job terminations in each of these latter fields, it is difficult to identify reliable trends. On the other hand, six fields of social work have between 10 and 60 job terminations per field: child and family welfare, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, medical social work, psychiatric social work, social work with prisoners, and social work with the physically disabled. Job termination in these latter fields lends itself to analysis, as the number of jobs terminated in each field is sufficient for patterns to be observed.

Respondents report 60 job terminations in the field of <u>child and family</u> welfare. This field is remarkable as it is the only one of the six major fields of employment where, in leaving jobs, respondents give more reasons related to job dissatisfaction than family-oriented reasons (36.98% of all reasons for resignation, as compared to 35.62% of all reasons respectively). A further 26.03% of all reasons for

resignation fall into Category C (including locum tenens posts coming to an end, extended holidays and travel, and illness), and 1.37% of influencing factors are unspecified.

The importance of the field of child and family welfare, and its central position in the community welfare structure of South Africa, lends particular value to an examination of reasons for job termination in this field. Of special interest are the job dissatisfaction, or "push" factors. The most prevalent dissatisfaction reported by respondents is with inadequate salary, followed by becoming "more interested" in another field of social work. Thereafter, respondents report dissatisfaction with working hours/overtime, inability to practice high-standard social work, non-physical working conditions, poor staff relationships, and a belief that social work is "palliative".

It is interesting that among the respondent group as a whole, only three positions are terminated because, or partly because, respondents find their work position (or social work generally), "palliative". Two of the three positions thus terminated are in the field of child and family welfare.

It would be unwise to draw any conclusions, however tentative, about this latter finding. Nevertheless, two suggestions can be made. The first is that some respondents may find their jobs "palliative" because of the heavy caseloads which characterise South African child and family welfare work: the weight of numbers can restrict the amount of "in-depth" social work that is possible. A second suggestion is that the field of child and family welfare may be the most frequent field of first employment for respondents. If this is so, some new

workers may experience "reality shock" when they compare the ideals of training with the realities of practice, and may decide that social work is palliative. The first jobs of respondents are discussed in the following chapter.

The field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions shows a very different pattern of job termination from that of child and family welfare. Sixteen jobs are terminated in the Department, and 73.68% of the reasons for resignation are family-oriented, principally marriage and pregnancy. The remaining 26.32% of reasons for resignation are concerned with various work dissatisfactions. The most prevalent dissatisfaction is with working hours and overtime, and to a lesser extent, dissatisfaction is reported with inadequate salary and non-physical working conditions.

Two suggestions can be made about the pattern of job termination in this field. The first is that the Department, as the only Central Government social work agency in which respondents report employment, may offer above-average conditions of service, so that workers might tend to leave for reasons other than particular work dissatisfactions. The second suggestion, supported by a stronger factual basis, is that respondents leave jobs for family reasons in this field because they have to leave them: until July 1963, the Department did not employ married women social workers as permanent staff members.

Respondents terminate 28 jobs in the field of medical social work. In this field, 48.27% of all reasons for resignation are of a family-oriented nature, and only 17.24% of reasons relate to job dissatisfaction. The most prevalent family-oriented reason is the transfer of husband/

family, and not pregnancy or marriage. Of specific job dissatisfactions, the most common is that of respondents becoming "more interested in another field of social work", followed by dissatisfaction with salary and with an inability to practice high-standard social work. A sizeable proportion of job termination in medical social work is influenced by Category C factors. Locum tenens posts coming to an end, extended holidays and travel, further study, and leaving to run a business together account for 31.14% of all reasons for resignation. In addition, one respondent does not specify why she leaves a job in this field.

The pattern of job termination in the field of social work with prisoners is similar to that of the medical field: 53.33% of all reasons are family-oriented, 20.00% concern dissatisfaction with posts terminated, and 26.67% concern either locum tenens posts coming to an end, or extended holidays and travel. Although overall patterns are similar, the prominence of individual reasons for resignation differs. This is particularly apparent in job dissatisfactions. In the field of social work with prisoners, the three job dissatisfactions reported are with an inability to do high-standard social work, non-physical working conditions, and staff relationships.

Respondents report leaving 18 positions in psychiatric social work. Of all major fields, psychiatric social work shows, proportionally, the least amount of family-oriented influence on job termination: only 35% of all reasons for resignation are family-oriented, with the most prevalent reason being pregnancy. A further 25% of reasons for resignation in this field concern dissatisfaction with jobs terminated, particularly dissatisfaction with an inability to do high-standard

social work, poor non-physical working conditions, and a lack of opportunity for professional advancement. Category C factors (leaving for further study, and locum tenens jobs ending) account for a further 35% of reasons for resignation. Finally, one respondent leaves a post in the psychiatric field without specifying a reason.

The significance of "further study" as a reason for leaving jobs in the psychiatric field merits comment. Of the five respondents who leave the psychiatric social work for this reason, four were working in Britain, and were required to obtain a specialised qualification to advance in the field. Nevertheless, it is of note that on the 7 occasions when respondents leave jobs for further study, in five instances they are in the psychiatric field. Perhaps this emphasis on further study may be due to the psychiatric field's reputation as a particularly skilled area of social work[1], but it may also be due to a norm in the psychiatric field generally: most members of the psychiatric team, be they medical doctors, psychologists, or therapists of various kinds, normally have a specialist qualification in addition to their basic professional education.

The last major field of employment, that of <u>social work with the physically disabled</u>, has 10 job terminations reported by respondents. Family-oriented reasons and job dissatisfactions each account for 38.46% of all reasons for resignation. The remaining 23.08% of reasons consist of locum tenens positions coming to an end, and extended holidays and travel.

In the field of social work with the physically disabled, job dissatisfactions form a greater proportion of all reasons for

resignation than in any other major field of employment. Bearing in mind that this field has the least amount of employment and job termination of all major fields (and that "trends" in this field may be less reliable), it is nevertheless helpful to examine the nature of the job dissatisfactions that cause resignation. One job is terminated because no opportunity for professional advancement exists, two jobs are terminated on account of inadequate salary, and two jobs are terminated as respondents find social work "depressing". The field of social work with the physically disabled is the only field in which respondents report this latter reason for leaving posts. A possible explanation for this finding may be the emotional impact of perceptible physical disability or disfigurement, or the (relative) lack of sophistication of some South African resources for the physically disabled, particularly non-white disabled persons.

Four trends can be established from the foregoing examination:-

Firstly, in 4 of the 6 major fields of employment, family-oriented reasons are the major causes of resignation. The exceptions are the fields of child and family welfare, and physical disability.

Secondly, job dissatisfactions influence from 38.46% to 17.24% of jobs terminated in each of the six major fields of employment.

Thirdly, in 5 of the 6 major fields of employment, from 35.00% to 26.03% of all reasons for resignation are unrelated to either family responsibilities or to job dissatisfactions.

Fourthly, job dissatisfaction reasons for resignation differ from field to field. Suggestions can be made to account for many of the

differences, but firm conclusions cannot be drawn.

6. The relationship between reasons for job choice, average length jobs, and reasons for job termination.

Is there any relationship between reasons for job choice, average length of job, and reasons for job termination? For example, when respondents choose jobs because they are interested in a field of social work, will they remain in their jobs longer, and be less likely to leave on account of job dissatisfaction? Conversely, when respondents accept jobs because they are "the only jobs available", will they work for a shorter period, and be more likely to leave because they are dissatisfied?

Answers to these questions may prove helpful in understanding social workers' work patterns. A convenient way to examine the questions posed is to take respondents' major fields of social work employment, and to compare three sets of variables in each field, namely:-

(1) Principal reasons for job choice (Table XXV, supra);

(2) Average length of jobs (Table XI, supra);

(3) The influence of job dissatisfactions on job termination (Table XXVII, supra).

The three main reasons for job choice are "interest in a field of social work", jobs being "the only jobs available" (the converse of "interest"), and "good salary".

(i) Interest in a field of social work

Table XXVIII, overleaf, shows the relationship between "interest" in job choice, average length of job, and the influence of job dissatisfactions on resignation, by major fields of social work employment.

The table shows that in four fields (psychiatric, child and family, physical disability, and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions), the greater the influence of "interest" in job choice, the longer average length of job becomes. Similarly, the greater the influence of "interest" in job choice, the less the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignations.

There is an irregular but identifiable relationship between the three variables in each of the four fields. Of the four fields, the two with the highest proportion of job choice influenced by interest (psychiatric social work and the Department), also have the lowest rate of resignation influenced by job dissatisfaction, and the longest average length of job. Conversely, of the four fields, the two with the least proportion of job choice influenced by interest (child and family welfare, and physical disability), also have the highest rate of resignation influenced by job dissatisfaction, and the shortest average length of job.

At first sight, the two remaining major fields of employment (medical social work, and social work with prisoners) do not follow the pattern evinced in the first four fields.

TABLE XXVIII

RESPONDENTS' SIX MAJOR FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK EMPLOYMENT: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACCEPTANCE OF POSTS BECAUSE OF A SPECIFIC INTEREST IN A FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK, AVERAGE LENGTH OF JOB, AND JOB DISSATISFACTIONS INFLUENCING JOB TERMINATION

Field of Social Work	% of all jobs accepted in this field where a specific interest in the field is an influencing factor	% of all influences on job termination in this field where a specific job dissatisfaction is influential in termination *	Average length of all jobs in this field (Months)
Psychiatric	85	25.00	15.35
Dept. of Social Welfare & Pensions	75	26.32	27.00
Medical	57	17.24	15.94
Child and Family	57	36.98	13.00
Physical disability	55	38.46	11.09
Prisoners	46	20.00	13.96

* "Specific job dissatisfaction" refers to all job dissatisfactions listed in Category B of Table XXVII supra.

Source of data for Table XXVIII: Table XI, supra. ; Table XXV, supra. ; Table XXVII supra.

In the field of medical social work, the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation is the least of any field (17.24%), yet only 57% of job choice was motivated by interest. In the field of social work with prisoners, the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation is low (20%), yet only 46% of job choice was motivated by interest.

An examination of Table XXVII, supra, provides a possible explanation for this anomaly: in the two fields of medical social work and social work with prisoners, the major reason for resignation (other than family-oriented or job dissatisfaction reasons) is locum tenens posts coming to an end. In cases where locum tenens posts are completed, respondents give only this reason for termination. In consequence, the influence of Category C factors on termination is increased, while the influence of family-oriented and job-dissatisfaction factors is decreased.

In the light of the foregoing explanation, it can be suspected that when respondents are influenced by "interest" in job choice, their length of job will be longer. Similarly, when they are influenced by "interest" in job choice, they will be less likely to resign because of job dissatisfaction.

(ii) Jobs being "the only jobs available"

One of the three principal reasons for job choice is that of jobs being "the only jobs available". It can be suggested that taking posts for this reason implies a lack of "interest in a field of social work". If this is so, then it could be expected that where jobs are chosen because they are the only available vacancies, average length of job might be shorter, and job dissatisfaction might play a greater part in resignation.

Table XXIX, overleaf, sets out the relationship between "jobs being the only jobs available" when posts are accepted, average length of job, and the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation, by major fields of social work employment.

The tabulation shows that the fields with the largest proportion of jobs accepted because they are "the only jobs available" are social work with prisoners, with children and families, and with the physically disabled. These three fields also have the shortest average length of job, and, with the exception of social work with prisoners, the greatest incidence of job dissatisfaction in resignation. In the field of social work with prisoners, only 20% of all reasons for resignation concern job dissatisfaction. However, the low incidence of job dissatisfaction in resignations from this latter field can be explained by an earlier observation: the field has a high proportion of locum tenens posts.

TABLE XXIX

RESPONDENTS' SIX MAJOR FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK EMPLOYMENT: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACCEPTANCE OF POSTS BECAUSE THEY ARE THE ONLY POSTS AVAILABLE, AVERAGE LENGTH OF JOB, AND DISSATISFACTIONS INFLUENCING JOB TERMINATION

Field of Social Work	% of all jobs accepted in this field where the job was the only job available	% of all influences on job termination in this field where a specific job dissatisfaction is influential in termination *	Average length of all jobs in this field (Months)
Prisoners	31	20.00	13.96
Child and family welfare	29	36.98	13.00
Physical disability	27	38.46	11.09
Dept. of Social Welfare & Pensions	13	26.32	27.00
Medical	11	17.24	15.94
Psychiatric	0	25.00	15.35

* "Specific job dissatisfaction" refers to all job dissatisfactions listed in Category B of Table XXVII, supra.

Source of data for Table XXIX: Table XI, supra. ; Table XXV, supra. ; Table XXVII, supra.

Table XXIX also lends support to the converse of the above finding. The three fields with fewest jobs chosen because they are "the only jobs available" are the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, medical social work and psychiatric social work. These fields have the longest average length of job, and the least incidence of job dissatisfaction in resignation.

Thus, it can be suspected that when respondents accept posts because they are the "only jobs available", their average length of job is shorter, and job dissatisfaction plays a larger part in resignation.

(iii) Good salary

One of the three major reasons for job choice is "good salary". When Tables XXV, XI, and XXVII are analysed, no relationship is apparent between the influence of "good salary" in job choice, average length of job, and the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation.

This section must be concluded with a note of caution. Too many uncontrolled variables exist for any definite conclusions to be drawn about the relationship between reasons for job choice, average length of job, and the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation. For example, uncontrolled variables include different standards of practice in different social work fields, and even between agencies in the same field; resignations caused by family-related reasons, which will affect the incidence of job dissatisfactions on resignation; age; and whether jobs are first or subsequent jobs in social work.

Indeed, the analysis so bristles with uncontrolled variables that "findings" can only be viewed as "suspicions".

7. Age and occupational mobility

One measure of the relationship between age and occupational mobility is the proportion of respondents who resign from jobs at each year of age. This measure has been used in Table XXX, overleaf, which reflects the relationship between respondents' age and their occupational mobility, by five year age groups. The tabulation also shows the influence of various reasons for resignation in each of the five-year age ranges.

One preliminary note must be made about Table XXX. The tabulation shows the number of potential working years of all respondents since qualification as social workers as 773 years (9276 months); while Table IX, supra, shows the potential working years of all respondents as 730 years (8760 months). Table IX is constructed using the month as the unit of measurement, and includes potential service up to 30th June, 1970. Table XXX, on the other hand, is constructed using the year as the unit of measurement, as the purpose of the tabulation is to relate age and occupational mobility. In Table XXX, the year 1970 is therefor taken as a full year for the purposes of the tabulation, and not as a half year. As there are 86 respondents, the difference between the potential working years of all respondents as set out in Tables IX and XXX, is 86 x 6 months, or 43 years.

TABLE XXX

AGE AND OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY

YEARS OF AGE of Respondents (5-year age groups)	No. of Potential Working Years Spent by Respondents in this Age Group after Qualification as Social Workers	No. of Job terminations by respondents in this age group	% of Respondents terminating a job in EACH YEAR of this age range (mean)	FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB TERMINATION: No. of times each factor is reported in this age group; division of factors into categories; proportionate influence of each category on termination																						
				CATEGORY A					CATEGORY B										CATEGORY C						CATEGORY D	
				Family-Oriented Factors (No.)				% Category A factors of all factors influencing job termination in this age group	Job Dissatisfaction Factors (No.)									% Category B factors of all factors influencing job termination in this age group	Specific Factors that cannot be included in categories A or B (No)					% Category C factors of all factors influencing job termination in this age group	No Factor Specified (No.)	% Category D factors of all factors influencing job termination in this age group
				Transfer of husband/family	Pregnancy	Marriage	Other family reasons		More interested in another field	Dissatisfied: Working hours and overtime	Dissatisfied: Inadequate salary	Dissatisfied: No opportunity for advancement	Dissatisfied: Unable to practice high-standard social work	Dissatisfied: unsatisfactory non-physical working conditions	Dissatisfied with staff relationships	Dissatisfied: consider social work palliative	Dissatisfied: consider social work depressing		To run own business	Further study	Position at end (locum tenens)	Extended holidays and travel	Illness		Unspecified	
20 to 24	247	94	38.05%	15	13	12	0	34.78	7	5	10	0	6	5	4	3	1	35.65	1	3	10	15	0	25.22	5	4.35
25 to 29	345	62	17.83%	13	22	4	0	58.22	2	3	1	1	2	3	1	0	1	20.89	0	4	5	5	0	20.89	0	0.00
30 to 34	140	10	7.14%	4	1	2	0	63.63	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	9.10	0	0	1	1	1	27.27	0	0.00
35 to 39	26	3	11.54%	0	0	0	1	33.33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	0	0	2	0	0	66.67	0	0.00
40 to 44	8	4	50.00%	2	0	0	0	50.00	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	25.00	0	0	1	0	0	25.00	0	0.00
45 to 49	7	4	57.14%	0	0	0	0	0.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	0	0	4	0	0	100.00	0	0.00
TOTAL	773	177	22.90%	34	36	18	1	43.63	9	8	12	2	8	8	5	3	2	27.94	1	7	23	21	1	25.98	5	2.45

(204 factors reported by respondents, influencing the termination of 177 social work posts)

Overall, the most striking trend revealed by Table XXX is the greater occupational mobility in the youngest age range of 20 to 24 years.

Respondents spend 247 actual or potential working years in this age range, and during this period terminate 94 jobs. The mean proportion of respondents changing their job in each year of the range is 38.05%. In other words, an average of more than one out of three respondents resign from their job each year.

In the next age range, that of 25 to 29 years, respondents have 345 potential working years. During this age range, 62 respondents terminate their jobs, providing a mean proportion of 17.83% of respondents who change their jobs in each year.

Just as occupational mobility decreases from the 20 to 24 year age range to the 25 to 29 year age range, so too does it decrease from the 25 to 29 year range to the 30 to 34 year range. In this latter range, respondents have a total of 140 potential working years, and during the period, 10 respondents terminate their jobs. The average proportion of respondents changing their jobs in each year of this age range is therefor 7.14%.

In the three upper age ranges (35 to 39 years, 40 to 44 years, and 45 to 49 years), a progressive increase in occupational mobility is apparent. The average proportion of respondents terminating their jobs in each year of these age ranges increases from 11.54% to 50.00%, and then to 57.14%. The reliability of these latter three figures should, however, be viewed with reservation. The number of potential

working years in each of the five-year groups decreases with age (26, 8 and 7 years, respectively), which means that in the last two age ranges, the working years of only two respondents are included. Occupational mobility figures for these age ranges may therefor be highly idiosyncratic.

An important question arises from the foregoing findings: Why does occupational mobility decrease from the 20 to 24 year age range, to the 30 to 34 year age range? A possible answer to this question can be found in an earlier finding of this study, where the relationship between age and occupational wastage was analysed. Table XIV, supra, shows that occupational wastage increases progressively from 40% of all respondents at the age of 20 years, to 92.85% of all respondents at the age of 34 years. In other words, the proportion of respondents in the field of social work steadily decreases from the 20 to 24 year age group to the 30 to 34 year age group. Thus, there are proportionally fewer respondents who can terminate jobs, as age increases up to 34 years.

Table XXX also contains an analysis of the reasons for job termination, by five year age groups of respondents. Reasons for resignation are classified into four categories: Category A (family-oriented factors); Category B (job dissatisfactions); Category C (specific reasons that cannot be classified into Categories A or B); and Category D (no reason specified). For the purposes of analysis, it is convenient to examine each category separately.

In contrasting the causes of occupational mobility within one age range with those in other age ranges, the two oldest age ranges

(40 to 44 years, and 45 to 49 years) will not be included. The small number of respondents falling into these latter age ranges heightens the possibility of invalid "trends" being identified.

(i) Family-oriented factors

As might be expected from earlier findings about occupational wastage, where it is known that the peak period of absence from the field of social work for pregnancy and child-rearing is the age range 27 to 32 years (Table XIV, supra), occupational mobility for family reasons steadily increases from the age range 20 to 24 years (34.78% of all reasons for resignation) to the age range 30 to 34 years (63.63% of all reasons for resignation). In the age range 35 to 39 years, occupational mobility for family reasons decreases (33.33% of all reasons for resignation).

In the lowest age range of 20 to 24 years, the most common family-oriented reason for resignation is the transfer of husband/family, followed by pregnancy, and then marriage. In the second age range (25 to 29 years), pregnancy becomes the most important reason, and is reported more often than all other family-oriented reasons combined. In the 30 to 34 year age range, the most common reason becomes the transfer of husband/family, followed by marriage and pregnancy. Finally, in the 35 to 39 year age range, only one family-oriented reason for resignation is reported: a respondent leaves her job to care for a sick relative.

(ii) Job dissatisfaction factors

A clear trend is apparent in the impact of job dissatisfactions on resignation: job dissatisfactions influence (proportionally) more resignations in the lowest age range, and become steadily less influential up to the age range 35 to 39 years. This phenomenon may be connected to the fact that most of respondents' first social work jobs take place in the lower age ranges. The reasons for resignation from first jobs are analysed in the following chapter.

In the age range 20 to 24 years, dissatisfactions comprise 35.65% of all reasons for resignation. Significantly, no respondent in this age range is dissatisfied with a lack of opportunity for "advancement". Perhaps beginning social workers are not extremely conscious of opportunities for promotion to more senior posts. The three dissatisfactions of most influence upon resignation are inadequate salary, a greater interest in another field, and an inability to practice social work of a high standard.

In the age range 25 to 29 years, dissatisfactions comprise 20.89% of all reasons for resignation. As in the preceding age range, specific job dissatisfactions cover all listed dissatisfactions, with one exception. In this case, the exception is that no respondent finds social work "palliative". The two most frequently reported dissatisfactions are with working hours and overtime, and with non-physical working conditions.

In the age range 30 to 34 years, dissatisfactions form 9.10% of all reasons for resignation. This figure represents one respondent's

resignation, caused by a lack of opportunity for advancement. Job dissatisfactions do not influence resignations in the 35 to 39 year age range.

(iii) Reasons for resignation that are neither family-oriented nor related to job dissatisfaction

Category C reasons as a whole do not show any definite relationship to age. Considering the heterogeneity of reasons in the category, however, this is not an unexpected finding.

In the 20 to 24 year age range, Category C factors comprise 25.22% of all reasons for resignation. The most common reason is leaving a job for an extended holiday, or to travel. Of the 21 occasions where this reason influences resignation, 15 instances are in the age range 20 to 24 years. Other Category C reasons for resignation in this age range are, in order of their importance, locum tenens positions coming to an end, further study, and leaving to run a business.

In the age range 25 to 29 years, Category C factors form 20.89% of all reasons for resignation. The most common reasons are extended holidays and travel, and locum tenens positions coming to an end. To a lesser extent, resignation is influenced by further study. It is of note that of the 7 instances where respondents resign in order to study further, 4 are in the age range 25 to 29 years.

In the 30 to 34 year age range, Category C factors form 27.27% of all reasons for resignation. Three specific reasons are reported, each influencing one resignation: a locum tenens post coming to an end, extended holidays and travel, and illness. In the age range 35 to 39 years, Category C factors form 66.67% of all reasons for resignation, and consist exclusively of two locum tenens positions coming to an end.

Finally, in addition to Category A, B and C reasons for resignation, Table XXX shows that five jobs are terminated without any reason being given. In all cases, the resignations occur in the 20 to 24 year age range.

In summary, four trends can be identified in the foregoing analysis of age and occupational mobility:-

Firstly, occupational mobility is greatest in the lowest age range of 20 to 24 years, when more than one in three respondents change their jobs each year.

Secondly, job termination for family-oriented reasons steadily increases from the age range 20 to 24 years, to the age range 30 to 34 years, where it is at its peak.

Thirdly, job termination brought about by job dissatisfaction is greatest in the age range 20 to 24 years.

Fourthly, most job termination caused by extended holidays and travel is in the age range 20 to 24 years; while most job termination for further study is in the age range 25 to 29 years.

8. High and low employment quotient groups: factors that influence job acceptance.

An earlier finding of this study is that respondents in the high EQ group have 96 jobs in social work, while respondents in the low EQ group have only 29 jobs (Table XXI, supra). This finding gives rise to a number of questions. For example, do respondents in the high and low EQ groups choose jobs for different reasons? Do they seek different gratifications from their work?

Table XXXI, overleaf, reflects the factors that influence job choice in the high and low EQ groups.

(i) The high EQ group

Respondents in the high EQ group give 136 reasons for choosing 96 jobs. The predominant reason for job choice is interest in a field of social work (which influences 54.17% of jobs accepted). Thereafter, four reasons influence between 21.88% and 10.42% of all jobs accepted: good salary (21.88%); a job being the only job available (17.71%); the availability of locum tenens posts (12.50%); and suitable working hours (10.42%). Finally, 8 other reasons are reported, each of which influences less than 10% of all jobs accepted.

(ii) The low EQ group

Respondents in the low EQ group give 39 reasons for choosing 29 jobs. As with the high EQ group, interest in a field of social work is the major reason for job choice. Interest influences 68.97% of

TABLE XXXI

HIGH AND LOW EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENT GROUPS: FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB ACCEPTANCE

FACTOR INFLUENCING JOB ACCEPTANCE	HIGH EQ. GROUP No. and % of job acceptances influenced by this factor (N of job acceptances = 96)		LOW EQ. GROUP No. and % of job acceptances influenced by this factor (N of job acceptances = 29)	
	No.	%	No.	%
Interest in a field of Social Work	52	54.17	20	68.97
Good salary	21	21.88	5	17.24
Suitable working hours	10	10.42	3	10.34
Only job available	17	17.71	5	17.24
Liked agency personnel	2	2.08	1	3.45
Scope in agency for a high standard of service	8	8.33	2	6.89
Wanted a change	1	1.04	0	0
More senior post	4	4.17	0	0
More prestigious field	2	2.08	0	0
Locum tenens post	12	12.50	3	10.34
Better non-physical working conditions	4	4.17	0	0
Convenient for travel	2	2.08	0	0
Required to take post - had received study bursary	1	1.04	0	0
TOTALS	136	141.67	39	134.47

all jobs accepted. Thereafter, four reasons are active in from 17.24% to 10.34% of all jobs chosen: good salary (17.24%); a job being the only one available (17.24%); the availability of locum tenens posts (10.34%) and suitable working hours (10.34%). Finally, two lesser reasons for job choice, each of influence in less than 10% of jobs accepted, are scope for a high standard of service, and a liking for agency personnel.

(iii) Comparison of high and low EQ groups

When reasons for job choice are compared, there are similarities and differences between the high and low EQ groups.

Firstly, both groups have the same five principal reasons for job choice.

Secondly, "interest in a field of social work" plays a greater part in the low EQ group's job acceptance, than in the high EQ group's (68.97%, as compared to 54.17%).

Thirdly, "good salary" plays a greater part in the high EQ group's job acceptance, than in the low EQ group's (21.88%, as compared to 17.24%).

Fourthly, the high EQ group give a greater variety of reasons for job choice. However, many of the additional reasons for job choice given by the high EQ group apply to the choice of second and subsequent jobs, not first jobs. For example: "wanted a change"; "more senior post"; "more prestigious field".

Fifthly, the availability of locum tenens posts is slightly more influential in high EQ group job acceptance.

One observation can be made that may throw light upon the foregoing findings. Proportionally more of the low EQ group jobs are first jobs in social work, and differences between the high and low EQ groups' reasons for job choice may be attributable to this fact. In the following chapter, reasons for the choice of first jobs are compared with reasons for the choice of second and subsequent jobs (Table XXXV , infra).

9. High and low employment quotient groups: factors that influence job termination.

An earlier finding of this study is that members of the high EQ group average 18.80 months in each job, while members of the low EQ group average only 6.88 months (Table XXI, supra). A number of questions immediately spring to mind from this finding. For example, are there any special reasons for job termination in the low EQ group? Are members of the low EQ group more prone to resignation as a result of job dissatisfaction?

Table XXXII, overleaf, reflects an analysis of reasons for job termination, by high and low EQ groups. As in earlier analyses of reasons for resignation, four categories are used: Category A (family-oriented influences); Category B (job dissatisfactions); Category C (specific reasons that cannot be classified in Categories A or B); and Category D (no reason specified).

TABLE XXXII

HIGH AND LOW EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENT GROUPS: FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB TERMINATION

	Factor influencing job termination	HIGH EQ. GROUP			LOW EQ. GROUP		
		No and % of job terminations where this factor is influential		% of all factors influencing job termination	No. and % of job terminations where this factor is influential		% of all factors influencing job termination
		No.	%		No.	%	
Category A: Family-oriented Influencing Factors	Transfer of husband/family	13	16.25	34.04	4	14.29	41.18
	Preganacy	12	15.00		5	17.86	
	Marriage	6	7.50		5	17.86	
	Other family reasons	1	1.25		0	0	
Category B: Influencing Factors Associated with Work Dissatisfaction	More interested in another field	6	7.50	32.98	1	3.57	35.29
	Dissatisfied: working hours & overtime	5	6.25		1	3.57	
	Dissatisfied: salary inadequate	6	7.50		3	10.71	
	Dissatisfied: no opportunity for professional advancement	2	2.50		0	0	
	Dissatisfied: unable to practice social work of a high standard	4	5.00		2	7.14	
	Dissatisfied: poor non-physical working conditions	6	7.50		1	3.57	
	Dissatisfied with staff relationships	1	1.25		1	3.57	
	Dissatisfied: consider social work palliative	1	1.25		1	3.57	
	Dissatisfied: feel social work to be depressing	0	0		2	7.14	
Category C: Other specific Influencing Factors	To run own business	0	0	29.79	0	0	20.59
	Further study	3	3.75		1	3.57	
	Position at end (Locum tenens)	12	15.00		5	17.86	
	Extended holiday/travel	12	15.00		1	3.57	
	Illness	1	1.25		0	0	
Category D: Unspecified	Unspecified	3	3.75	3.19	1	3.57	2.94
	TOTALS:	94	117.50	100.00%	34	121.42	100.00%

Number of Job Terminations:-

High EQ. Group = 80
Low EQ. Group = 28

Number of influencing factors reported in job termination:-

High EQ. Group = 94
Low EQ. Group = 34

(i) The high EQ group.

The high EQ group report 94 reasons for terminating 80 jobs. Family-oriented reasons are most prevalent, and form 34.04% of all reasons for resignation. The two most common individual reasons are the transfer of husband/family, and pregnancy, while to a lesser extent marriage and "other family reasons" are reported.

Job dissatisfactions account for a further 32.98% of all reasons for resignation. The most prevalent dissatisfactions result from workers becoming more interested in another field, inadequate salary, and poor non-physical working conditions. To a lesser extent, resignation is caused by dissatisfaction with working hours and overtime, an inability to practice high-standard social work, a lack of opportunity for professional advancement, staff relationships, and a conviction that "social work is palliative".

Category C factors account for 29.79% of all reasons for resignation. The two most influential reasons in this category are locum tenens positions coming to an end, and extended holidays and travel. Of lesser influence are further study, and illness. In addition to Category A, B and C reasons for resignation, 3 posts are terminated without a specific reason being reported.

(ii) The low EQ group

The low EQ group report 34 reasons for resigning from 28 jobs. Family-oriented reasons are most prevalent, and account for 41.18% of all reasons for job termination. Within this category, pregnancy

and marriage are the two most common reasons, while to a lesser extent, the transfer of husband/family is reported.

Job dissatisfactions are the second major influence on resignation, and constitute 35.29% of all reasons for job termination. The most common dissatisfactions are with salary, an inability to practice high-standard social work, and a feeling that social work is "depressing". To a lesser extent, resignation is caused by respondents becoming more interested in another field, a conviction that "social work is palliative", dissatisfaction with working hours and overtime, poor non-physical working conditions, and unsatisfactory staff relationships.

Category C factors form 20.59% of all reasons for resignation. The most common reason in this category is locum tenens positions coming to an end, but also reported are further study and extended holiday/travel. Finally, in addition to Category A, B, and C reasons for resignation, one post is terminated without a specific reason being given.

(iii) Comparison of high and low EQ groups

When reasons for resignation are compared, similarities and differences can be noted between the high and low EQ groups.

The principal similarity is that in both groups, family-oriented reasons are of most influence upon resignation, followed by job dissatisfactions, Category C factors and Category D factors, in that order.

However, despite this similarity, three differences can be identified:-

Firstly, family-oriented reasons for termination are more prevalent in the low EQ group than the high EQ group (41.18%, as compared to 34.04%).

When individual family-oriented reasons are compared, the most striking difference is the (proportionally) greater influence of "marriage" in the low EQ group (where 5, or 17.86% of all resignations are influenced by marriage, as compared to 6, or 7.50% of all resignations in the high EQ group). At first sight, it appears that low EQ group members are more likely than high EQ group members to resign on account of marriage per se. However, this is not necessarily the case. Marriage, unlike pregnancy, is not usually an event that can occur several times, to repeatedly interrupt a respondent's working life. As there are the same number of respondents (29) in the high and low EQ groups, marriage could be expected to occur in fairly equal proportions in both groups: the reason for the high proportion of resignations influenced by marriage in the low EQ group is that this group have fewer jobs.

Secondly, job dissatisfactions are (proportionally) more prevalent in the resignations of the low EQ group than the high EQ group (35.29%, as compared to 32.98%). In addition, the incidence of specific job dissatisfactions differs between the two groups.

The high EQ group are more influenced by becoming "more interested in another field of social work", and by dissatisfaction with working

hours and overtime, a lack of opportunities for professional advancement, and non-physical working conditions. On the other hand, the low EQ group are more influenced by dissatisfaction with salary, an inability to practice social work of a high standard, staff relationships, a belief that social work is palliative, and a feeling that social work is depressin A potential explanation for the foregoing finding is that the low EQ group have a larger proportion of first social work jobs. In the following chapter, reasons for the termination of first jobs are compated to reasons for the termination of second and subsequent jobs (Table XXXVIII, infra).

Thirdly, Category C factors are of more influence on the resignations of the high EQ group, than on the resignations of the low EQ group. When Table XXXII is examined, the principal reason for this finding is that "extended holidays and travel" plays a greater part in high EQ group resignation: 15% of high EQ group jobs are terminated for this reason, as compared to 3.57% of low EQ group jobs.

10. Vertical upward mobility

In addition to occupational mobility, or movement from job to job, two other types of mobility deserve a brief mention: vertical upward mobility, and geographical mobility.

Vertical upward mobility, or movement from one occupational rank to a higher occupational rank, can be of two types. On the one hand, a social worker can receive promotion while she remains with the same employer. On the other hand, she can achieve a more senior rank by changing her employment. Table XXXIII, overleaf, reflects the 15 instances of vertical upward mobility reported by respondents. The table includes a division of vertical upward mobility into the two categories of promotion with the same employer, and promotion through a job change.

TABLE XXXIII

VERTICAL UPWARD MOBILITY * OF RESPONDENTS

TYPE OF VERTICAL UPWARD MOBILITY	No. of Respondents who report vertical upward mobility of this type while remaining with the same employer	No. of Respondents who report vertical upward mobility of this type when they move from one employer to another	% of this type of vertical upward mobility over all instances of vertical upward mobility
Social Worker to Senior Social Worker	2	5	46.67
Social Worker to Supervisor	1	4	33.33
Senior Social Worker to Supervisor	1	1	13.33
Social Worker to Assistant Director	0	1	6.67
TOTALS:	4	11	100.00%

* Term defined on page 298

Table XXXIII includes only those changes of rank that are objective instances of vertical upward mobility (e.g. from "social worker" to "supervisor"); while changes of rank that have subjective elements of vertical upward mobility (e.g. "social worker" to "lecturer in social work") are excluded.

The tabulation shows that the most common type of vertical upward mobility is movement from "social worker" to "senior social worker", which accounts for 46.76% of all vertical upward mobility. Two respondents receive promotion without changing their employers, while 5 respondents achieve promotion by moving from one employer to another. Secondly, movement from "social worker" to "supervisor" accounts for 33.33% of all vertical upward mobility. One respondent reports this mobility while she remains with the same employer, and 4 respondents achieve it by moving from one employer to another.

Thirdly, movement from "senior social worker" to "supervisor" accounts for 13.33% of all vertical upward mobility. One respondent receives promotion from her employer, and another respondent achieves it by moving her job from one employer to another. Lastly, a single respondent reports vertical upward mobility when she moves from one employer to another, and changes her rank from "social worker" to "assistant director". This latter move accounts for 6.67% of all vertical upward mobility.

Overall, 4 respondents receive promotion in rank while they remain with the same employer, and 11 respondents achieve promotion by moving from one employer to another. These findings merit explanation. An earlier finding places the average length of all

jobs reported by respondents at 14.59 months (Table XI, supra), and the suggestion can be made that many respondents may not remain long enough with a single employer to be eligible for promotion. At the same time, it should be noted that although 11 respondents achieve vertical upward mobility by moving from one employer to another, the movement is in some cases characterised by a period of occupational wastage after leaving one employer, before being re-employed in a more senior rank. It is of note that of the 267 reasons that respondents give for choosing social work jobs, only 4 concern moving to a "more senior post" (Table XXIV, supra).

11. Geographical mobility

Geographical mobility, or migration from one geographical location to another, is indirectly reflected in earlier tabulations of this chapter. Table XXVI, supra, shows that of the 177 jobs that respondents terminate, 34 resignations (19.21% of all resignations) are influenced by the transfer and migration of a respondent's husband or family. The table also shows that 21 resignations (11.86% of all resignations) are caused by extended holidays and travel.

It is of interest that geographical mobility is related to respondents' age. Table XXX, supra, shows that the "transfer of husband or family" is the principal family-oriented cause of resignation in the age ranges 20 to 24 years, and 30 to 34 years; and the tabulation also shows that resignation for extended holidays and travel is most prevalent in the 20 to 24 year age range.

12. Summary

Respondents report a total of 198 jobs in social work, 177 of which had been terminated by the time of this study. The average number of jobs reported by respondents is 2.06. No direct relationship exists between experience (as measured by year of graudation), and occupational mobility (as measured by average number of jobs).

In their mobility towards social work jobs, respondents are most influenced by interest in a field of social work, good salary, and jobs being the only jobs available. In their mobility away from social work jobs, respondents are most influenced by family-oriented reasons, and then by job dissatisfactions.

When major fields of social work employment are examined, mobility towards social work jobs follows the pattern outlined above for respondents as a whole. However, in mobility away from social work jobs, differences can be observed between major fields of social work employment. Suggestions are advanced to explain some of these latter differences.

A relationship can be suspected between reasons for job choice, average length of job, and reasons for resignation. Specifically, it can be suspected that when jobs are chosen because of "interest in a field of social work", average length of job is longer, and job dissatisfactions play a lesser part in resignation. The converse can be suspected when jobs are chosen because they are "the only jobs available".

When the high and low employment quotient groups are compared, both groups reveal the same major reasons for job choice. However, the low EQ group are more influenced by "interest in a field of social work"; while the high EQ group are more influenced by "good salary". When they resign from social work posts, the low EQ group are more influenced by both family-oriented reasons and job dissatisfactions. The suggestion is made that differences between the high and low EQ groups' reasons for occupational mobility may be due to (proportionally) more low EQ group jobs being first jobs in social work.

Respondents report only 15 instances of vertical upward mobility. Most upward mobility is achieved by moving from one employer to another.

Finally, geographical mobility is mainly due to the transfer of husband/family, and extended holidays and travel. Both of these causes of geographical mobility appear age-related.

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Chapter 9

FIRST JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK

Chapter 9

FIRST JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK

Social workers' first jobs are a matter of special concern to the profession, as it is in first jobs that the beginning social worker tests the ideals of social work training against the realities of social work practice. A satisfactory first job can consolidate the worker's professional education, and extend her social work skills. An unsatisfactory first work experience can expose the worker to "reality shock", and may lead to feelings of disillusionment or dissatisfaction.

The present chapter seeks to throw light upon respondents' first jobs. In particular, the chapter attempts to present data on the reasons for choosing and leaving first jobs, the nature of first jobs themselves, and differences between first and subsequent social work positions.

1. First jobs in social work: factors that influence job acceptance.

Of the 86 respondents in this study, 79 report first jobs in social work, while 7 have never entered the field. Respondents give 106 reasons for their choice of first jobs. These reasons are classified into 13 categories, and are reflected in Table XXXIV, overleaf.

The major reason for first job choice is an "interest" in a particular field of social work (53, or 67.09% of first jobs). Second in importance is the acceptance of jobs because they are "the only jobs available" (18, or 22.78% of all first jobs), and third in importance is "good

TABLE XXXIV

FIRST JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK: FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE RESPONDENTS TO ACCEPT THESE JOBS

Influencing Factors	No. of Occasions on which this factor influenced respondents to accept their first social work position	% of Occasions when this factor influenced respondents to accept their first social work position *
1. Interest in specific field	53	67.09
2. Good salary	11	13.92
3. Suitable working hours	7	8.86
4. Only job available	18	22.78
5. Liked agency personnel	2	2.53
6. Scope for a high standard of service	6	7.59
7. Wanted a change	-	-
8. More senior post	1	1.26
9. More prestigious field	1	1.26
10. Locum tenens post	4	5.06
11. Better working conditions (non-physical)	-	-
12. Convenient for travel	2	2.53
13. Required to take post because of study bursary	1	1.26
TOTALS	106	134.14

N of first jobs in social work = 79
(7 respondents have never worked)

* Total percentage exceeds 100% as respondents frequently give more than one influencing factor in job acceptance

salary" (11, or 13.92% of all first jobs).

Besides these three reasons, no other single reason is operative in more than 10% of all first job choice. The remaining reasons, together with the percentage of first job choice where they are of influence, are suitable working hours (8.86%); scope for a high standard of service (7.59%); availability of locum tenens posts (5.06%); liking for agency personnel (2.53%); convenience for travel (2.53%); and finally, "a more senior post", a "more prestigious field", and "being required to accept a post as a study bursary had been received" (each operative in 1.26% of all first job choice).

It is unusual for a respondent to report "a more senior post" as a reason for accepting a first position in social work. The respondent involved moved straight from university into a senior social worker's post. Presumably, the respondent uses the phrase "more senior post" to mean that the post chosen was senior to other available vacancies.

Overall, it can be noted that the three main reasons for choice of first jobs are identical to those which influence the choice of all jobs (see Table XXIV, supra). However, this "similarity" may arise as a result of first jobs being included in the data on all jobs.

Reasons for the choice of first jobs can best be interpreted by comparing them with reasons for the choice of second and subsequent jobs. This is done in the following section.

2. First jobs, and second and subsequent jobs: a comparison of factors that influence job acceptance.

Table XXXV, overleaf, reflects a comparison of the factors that influence first job acceptance, with those that influence the acceptance of second and subsequent posts.

Similarities and differences can be noted from the table. The principal similarity is that in both first jobs and in later jobs, "interest in a field of social work" is the major reason for job choice.

Comparing reasons for the choice of first jobs with reasons for the choice of second and subsequent jobs, six main differences can be identified:-

Firstly, first job choice is more influenced by "interest in a field of social work" (53, or 67.09% of first jobs, as compared to 58, or 48.74% of second and subsequent jobs). This finding may indicate that in their choice of first jobs, respondents primarily seek work that will give them personal satisfaction. In second and subsequent job choice, the influence of this factor is reduced.

Secondly, first job choice is more influenced by jobs being "the only jobs available" (18, or 22.78% of first jobs, as compared to 18, or 15.12% of second and subsequent jobs). This finding indicates that in taking their first jobs, respondents have less choice about where to work. A possible explanation exists for this finding. Social work posts may be at a premium during the December/January period, when the labour market is flooded with newly-graduated social workers. New

TABLE XXXV

FIRST JOBS, AND SECOND AND SUBSEQUENT JOBS: COMPARISON OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB ACCEPTANCE.

Influencing Factor on Job Acceptance	First Jobs		Second & Subsequent Jobs	
	No. of jobs where this factor influenced acceptance	% of jobs where this factor influenced acceptance	No. of jobs where this factor influenced acceptance	% of Jobs where this factor influenced acceptance
Interest in Field	53	67.09	58	48.74
Good Salary	11	13.92	27	22.69
Suitable working hours	7	8.86	19	15.96
Only Job available	18	22.78	18	15.12
Liked agency personnel	2	2.53	1	0.84
Scope for a high standard of service	6	7.59	6	5.04
Wanted a change	0	0	2	1.68
More senior post	1	1.26	3	2.52
More prestigious field	1	1.26	1	0.84
Locum post	4	5.06	18	15.12
Better non-physical working conditions	0	0	6	5.04
Convenient for travel	2	2.53	2	1.68
Required to take post, as study bursary had been received	1	1.26	0	0
	N. of first jobs = 79 N. of reasons given for accepting first jobs = 106		No. of second & subsequent jobs = 119 N. of reasons given for accepting second and subsequent jobs = 161	

graduates, who are generally unmarried, may have to accept the only jobs available, in order to earn a living.

Thirdly, first job choice is slightly more influenced by "scope for a high standard of service" (6, or 7.59% of first jobs, as compared to 6, or 5.04% of second and subsequent jobs). This finding suggests that some beginning social workers are attracted to first jobs by an opportunity to practice social work of a high standard.

Fourthly, first job choice is less influenced by "good salary" (11, or 13.92% of first jobs, as compared to 27, or 22.69% of second and subsequent jobs). This finding could indicate that new graduates are less conscious of financial reward. "Good salary" may become increasingly important as social workers move to second and subsequent jobs. For example, the "career woman" may well see adequate salary as an important work gratification, and the married woman may view a good salary as a necessary compensation for conflict between work and home roles.

Fifthly, first job choice is less influenced by two factors that are potentially family-oriented. The availability of locum tenens posts influences 4, or 5.06% of first jobs, but 18 or 15.12% of second and subsequent jobs. Similarly, "suitable working hours" influences 7, or 8.86% of first jobs, but 19, or 15.96% of second and subsequent jobs.

Sixthly, first job choice is less influenced by "better non-physical working conditions" (operative in the choice of 6, or 5.04% of second and subsequent jobs, but not reported in first job choice).

Perhaps "better non-physical working conditions" is a comparative measurement, and respondents need to have had one social work job before they can have this reason for job choice.

In addition to the main differences outlined above, Table XXXV shows six minor differences between reasons for the choice of first jobs, and reasons for the choice of second and subsequent jobs. The differences are so small, however, that it would be unwise to identify them as "trends".

In summary, therefor, first job choice differs from later job choice in four main ways. When choosing their first jobs, respondents are more influenced by interest in a field of social work, and jobs being the only available vacancies. Conversely, they are less influenced by good salary, and factors that are potentially family-oriented.

3. First jobs in social work: major fields of social work, length of jobs, and factors that influence job acceptance.

The foregoing sections of this chapter have highlighted respondents' reasons for choosing first jobs. The present section seeks to extend this examination, and to present the fields in which first jobs are chosen, the length of first jobs, and the particular motivations for job choice in different social work fields.

Table XXXVI, overleaf, contains an analysis of first jobs by fields of social work employment, length of job, and reasons for job choice.

TABLE XXXVI

FIRST JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK: FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK, LENGTH OF JOBS, AND FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB ACCEPTANCE

FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK	No. and % of all respondents taking their FIRST social work post in this field N = 79		Length of First Jobs in months:		Factors that influence acceptance of first jobs in Social Work No. and % of jobs in this field influenced by the following factors:																					
					Interest in specific field		Good Salary		Suitable working hours		Only job available		Liked Agency Personnel		Scope for a high standard of service		More Senior post		Presti-gious field		Locum Tenens Post		Convenient for travel		Required to take post (had received study bursary)	
	No.	%	Mean Length	Median Length	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Aged	1	1.26	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-
Alcoholism	2	2.53	4.5	3to6	1	50	-	-	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Child & Family	34	43.04	16.2	12	23	68	3	9	-	-	12	35	-	-	4	12	-	-	1	3	2	6	-	-	-	-
Community	3	3.80	7.3	7	-	-	2	67	1	33	1	33	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	33	-	-
Department of Social Welfare & Pensions	10	12.66	34.5	21to29	8	80	2	20	1	10	1	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	10	1	10
Housing	2	2.53	5.5	1to10	1	50	-	-	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Medical	9	11.39	18.1	13	5	55	3	33	1	11	1	11	1	11	2	22	1	11	-	-	1	11	-	-	-	-
Prisoners	5	6.33	14.6	19	3	60	-	-	1	20	2	40	1	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Psychiatric	5	6.33	19.8	22	5	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Physical Disability	5	6.33	11.6	9	4	80	-	-	1	20	1	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Recreation	3	3.80	18.0	22	3	100	1	33	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Mean length of all first jobs: 17.5 months

Median length of all first jobs: 13.0 months (Quartiles 6 and 22 months; Range 1 to 98 months)

Respondents' 79 first jobs are in 11 social work fields. The mean length of first jobs is 17.5 months, and the median length 13.0 months (quartiles: 6 and 22 months). Of the 11 fields of first employment, the major fields (each with from 5 to 34 first jobs) are child and family welfare, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, medical social work, social work with prisoners, psychiatric social work, and social work with the physically disabled. It is of interest to note that the major fields of first employment are identical to the major fields of all employment.

In addition to first employment in these major fields, three or fewer first positions are recorded in a further 5 fields. The small amount of first employment in these latter fields precludes the identification of reliable trends. Thus, emphasis is placed upon a discussion of the six major fields where first jobs are chosen.

Of all fields, child and family welfare has the most first jobs (34, or 43.04%). First jobs in this field have a mean length of 16.2 months, and a median length of 12 months. The primary reason for choice of first jobs is interest in child and family welfare (68% of first jobs), followed by jobs being the only jobs available (35% of first jobs), and a belief that the field offers scope for a high standard of service (12% of first jobs). No other reason influences the choice of more than 9% of first jobs.

Respondents record 10 first jobs (12.66% of all first jobs) in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. First jobs have a mean length of 34.5 months, and a median length of 21 to 29 months. The most common reason for job choice is interest in the field (80%

of first jobs), followed by "good salary" (20% of first jobs). Four other reasons are reported, each of influence in the choice of 10% of first jobs.

Nine first jobs are reported in the field of medical social work (11.39% of all first jobs), lasting a mean length of 18.1 months, and a median length of 13 months. The three major reasons for first job choice are interest in the field (55% of first jobs), "good salary" (33% of first jobs), and scope for a high standard of service (22% of first jobs). Five other reasons are reported, each of which influence the choice of 11% of first jobs.

In the field of social work with prisoners, respondents report 5 first jobs (6.33% of all first jobs), with a mean length of 14.6 months, and a median length of 19 months. The two most common reasons for job choice are interest in the field (60% of first jobs), and jobs being the only ones available (40% of first jobs). To a lesser extent, jobs are chosen because of a liking for agency personnel, and suitable working hours.

The field of psychiatric social work is remarkable, in that of the 5 first jobs (6.33% of all first jobs) chosen in this field, all job choice is motivated by interest in psychiatric social work, and no other reasons are reported. The mean length of first jobs in this field is 19.8 months, and the median length 22 months.

Finally, in the field of social work with the physically disabled, respondents record 5 first jobs (6.33% of all first jobs), with a mean length of 11.6 months, and a median length of 9 months. The most common

reason for job choice is interest in the field (80% of first jobs), and to a lesser extent, job choice is influenced by suitable working hours (20% of first jobs) and a job being the only job available (20% of first jobs).

Table XXXVI reveals five trends in respondents' first jobs in major fields of first employment:-

Firstly, in terms of mean length of job, first jobs are of longer duration than all jobs. First jobs have a mean length of 17.5 months, while all jobs have a mean length of 14.59 months (see Table XI, supra). However, great caution should be excercised in accepting this finding at its face value: mean job lengths are being compared. Some respondents, particularly in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, spend a long period in their first jobs. Their long first jobs will tend to inflate the average length of the 79 first jobs more than it will inflate the average length of all 198 jobs reported by respondents.

Secondly, most first employment (55.70%) is in the broad field of child and family welfare: 43.04% of first jobs are in community welfare organisations offering child and family welfare services, and a further 12.66% are in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, a State welfare agency. Thus, the majority of respondents have their first social work employment in generic, family-oriented fields.

Thirdly, interest in a particular field of social work is the major reason for choosing first jobs in all major fields of employment. "Interest" influences from 100% of first jobs (psychiatric social work) to 55% of first jobs (medical social work). The high incidence of

interest in psychiatric social work may indicate that this field is particularly attractive to some social workers. However, no specific reason springs to mind to explain the low incidence of interest in medical social work.

Fourthly, the availability of jobs is the second most important reason for first job choice in the three fields of child and family welfare, prisoners, and physical disability, where it influences the choice of 20% to 40% of all first jobs. Two possible explanations exist for this finding: the three fields may have more vacancies to offer than other fields, or, alternatively, the three fields may not be as attractive to beginning social workers as some other fields of employment.

Fifthly, "good salary" is the second most important reason for job choice in the fields of medical social work and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. In these two fields, good salary influences from 20% to 33% of all first job acceptance. It is of note that these fields involve social work in public welfare organisations: the Department is a State welfare agency, and many medical social work posts involve employment by the Province. This suggests that in comparison to community welfare organisations, the State and Province may offer better salaries to beginning social workers.

4. First jobs in social work: factors that influence job termination

All 79 first jobs accepted by respondents had been terminated by the date of this research study (30th June, 1970). The 97 reasons recorded by respondents for resigning from their first jobs are analysed in Table XXXVII, overleaf.

Table XXXVII incorporates a classification of reasons for resignation into four categories: Category A (family-oriented reasons); Category B (job dissatisfactions); Category C (specific reasons that connot be classified into Categories A or B); and Category D (no reason specified).

Job dissatisfactions form the greatest proportion (40.21%) of reasons for first job resignation. The most frequently reported individual dissatisfactions are with poor salary, and becoming "more interested in another field of social work". To a lesser extent, resignation is influenced by dissatisfaction with working hours/overtime, non-physical working conditions, a lack of opportunity to practice social work of a high standard, staff relationships, a conviction that social work is palliative, and a feeling that social work is depressing.

Family-oriented reasons are the second most important influence on first job resignation (37.11% of all reasons for resignation). Within the category, the most frequently reported individual reason is pregnancy, closely followed by marriage. To a lesser extent, resignation is a affected by the transfer of husband/family and "other family reasons".

Category C factors, or specific reasons that cannot be classified into Categories A or B, account for 19.59% of all reasons for resignation.

TABLE XXXVII

FIRST JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK: MAJOR FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE TERMINATION OF FIRST JOBS

	Factors that influence termination of first jobs	No. of job terminations where this factor is influential	% of job terminations where this factor is influential N = 79	% of all job terminations factors for first jobs N = 97
Category A: Family-oriented Influencing Factors	Transfer of husband/family	8	10.13	37.11
	Pregnancy	14	17.72	
	Marriage	13	16.45	
	Other Family reasons	1	1.27	
Category B: Influencing Factors Associated with Work Dissatisfaction	More interested in another field	7	8.86	40.21
	Dissatisfied: Working hours and overtime	5	6.33	
	Dissatisfied: Salary inadequate	11	13.92	
	Dissatisfied: No opportunity for professional advancement	-	-	
	Dissatisfied: Unable to practice social work of a high standard	5	6.33	
	Dissatisfied: Poor working conditions (non-physical)	5	6.33	
	Dissatisfied with staff relationships	3	3.80	
	Dissatisfied with Social Work -consider it palliative	2	2.53	
	Dissatisfied with Social Work -find it depressing	1	1.27	
Category C: Other Specific Influencing Factors	To run own business	-	-	19.59
	Further study	4	5.06	
	Position came to an end (locum tenens)	6	7.59	
	Extended holiday/travel	9	11.39	
	Illness	-	-	
Category D: Unspecified	Unspecified	3	3.80	3.09
	TOTAL	97	122.78	100.00%

Three individual reasons are reported. In order of their importance, they are extended holidays and travel, the completion of locum tenens posts, and further study.

Finally, in the case of 3 or 3.80% of first jobs, respondents give no reason for their resignation.

When reasons for resignation from first jobs are compared with reasons for resignation from all jobs (Table XXVI, supra), three trends become apparent: in first job resignation, job dissatisfactions are more influential, while both family-oriented reasons and Category C reasons are less influential.

These latter tendencies appear in sharper contrast when reasons for resignation from first jobs are compared with reasons for resignation from second and subsequent social work jobs. The following section provides such a comparison.

5. <u>First jobs, and second and subsequent jobs: a comparison of factors that influence job termination</u>

Table XXXVIII, overleaf, compares reasons for the termination of first jobs, with reasons for the termination of second and subsequent jobs in social work.

Three main trends can be established from Table XXXVIII:-

TABLE XXXVIII

FIRST JOBS, AND SECOND AND SUBSEQUENT JOBS: COMPARISON OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB TERMINATION.

	Influencing Factor on Job Termination	FIRST JOBS			SECOND AND SUBSEQUENT JOBS		
		No. and % of jobs terminated, where this factor is influential		% of all influencing factors on termination	No. and % of jobs terminated, where this factor is influential		% of all influencing factors on termination
		No.	%		No.	%	
Category A: Family-oriented influencing factors	Transfer of husband/family	8	10.13	37.11	26	26.52	49.53
	Pregnancy	14	17.72		22	22.45	
	Marriage	13	16.45		5	5.10	
	Other family reasons	1	1.27		0	0.00	
Category B: Influencing factors associated with work dissatisfactions	More interested in another field	7	8.86	40.21	2	2.04	16.82
	Dissatisfied: working hours and overtime	5	6.33		3	3.06	
	Dissatisfied: Salary inadequate	11	13.92		1	1.02	
	Dissatisfied: no opportunity for professional advancement	0	0.00		2	2.04	
	Dissatisfied: unable to practice social work of a high standard	5	6.33		3	3.06	
	Dissatisfied: poor working conditions (non-physical)	5	6.33		3	3.06	
	Dissatisfied with staff relationships	3	3.80		2	2.04	
	Dissatisfied with social work: consider it palliative	2	2.53		1	1.02	
	Dissatisfied with social work: find it depressing	1	1.27		1	1.02	
Category C: Other specific influencing factors	To run own business	0	0.00	19.59	1	1.02	31.78
	Further study	4	5.06		3	3.06	
	Position came to an end (locum tenens)	6	7.59		17	17.35	
	Extended holidays/travel	9	11.39		12	12.23	
	Illness	0	0.00		1	1.02	
Category D: Unspecified.	Unspecified.	3	3.80	3.09	2.	2.04	1.87
	TOTALS:	97	122.78	100.00	107	109.15	100.00

N. of first jobs terminated = 79

N. of second and subsequent jobs terminated = 98

N. of reasons for termination = 97

N. of reasons for termination of second and subsequent jobs = 107

Firstly, job dissatisfaction is more prevalent in resignation from first jobs, than from second and subsequent jobs (40.21% of all reasons for resignation, as compared to 16.82%). A possible explanation for this finding is that the beginning social worker, fresh from her university training, may be especially prone to frustration and dissapointment when she experiences the realities of social work practice.

This suggestion is supported by an examination of the individual job dissatisfactions reflected in Table XXXVIII. With only one exception (lack of opportunity for professional advancement), each individual job dissatisfaction has a proportionally greater influence on resignation from first jobs, than on resignation from second and subsequent jobs. The one exception noted is not necessarily discordant with other findings: a lack of opportunity for advancement (that is, promotion) may well form a greater source of dissatisfaction to the experienced worker than to the beginning practitioner.

Secondly, family reasons are more common in resignation from second and subsequent jobs, than from first jobs (49.53% of all reasons, as compared to 37.11% of all reasons). This latter finding is partially explained by an earlier finding: Table XXX, supra, shows that resignation for family-oriented reasons increases rapidly from the age range 20 to 24 years, to the age range 30 to 34 years. As most first jobs normally take place in the early twenties, less resignation for family-oriented reasons would be expected.

It is also of note that in resignation from first posts, the most common family-oriented reasons are marriage and pregnancy; while in resignation from second and subsequent posts, the most common family-

oriented reasons are the transfer of husband/family and pregnancy.

Thirdly, Category C factors are of more influence on resignation from second and subsequent jobs, than from first jobs (31.78% of all reasons, as compared to 19.59% of all reasons). When Table XXXVIII is examined for an explanation of this finding, it is apparent that one individual Category C reason is largely responsible: "locum tenens posts coming to an end" influences only 6, or 7.59% of first jobs terminations, but 17, or 17.35% of second and subsequent job terminations.

6. First jobs in social work: major fields of social work, and factors that influence job termination

Two earlier findings of this chapter are of note: firstly, there are varying reasons for first job choice in different fields of social work employment; and secondly, the average length of first jobs differs from field to field. These two findings prompt a question: Is there any marked difference between reasons for first job resignation in the individual fields of social work?

Table XXXIX, overleaf, presents respondents' reasons for resignation from first jobs, by fields of social work employment. The tabulation includes a classification of reasons for resignation into four categories: Category A (family-oriented reasons); Category B (job dissatisfactions); Category C (specific reasons that cannot be included in Categories A or B); and Category D (no reason given).

TABLE XXXIX

FIRST JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK: FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK, AND FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB TERMINATION IN EACH FIELD

Field of Social Work	No. and % of respondents who take and leave their first social work job in this field		Length of First jobs of Respondents in this field of Social Work (Months)		Factors that influence job termination: No. of times each factor is reported, by fields of social work; division of factors into categories; proportionate influence of each category on job termination																							
					Category A					Category B											Category C						Category D	
					Family-Oriented Factors (No.)				% Category A factors of all factors influencing job termination in this field	Job Dissatisfaction Factors (No.)										% Category B factors of all factors influencing job termination in this field	Specific Factors that cannot be included in Categories A or B (No.)					% Category C factors of all factors influencing job termination in this field	No. Factor Factor Specified (No.)	% Category D factors of all factors influencing job termination in this field
	No.	%	Mean Length	Median Length	Transfer of Husband or Family	Pregnancy	Marriage	Other Family Reasons		More interested in another field	Dissatisfied: working hours & overtime	Dissatisfied: inadequate salary	Dissatisfied: no opportunity for advancement	Dissatisfied: unable to practice high-standard social work	Dissatisfied: unsatisfactory non-physical working conditions	Dissatisfied with staff relationships	Dissatisfied: consider social work palliative	Dissatisfied: consider social work depressing			Left to run own business	Further study	Position at end (locum tenens)	Extended holidays and travel	Illness		Unspecified	
Aged	1	1.26	3	3	0	0	0	0	0.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		0	0	1	0	0	100.00	0	0.00
Alcoholism	2	2.53	4.5	3to6	0	1	0	0	50.00	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	50.00		0	0	0	0	0	0.00	0	0.00
Child and Family	34	43.04	16.2	12	4	4	6	0	31.82	3	3	6	0	3	2	2	1	0	45.45		0	0	2	6	0	18.18	2	4.55
Community	3	3.80	7.3	7	0	0	1	0	25.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	50.00		0	1	0	0	0	25.00	0	0.00
Dept. of Social Welfare & Pensions	10	12.66	34.5	21to29	2	1	6	0	75.00	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	25.00		0	0	0	0	0	0.00	0	0.00
Housing	2	2.53	5.5	1to10	0	0	0	0	0.00	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	50.00		0	0	0	1	0	50.00	0	0.00
Medical	9	11.39	18.1	13	1	3	0	0	36.36	3	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	45.45		0	1	1	0	0	18.18	0	0.00
Prisoners	5	6.33	14.6	19	0	1	0	1	40.00	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40.00		0	0	1	0	0	20.00	0	0.00
Psychiatric	5	6.33	19.8	22	1	1	0	0	28.57	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	28.57		0	2	0	0	0	28.57	1	14.29
Physical Disability	5	6.33	11.6	9	0	2	0	0	40.00	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	40.00		0	0	0	1	0	20.00	0	0.00
Recreation	3	3.80	18.0	22	0	1	0	0	25.00	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	25.00		0	0	1	1	0	50.00	0	0.00

The reader will recall that of the 11 fields of social work in which respondents have first employment, only six fields have 5 or more first jobs. The following discussion is limited to these major fields of first employment.

Respondents resign from 34 first jobs (43.04% of first jobs) in the field of child and family welfare. Job dissatisfactions form the largest group of reasons for resignation (45.45% of all reasons). The most common dissatisfaction is with inadequate salary, and to a lesser extent, respondents report dissatisfaction with working hours, an inability to practice high-standard social work, non-physical working conditions, staff relationships, and a belief that social work is palliative. Indirect dissatisfaction is also reported by respondents becoming "more interested" in another field. Family-oriented reasons are the second major influence on resignation (31.82% of all reasons), while Category C factors (principally extended holidays and travel) form a further 18.18% of reasons for resignation. In addition, two jobs are terminated without a reason being given.

Respondents resign from 10 first jobs (12.66% of first jobs) in the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. The distribution of reasons for resignation in this field is different from all other fields of first employment: in the Department, family-oriented reasons (principally marriage) form 75% of all reasons for resignation. The remaining 25% of reasons are job dissatisfactions (with working hours and overtime, with salary, and with non-physical working conditions).

Respondents resign from 9 first jobs (11.39% of first jobs) in the field of medical social work. As in the field of child and family

welfare, 45.45% of all reasons for resignation concern job dissatisfaction, principally respondents becoming more interested in another field of social work. Family-oriented reasons (particularly pregnancy) form a further 36.36% of all reasons for resignation, while the remaining 18.18% of reasons are accounted for by further study, and locum tenens posts coming to an end.

The three fields of social work with prisoners, psychiatric social work, and social work with the physically disabled, each have 5 first job resignations (6.33% of all first jobs). In social work with prisoners, family-oriented reasons and job dissatisfactions each account for 40% of reasons for resignation, with the remaining 20% of reasons being Category C factors (in this case, a locum tenens post coming to an end).

In psychiatric social work, 28.57% of reasons for resignation are accounted for by each of the three categories of family-oriented reasons (pregnancy and transfer of husband/family), job dissatisfactions (specifically with non-physical working conditions, and an inability to practice social work of a high standard), and Category C factors (specifically further study). One job is terminated without a reason being given.

Finally, in the field of social work with the physically disabled, 40% of all reasons are family-oriented, 40% are job dissatisfactions (specifically with salary, and a feeling that social work is depressing), and 20% are Category C factors (in this case, extended holidays and travel).

Three trends can be established from the foregoing discussion:-

Firstly, family-oriented reasons are the major cause of resignation in only one field of first employment (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions). This finding may be due to the Department's policy (up to July, 1963) of not employing married female social workers as permanent staff members.

In the fields of social work with prisoners and the physically disabled, an equal proportion of family-oriented reasons and job dissatisfactions are reported. In a fourth field, psychiatric social work, an equal proportion of reasons for resignation are family-oriented, job dissatisfactions, and Category C factors.

Secondly, in each of the major fields of first employment, from 25% to 45.45% of all reasons for resignation concern job dissatisfaction. Job dissatisfaction is least influential in resignation from the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, and most influential in resignation from the fields of child and family welfare, and medical social work. This latter finding is puzzling. In the case of child and family welfare, Table XXXVI, supra, shows that 35% of first jobs are accepted as they are the only vacancies available, and conceiveably, this might be a reason for the high rate of resignation caused by job dissatisfaction. In the case of medical social work, no ready explanation springs to mind. It is of note, however, that medical social work has proportionally fewest first jobs accepted because of interest in the field (Table XXXVI, supra).

Thirdly, with the exception of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, Category C factors form 18.18% to 28.57% of all reasons for resignation in each field. Category C factors are of greatest influence in the field of psychiatric social work. In this latter field, all Category C reasons for resignation concern further study.

7. First jobs in social work: the relationship between reasons for job choice, average length of job, and reasons for job termination

Earlier findings of this study have suggested a possible relationship between "interest" (or lack of it) in job choice, average length of job, and the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation. Can the same tentative relationship be suggested for first jobs in social work?

An answer to this question could prove helpful in understanding respondents' first job patterns. A convenient way to examine the question posed is to take respondents' major fields of first employment, and to compare three sets of variables in each field, namely,

(1) The influence on first job choice of

  (a) Interest in a field of social work, and

  (b) Accepting jobs as they are the only available vacancies (Table XXXVI, supra);

(2) Average length of first jobs (Table XXXVI, supra); and

(3) The influence of job dissatisfactions on first job termination (Table XXXIX, supra).

(i) Interest in a field of social work

Table XL, overleaf, shows the relationship between interest in a field of social work in first job choice, average length of first jobs, and the influence of job dissatisfaction on first job termination, by major fields of first employment.

The table shows a partial relationship between interest in a field of social work in first job choice, and the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation. The two fields with the highest incidence of "interest" in job choice (psychiatric social work and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions) also have the lowest proportion of job dissatisfaction reasons for resignation. Conversely, the field with the lowest incidence of "interest" in job choice (medical social work) has the greatest proportion of job dissatisfaction reasons for resignation.

However, this trend is not continued in the remaining three major fields of first employment. In the field of physical disability, for example, "interest" is as frequent a reason for first job choice as in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, yet the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation is considerably greater. In the field of child and family welfare, where more jobs are chosen because of "interest" than in the field of social work with prisoners, social work with prisoners has fewer job dissatisfaction reasons for resignation.

Table XL also fails to reveal any constant relationship between "interest" in a field of social work in first job choice, and average

TABLE XL

THE SIX MAJOR FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK IN WHICH RESPONDENTS HAVE THEIR FIRST JOBS: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ACCEPTANCE OF POSTS BECAUSE OF A SPECIFIC INTEREST IN A FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK, AVERAGE LENGTH OF JOBS, AND DISSATISFACTIONS THAT INFLUENCE JOB TERMINATION.

FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK	% of all first jobs accepted in this field where a specific interest in the field was an influencing factor	% of all factors influencing job termination in this field where a specific job dissatisfaction was influential in termination *	Average length of all first jobs in this field (months)
Psychiatric	100	28.57	19.8
Dept. Social Welfare and Pensions	80	25.00	34.5
Physical Disability	80	40.00	11.6
Child & Family Welfare	68	45.45	16.2
Prisoners	60	40.00	14.6
Medical	55	45.45	18.1

* "Specific job dissatisfaction" refers to all job dissatisfactions listed in Group "B" of Table XXXIX, supra

SOURCE OF DATA FOR TABLE: Table XXXIX, supra and Table XXXVI, supra

length of first jobs. The two fields with the greatest proportion of first job choice influenced by "interest" (psychiatric social work and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions) do in fact have the longest average length of first job, but thereafter, no trend is apparent. In the field of social work with the physically disabled, for example, "interest" is as frequent a reason for first job choice as in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, yet the former field has a considerably shorter average length of first job. The field where "interest" plays the least part in first job choice (medical social work) has the third longest average length of job.

The foregoing findings do not support a relationship between the three factors of "interest" in first job choice, average length of first job, and the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation.

(ii) Jobs being "the only jobs available".

When jobs are accepted because they are "the only jobs available", the converse of "interest in a field of social work" is implied.

Table XLI, overleaf, sets out the relationship between first jobs being accepted because they are the "only jobs available", average length of first jobs, and the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation, by major fields of first employment.

The table shows no continuous or regular relationship between the three factors, although in the two fields with fewest first jobs accepted because they are the only ones available (psychiatric social work and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions), there is

TABLE XLI

SIX MAJOR FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK IN WHICH RESPONDENTS HAVE THEIR FIRST JOBS: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACCEPTING A POST BECAUSE IT IS THE "ONLY POST AVAILABLE", AVERAGE LENGTH OF JOBS, AND DISSATISFACTIONS THAT INFLUENCE JOB TERMINATION.

FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK	% of all first jobs accepted in this field where the job being the "only post available" was an influencing factor	% of all factors influencing job termination in this field where a specific job dissatisfaction was influential in termination *	Average length of all first jobs in this field (months)
Prisoners	40	40.00	14.6
Child and Family	35	45.45	16.2
Physical Disability	20	40.00	11.6
Medical	11	45.45	18.1
Dept. of Social Welfare and Pensions	10	25.00	34.5
Psychiatric	0	28.57	19.8

* "Specific Job Dissatisfaction" refers to all job dissatisfactions listed in Group "B" of Table XXXIX, supra

SOURCE OF DATA FOR TABLE: Table XXXIX, supra; and Table XXXVI, supra

also the longest average length of first job, and the least influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation.

In respondents first jobs, therefore, no relationship can be claimed between interest in a field (or lack of it), average length of job, and the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation.

8. First jobs in social work: mobility away from fields of first employment after termination of first jobs

The average length of respondents' first jobs is 17.5 months. This is a relatively short period for the benefits of social work education to be consolidated by practice. A relevant issue that arises from this finding is whether respondents change fields of social work employment when they move to second jobs, or whether they choose second jobs in the same field.

Table XLII, overleaf, contains an analysis of fields of first employment in social work, and, where applicable, the fields in which respondents have their second social work posts.

Of the 79 respondents who have first jobs in social work, 21 (26.58%) have no second jobs; 19 (24.05%) have first and second jobs in the same field of social work; and 39 (49.37%) change their field of social work when they move from first to second jobs. It is of note that of the 58 respondents who have second jobs in social work, 39 (or 67.24%) change their field of social work employment.

TABLE XLII

FIRST AND SECOND JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK: FIELDS IN WHICH RESPONDENTS HAVE THEIR FIRST JOBS, AND WHETHER THEIR SECOND JOBS ARE IN THE SAME OR DIFFERENT FIELDS.

Field of Social Work	No. of Respondents who had their first job in this field of social work	No and % of Respondents who had their first job in this field, but who had no second job at all		No. and % of Respondents who had their first and second jobs in this field		No and % of Respondents who had their first job in this field, and their second job in a different field	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Aged	1	0	-	0	-	1	100.00
Alcoholism	2	1	50.00	0		1	50.00
Child and Family	34	10	29.41	10	29.41	14	41.18
Community	3	1	33.33	0	-	2	66.67
Dept. of Social Welfare and Pensions	10	1	10.00	3	30.00	6	60.00
Housing	2	1	50.00	0	-	1	50.00
Medical	9	1	11.11	1	11.11	7	77.78
Prisoners	5	2	40.00	1	20.00	2	40.00
Psychiatric	5	0	-	3	60.00	2	40.00
Physical Disability	5	2	40.00	1	20.00	2	40.00
Recreation	3	2	66.67	0	-	1	33.33
TOTAL	79*	21	26.58	19	24.05	39	49.37

* Of the 86 respondents, only 79 had first jobs

Do the above patterns hold true for all major fields of social work employment?

The six major fields of first employment (each with from 5 to 34 first jobs) are child and family welfare, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, medical social work, social work with prisoners, psychiatric social work, and social work with the physically disabled. When Table XLII is examined, three trends can be identified in these six major fields:-

Firstly, after resigning from their first jobs in major fields of social work employment, the majority of respondents have second jobs in social work.

Secondly, with the exception of the field of psychiatric social work, most respondents who have second jobs change their field of social work employment.

Perhaps the generic education of social workers may contribute to this finding: social workers are free to move from field to field without additional, specialist qualifications. At the same time, the finding may be a result of purely practical issues. For example, a period of occupational wastage often intervenes between first and second jobs. When she chooses her second job, the social worker may be less influenced by "interest in a field of social work", and more influenced by practical issues such as good salary, suitable working hours, the availability of locum tenens posts and so forth. Indeed, Table XXXV, supra, shows that these latter factors are more influential

in the choice of second and subsequent jobs, than in first job choice.

It is of note that the majority of respondents who choose their first jobs in psychiatric social work, also choose their second jobs in this field. This phenomenon may not be unrelated to the fact that 100% of first jobs in this field are motivated by a specific interest in psychiatric social work (Table XXXVI, supra).

Thirdly, respondents who have their first jobs in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions and medical social work, show the greatest tendency to change fields when moving from first to second jobs.

In the case of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, this finding may be a consequence of the Department's policy (up to July, 1963) of not employing married women as permanent staff members. In the case of medical social work, it is more difficult to explain the high incidence of movement out of the field from first to second jobs. However, this phenomenon may be related to the fact that in first job choice, "interest in the field" played a lesser part in medical social work jobs than in any other major field of first employment (Table XXXVI, supra).

The two latter trends identified in this section may be due to another factor: certain fields of social work may be preferred for first jobs, while other fields of social work may be preferred for later jobs. This possibility is explored in the following section.

9. Fields of first social work employment, and fields of second and subsequent social work employment

A finding reported in an earlier section of this research study is that as respondents grow older, they show an increased propensity to work in more specialised social work fields (Table XV, supra). From this finding, it might be expected that proportionally more second and subsequent jobs than first jobs will be in "specialised" fields of social work.

Table XLIII, overleaf, reflects the distribution of first and subsequent social work jobs, by fields of social work employment. Three observations can be made about the table.

Firstly, respondents show a tendency to have proportionally more first jobs than second or subsequent jobs in 6 of the 15 fields of employment. These fields are those of child and family welfare, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, community work, housing, physical disability, and recreation.

On the other hand, respondents show a tendency to have proportionally fewer first jobs than second or subsequent jobs in 5 of the 15 fields of employment. These fields are those of the aged, alcoholism, medical social work, prisoners, and psychiatric social work.

Finally, respondents have second and subsequent jobs in 4 fields where no first employment is reported. These fields are those of industry, legal aid, school social work, and social work education.

TABLE XLIII

FIRST JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK: COMPARISON OF FIELDS OF FIRST EMPLOYMENT WITH FIELDS OF SECOND AND SUBSEQUENT EMPLOYMENT

FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK	FIRST JOBS: No and % of respondents' first jobs in this field		SECOND & SUBSEQUENT JOBS: No and % of respondents' second and subsequent jobs in this field	
	No.	%	No.	%
Aged	1	1.26	8	6.72
Alcoholism	2	2.53	5	4.20
Child and Family	34	43.04	34	28.57
Community	3	3.80	2	1.68
Dept. of Social Welfare and Pensions	10	12.66	6	5.05
Housing	2	2.53	2	1.68
Industry	0	0.00	2	1.68
Legal Aid	0	0.00	1	0.84
Medical	9	11.39	19	15.97
Prisoners	5	6.33	8	6.72
Psychiatric	5	6.33	15	12.60
Physical disability	5	6.33	6	5.05
Recreation	3	3.80	2	1.68
School	0	0.00	1	0.84
Social Work Education	0	0.00	8	6.72
TOTALS	79	100.00	119	100.00

These observations point to two general trends:-

Firstly, although respondents report first jobs in a number of specialised fields of social work, most first employment is in the broad field of child and family welfare (34, or 43.04% of first jobs are in child and family welfare, and a further 10, or 12.66% are in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions).

Secondly, in second and subsequent jobs, although respondents do report employment in the broad field of child and family welfare, most employment is in specialised, less generic fields (only 34, or 28.57% of jobs are in child and family welfare, and 6, or 5.05% of jobs in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions).

It would seem, therefor, that less experienced social workers in their first jobs are more often than not employed in generic, family welfare-oriented fields; while in their subsequent jobs, they are employed in more specialised fields of social work activity.

Mobility among social workers, as they move from first to subsequent jobs, does not follow a musical chair pattern of re-distribution among fields of social work in the same overall proportions as those of first employment: in mobility from first to subsequent jobs, there is a movement from the more generic to the more specialised fields of social work.

10. Summary

Respondents have 79 first jobs in 11 fields of social work. The average length of first jobs is longer than the average length of all jobs.

The major fields of first employment are identical to the major fields of all employment. However, most first jobs are in the broad field of child and family welfare, while most later jobs are in more specialised fields of social work.

When reasons for the choice of first jobs are compared to reasons for the choice of later jobs, first job choice is more influenced by interest in a field of social work, and by jobs being the only available vacancies. On the other hand, first job choice is less influenced by good salary, suitable working hours, and the availability of locum tenens posts.

When resignation from first jobs is compared to resignation from later jobs, first job resignation is more influenced by job dissatisfaction, and less influenced by family-related factors.

In first jobs, no relationship can be claimed between "interest" (or the lack of it) in job choice, average length of job, and the influence of job dissatisfaction on resignation.

Chapter 10

WORK SATISFACTION

Chapter 10

WORK SATISFACTION

In preceding chapters, the work satisfaction of respondents has been touched upon, both directly and indirectly. In reporting upon their occupational wastage, and more particularly in recording the factors which influence their occupational mobility, respondents have indicated that an anticipation of receiving one or other work satisfaction often influences their movement towards new social work posts. Similarly, the absence of a particular work satisfaction sometimes contributes to their job termination, and their movement away from social work jobs (Tables XXIV and XXVI, supra).

However, in canvassing respondents' reasons for taking and leaving social work positions, an open-ended form of question was used (see question 3 of the questionnaire form, Appendix I), and no attempt was made to direct their attention to specific work satisfactions or dissatisfactions that might have influenced their work patterns. Thus, work satisfactions and dissatisfactions recorded by respondents in answer to question 3 of the questionnaire were of a spontaneous nature, and were those particular influences which respondents recalled, in some instances after a time lapse of 15 years.

The latter part of the questionnaire used in this study (see questions 6 and 7 of Appendix I, infra) included ten work considerations which all respondents were requested to assess in work satisfaction importance. It is interesting to note that the ten work considerations selected for respondents' assessment bear a close similarity to the work satisfactions and dissatisfactions spontaneously reported by respondents in their

earlier replies to question 3 of the questionnaire.

Only one factor included in the structured list of 10 potential work satisfactions is not spontaneously recorded by respondents as influencing their choice or termination of social work positions. This factor is that of "satisfactory service conditions" (leave, pension, medical aid, paid sick leave, written contract of service, etc.) On the other hand, there are 5 work satisfaction factors spontaneously recorded by respondents in answer to question 3 of the questionnaire, which are not included, directly or indirectly, in the structured list of 10 potential work satisfactions. These are the prestige of a particular agency; a liking for a particular agency's personnel; convenience for travel; a feeling that social work is "depressing"; and opportunity for advancement (that is, promotion).

The following chapter contains an analysis of respondents' work satisfaction priorities. The chapter is based on respondents' replies to questions 6 and 7 of the questionnaire.

1. Frame of reference for the analysis of work satisfactions

A preliminary note must be made of the frame of reference used in the analysis of work satisfaction priorities. A system of classification was necessary for three reasons. Firstly, the investigator desired to isolate those aspects of work that might be considered to "reward" the worker for her work. Secondly, he also wished to isolate aspects of work that could be associated with long-term career goals. Thirdly, if data is not classified into categories, it is difficult to identify trends and to interpret findings.

One over-riding difficulty exists in forming a classification system for the ten work considerations presented to respondents. This is that many of the work considerations are capable of classification into more than one category. For example, "adequate salary" may be a reward to the worker for her work, yet on the other hand, it may also be associated with long-term career goals. The "supervision and guidance of less experienced workers" may be linked to a worker's long-term career goals (as this helps the worker to develop her social work skills), but at the same time, supervision of the beginning worker may have implications for the provision of an effective social work service. "Satisfactory working conditions" may be a reward to the worker in terms of personal convenience, but again, there is no doubt that when working conditions are satisfactory, the quality of a service may improve.

In view of classification difficulties, it is necessary to give a detailed explanation of the investigator's reasoning in choosing to categorise a work consideration in one category, rather than another. This is set out below.

Group A: Aspects of work providing "worker reward".

Of the ten work considerations presented to respondents, three can be associated with reward to the worker for her services:-

1) "Interesting work". (A reward to the worker in terms of personal satisfaction);

2) "Adequate salary" (A financial reward);

3) "Satisfactory working conditions" (A reward to the worker in personal and professional convenience).

Corporately, these three work considerations are referred to as "worker reward considerations".

Group B: Aspects of work promoting long-term career goals.

A further three of the ten work considerations can be thought of as promoting a worker's long-term career goals:-

1) "Opportunities for professional improvement" (Enabling the worker to develop her professional knowledge and skills);

2) "Supervision and guidance of less experienced workers" (Helping the beginning worker to develop her skills);

3) "Service conditions" (Aspects of work such as leave, sick leave, medical aid, pension, written contract of service, etc.; which provide the worker with long-term security).

Corporately, these three work considerations are referred to as "considerations associated with long-term career goals".

Group C: Ethical aspects of work

One work consideration falls directly into this category:-

1) "The social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community" (In terms of the social work value that the best interests of the client are of paramount importance in the provision of any social work service).

This work consideration is referred to as an "ethical consideration".

Group D: Aspects of work promoting an effective social work service

The last three work considerations, which do not directly fall into any of the previous categories, are all concerned with promoting a more effective social work service:-

1) "Easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers" (So that the many individuals involved in an agency work together in harmony);

2) "Willingness of the Board of Management - or other policy-making authority in the agency - to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff" (So that within the bureaucratic setting, the makers and the implementers of policy have a two-way sharing of expertise and information);

3) "Reasonable work loads" (So that the worker can effectively carry out all work allocated to her.)

Corporately, these three considerations are referred to as "considerations associated with providing an effective social work service".

The above classification is not water-tight. In some instances the classification of a particular work consideration into one category rather than another is relatively arbitrary. Other social workers might choose to categorise work considerations in a way different to that chosen by the investigator, and this point should be borne in mind by the reader as he peruses the analyses presented in the remainder of this chapter.

2. Work satisfaction: respondents' assessment of the importance of ten selected work considerations for their work satisfaction

Table XLIV, overleaf , reflects an analysis of the work satisfaction importance that respondents attach to ten selected work considerations. The tabulation is constructed from data provided by respondents when they were asked to assess the work satisfaction importance of each individual consideration, on a simple three-point scale of "essential", "desirable" or "not necessary". Table XLIV also incorporates a work satisfaction importance score (WSIS) for each work consideration assessed, together with a rank order based upon the WSIS.

Using the frame of reference outlined at the beginning of this chapter, it is interesting to evaluate the work satisfaction importance that respondents give to the ten considerations presented to them.

The highest WSIS (91.09) is allocated to the social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community. The high assessment given to this ethical consideration would seem appropriate for a profession that is "client-oriented", and where a basic ethical value is that social work should make a contribution to client well-being.

The second highest WSIS (88.76) is given to interesting work, which is essentially a reward in personal satisfaction to the social worker. It is of note, however, that a high work satisfaction priority for interesting work may be complementary to a high work satisfaction priority for the service provided by the agency being of real value to the community: an element of "personal satisfaction" may well be the satisfaction that comes from participating in a valuable social work service.

TABLE XLIV

RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPORTANCE OF TEN SELECTED WORK CONSIDERATIONS FOR THEIR WORK SATISFACTION

WORK CONSIDERATION	Respondents' Assessment of the importance of this work consideration for their work satisfaction						Work Satisfaction importance score * (WSIS)	Rank in work satisfaction importance (in terms of WSIS)
	Essential		Desirable		Not Necessary			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Adequate salary	41	47.67	45	52.33	0	0	82.56	7
Satisfactory service conditions (leave, pension, medical aid, paid sick leave, written contract of service, etc.)	32	37.21	50	58.14	4	4.65	77.52	9
Satisfactory working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)	42	48.84	41	47.67	3	3.49	81.78	8
The social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community	63	73.26	23	26.74	0	0	91.09	1
Easy communication and co-operation between staff members, and between staff and volunteers	45	52.33	39	45.35	2	2.32	83.33	6
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in the agency) to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff	48	55.81	38	44.19	0	0	85.27	4
Interesting work	57	66.28	29	33.72	0	0	88.76	2
Adequate opportunities for professional improvement (opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc)	30	34.88	50	58.14	6	6.98	75.97	10
Provision for the supervision and/or guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues	50	58.14	32	37.21	4	4.65	84.49	5
A reasonable work load (i.e. the possibility of the worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her)	52	60.47	32	37.21	2	2.32	86.05	3

N = 86

* See page 168 for definition

Considerations given the third, fourth and sixth highest WSIS's are related to the provision of an effective social work service. They are, respectively, a reasonable work load (WSIS of 86.05); an agency policy-making authority willing to appreciate the points of view of professional social work personnel (WSIS of 85.27); and easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers (WSIS of 83.33).

Ranked fifth highest in terms of WSIS (84.49) is a consideration linked to the worker's long-term career goals: the supervision and guidance of less experienced personnel. It is interesting that, in terms of work satisfaction importance, this particular work consideration should be placed amongst a group of considerations associated with the provision of an effective social welfare service. The supervision and guidance of less experienced workers, while related to a worker's own personal and professional development, also has consequences for the delivery of a welfare service.

Considerations ranked seventh and eighth in terms of WSIS are both related to worker reward: adequate salary has a WSIS of 82.56, and satisfactory working conditions has a WSIS of 81.78.

Finally, ranked ninth and tenth in terms of WSIS, are two considerations related to the worker's long-term career goals. Satisfactory service conditions has a WSIS of 77.52, and opportunities for professional improvement has a WSIS of 75.97, the lowest WSIS of all.

In terms of this analysis, therefor, respondents tend to give a higher work satisfaction importance to considerations related to a valuable and effective social work service, than to considerations associated with

worker reward (other than "interesting work"). Similarly, they tend to give a higher work satisfaction importance to considerations associated with worker reward, than to aspects of work associated with the worker's long-term career goals (other than the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers).

A second analysis of Table XLIV data can be made by examining the proportion of respondents who consider work considerations either "essential" or "not necessary" for their work satisfaction.

Table XLIV shows that more than half the respondents classify six work considerations as essential for their work satisfaction: the service provided by the agency being of real value to the community (73.26%); interesting work (66.28%); a reasonable work load (60.47%); provision of supervision and guidance for less experienced personnel (58.14%); willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff (55.81%) ; and easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers (52.33%). It is of note that the three work considerations which most respondents consider essential to their work satisfaction, are also the three considerations given the highest WSIS's.

On the other hand, Table XLIV shows that a small proportion of respondents judge six of the work considerations not necessary for their work satisfaction: opportunities for professional improvement (6.98%); satisfactory service conditions (4.65%); provision of supervision and guidance to less experienced personnel (4.65%); satisfactory working conditions (3.49%); easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers (2.32%); and a reasonable work load (2.32%).

Interestingly, the two work considerations which most respondents consider not necessary for their work satisfaction, are also the two considerations with the lowest WSIS's.

Overall, three trends can be identified:-

Firstly, respondents place greatest work satisfaction importance on the ethical consideration of the agency's service being of real value to the community; on interesting work; and on reasonable work loads. Over 60% of respondents consider each of these aspects of work to be essential to their work satisfaction, and no respondents consider them to be not necessary.

Secondly, respondents place least work satisfaction importance on two aspects of work that are related to the worker's long-term career goals: satisfactory service conditions, and opportunities for professional improvement.

Thirdly, respondents make high work satisfaction demands. More than half of the respondents assess six of the work considerations presented to them as "essential" for their work satisfaction; and in no case do more than 7% of respondents assess any work consideration as being "not necessary" for their work satisfaction.

3. Work satisfaction: respondent's ranking of ten selected work considerations in order of work satisfaction importance.

Table XLV, overleaf, reflects respondents' ranking of ten selected work considerations, in order of the importance that they attach to each consideration for their work satisfaction. Taking the same work considerations that they earlier assessed as "essential", "desirable" or

TABLE XLV

WORK SATISFACTION: RESPONDENTS' RANKING OF TEN SELECTED WORK CONSIDERATIONS IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE FOR THEIR WORK SATISFACTION

WORK CONSIDERATION	RANGE of work satisfaction importance rankings given to this consideration by respondents	MEDIAN & QUARTILE work satisfaction importance rankings given to this consideration by respondents	TOTAL of all individual work satisfaction importance rankings given to this consideration by respondents *	OVERALL RANK IN WORK SATISFACTION IMPORTANCE of this consideration +
Adequate salary	1 to 10	4 (2 and 6)	378	3
Satisfactory service conditions (leave, pension, medical aid, paid sick leave, written contract of service, etc.)	1 to 10	7 (5 and 9)	555	9
Satisfactory working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)	1 to 10	6 (4 and 9)	528	7
The social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community	1 to 9	3 (1 and 6)	303	2
Easy communication and co-operation between staff members, and between staff members and volunteers.	1 to 10	6 (3 and 8)	471	5
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in the agency) to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff.	1 to 10	7 (4 and 8)	509	6
Interesting work	1 to 10	2 (1 and 4)	280	1
Adequate opportunities for professional improvement (Opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)	2 to 10	8 (6 and 10)	631	10
Provision for supervision and/or guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues.	1 to 10	6 (4 and 9)	534	8
A reasonable work load (i.e. possibility of worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her)	1 to 10	5 (4 and 7)	427	4

N of respondents = 84

* Total of individual work satisfaction importance rankings has a potential range of 84 to 840

\+ See p. 353 for description of this measurement

"not necessary" for their work satisfaction, respondents were asked to place the ten considerations in the order of importance that they would attach to them for their work satisfaction. Thus, respondents ranked the most important work consideration "1", and so on up to the (comparatively) least important work consideration, which was ranked "10".

Although Table XLV, like Table XLIV before it, reflects figures that can be used to compare the work satisfaction importance of one consideration with that of others, there is a basic and essential difference between the methods used to obtain the data analysed in the two tables.

To obtain data for Table XLIV, respondents were asked to assess each individual item's work satisfaction importance on a simple three-point scale. They were not required to weigh the work satisfaction importance of one item against that of others: the investigator did this for respondents as a whole by computing work satisfaction importance scores. On the other hand, to obtain the data for Table XLV, respondents themselves were asked to rank the same ten work considerations in work satisfaction importance. To complete the ordering required for Table XLV, therefor, respondents had to adopt a realistic, comparative procedure of weighing one consideration against another, using the same model that they would use, say, in comparatively evaluating the satisfactions of an actual social work job.

The suggestion can thus be made that the figures reflected in Table XLV will be more representative of respondents' "real life" pattern of assessing work satisfactions; while the figures in the earlier Table XLIV will be more representative of an "idealised" approach to assessing work satisfaction. If this suggestion has substance, then a lack of congruity between the work satisfaction importance rankings of Tables XLIV and XLV

may be expected.

Before submitting Table XLV to analysis, three matters relating to data collection and measurement merit comment. Firstly, only 84 of the 86 respondents participated in the ordering of work considerations reflected in Table XLV: one respondent thought the considerations "impossible to rank", while another completed this section of her questionnaire incorrectly. Secondly, the total of all work satisfaction importance rankings is a mean measurement: the total is the sum of all rankings, both high and low. If all respondents were to assess a consideration the most important, and rank it "1", the total rankings for that consideration would 84 x 1, or 84; similarly, if all respondents were to rank it least important, the total would be 84 x 10, or 840. As respondents provide a wide range of rankings for each consideration, median and quartile rankings are included in Table XLV to indicate rank distribution patterns. Thirdly, the overall rank in work satisfaction importance of each consideration (extreme right-hand column of Table XLV) is also a mean measure of central tendency, as it is directly derived from the total of all work satisfaction importance rankings.

When Table XLV is submitted to analysis in terms of the frame of reference provided at the beginning of this chapter, the following pattern of work satisfaction priorities is established:-

Of the three work considerations allocated highest work satisfaction importance, two are related to worker reward: interesting work has the highest rank of 1 (total rankings 280), and adequate salary the third highest rank of 3 (total rankings 378). Between these two considerations comes the ethical consideration of the social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community (ranked 2nd, with total

rankings of 303).

Ranked 4th, 5th and 6th in work satisfaction importance are three aspects of work related to the provision of an effective social work service: they are, respectively, a reasonable work load (total rankings 427); easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers (total rankings 471); and willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of the professional social work staff (total rankings 509). Ranked 7th in work satisfaction importance is satisfactory working conditions (total rankings 528), an aspect of work related to worker reward.

Finally, ranked 8th, 9th and 10th in work satisfaction importance, are three considerations associated with a worker's long-term career goals. Supervision and guidance of less experienced personnel has total rankings of 534; satisfactory service conditions has total rankings of 555; and adequate opportunities for professional improvement has total rankings of 631.

Three trends can be identified in these findings.

Firstly, respondents place interesting work first in work satisfaction importance; while the value of the service provided by the agency to the community falls into second place.

Secondly, two work considerations associated with worker reward (interesting work and adequate salary) are placed before aspects of work associated with the provision of an effective social work service.

Thirdly, aspects of work associated with the provision of an effective social work service are placed before work considerations related to a worker's long-term career goals. This means that the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers, satisfactory service conditions, and adequate opportunities for professional improvement, are least important to respondents for work their satisfaction.

4. Rank order comparison: respondents' direct ranking of the work satisfaction importance of ten selected work considerations, and their indirect ranking of the same considerations in terms of work satisfaction importance scores.

Similarities and differences are revealed by a comparison of Table XLIV and XLV rankings of work satisfaction priority.

Three similarities can be noted. Firstly, a high work satisfaction premium is placed on interesting work, and on the service provided by the agency being of real value to the community. Secondly, a low premium is placed on satisfactory service conditions. Thirdly, an even lower premium is placed on opportunities for professional improvement.

The similarities between the two rankings suggest that respondents gain considerable satisfaction from "interesting" work, and from a conviction that the service provided by the employing agency is of real value to the community; but that they are not greatly concerned with some long-term career goals. The comparatively low work satisfaction importance placed upon service conditions (including such factors as pension, medical aid and paid sick leave) can be interpreted in terms of respondents' gender, the probability that most are married, and the possibility that they are not normally primary family wage-earners. The comparatively low work satisfaction importance ascribed to opportunities

for professional improvement may partly be attributed to the same factors.

As well as similarities, there are two major differences between the Table XLV and Table XLIV rankings.

Firstly, aspects of work associated with worker reward are given a higher ranking in Table XLV: interesting work is ranked 1st in Table XLV, yet 2nd in Table XLIV; adequate salary is ranked 3rd in Table XLV, yet 7th in Table XLIV; and satisfactory working conditions is ranked 7th in Table XLV, yet 8th in Table XLIV. Secondly, the supervision and guidance of less experienced personnel is ranked 5th in Table XLIV, but only 8th in Table XLV.

A potential explanation for both of these differences can be found in the suggestion, made earlier, that Table XLV rankings of work satisfaction importance are more realistic than those of Table XLIV. This suggestion can be put to the test by isolating the major points of difference between Table XLV and XLIV rankings, and comparing them with respondents' actual reasons for taking and leaving jobs.

For example, an important difference between Table XLV and XLIV rankings is that the former reflects a higher work satisfaction priority for "interesting work", and for "adequate salary".

Table XLV shows interesting work to be the prime work satisfaction priority, while Table XLIV shows it to be only the second most important satisfaction. In reality, the major influence upon choice of job is "interest in the field" (Table XXIV, supra), and the major job dissatisfaction causing respondents to leave jobs is being "more interested in another field" (Table XXVI, supra). Actual work histories of

respondents seem to support the Table XLV ranking of "interesting work".

Secondly, adequate salary is ranked third in work satisfaction importance in Table XLV, yet only seventh in Table XLIV. In reality, "good salary" is the second most important influence upon choice of job (Table XXIV, supra), and "dissatisfaction with salary" is the second most important job dissatisfaction influence on job termination (Table XXVI, supra). Again, actual work histories of respondents seem to support the Table XLV ranking of "adequate salary".

Thus, support is apparent for the suggestion that Table XLV data is more "realistic" than that of Table XLIV. This finding has an important implication: when respondents assess the work satisfaction importance of a number of work considerations, their allocation of priorities is different in the ideal, theoretical situation, from what it is in the realistic situation. Put simply, there is a discrepancy between respondents' work satisfaction ideals, and their actual work satisfaction priorities.

Can an explanation be found for the difference between ideal and realistic work satisfaction priorities, and particularly for the greater work satisfaction importance that respondents "realistically" place on reward to the worker?

One explanation can be suggested in terms of female social workers having to accommodate conflicting work-home demands. If this is so, they might be expected to realistically give high work satisfaction priority to aspects of work that reduce, or compensate for, work-home role conflict. Thus, they might place a high value on interesting work (a compensation in terms of personal satisfaction); on adequate salary (a

financial compensation); and on satisfactory working conditions (which might reduce conflict, for example by suitable working hours).

The foregoing explanation must be regarded as purely tentative, as other potential explanations cannot be excluded. For example, most people might be expected to give a different ordering of work satisfaction priorities in the ideal and realistic situations. Respondents' higher emphasis in the realistic situation on interesting work, adequate salary and satisfactory service conditions, may be a normal phenomenon that is unconnected to the accommodation of work-home role conflict.

5. High and low employment quotient groups: respondents' assessment of the importance of ten selected work considerations for their work satisfaction

Are there any noticeable differences between the work satisfaction priorities of respondents in the high and low EQ groups? If differences can be established, a new light may be cast on the disparity between the two groups' contribution to social work: respondents in the high EQ group average 62.55 months social work service, while respondents in the low EQ group average only 6.88 months (Table XXI, supra).

Table XLVI, overleaf, reflects the assessment, by respondents in the high and low EQ groups, of the work satisfaction importance that they personally attach to ten selected work considerations. Respondents were asked to assess each of 10 work considerations as "essential", "desirable" or "not necessary" for their work satisfaction. On the

TABLE XLVI

HIGH AND LOW EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENT GROUPS AND WORK SATISFACTION: RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPORTANCE OF TEN SELECTED WORK CONSIDERATIONS FOR THEIR WORK SATISFACTION

WORK CONSIDERATION	High EQ Group							Low EQ Group						
	Respondents' Assessment of the importance of this work consideration for their work satisfaction						Work Satisfaction Importance Score * (WSIS)	Respondents' Assessment of the importance of this work consideration for their work satisfaction						Work Satisfaction Importance Score * (WSIS)
	Essential		Desirable		Not Necessary			Essential		Desirable		Not Necessary		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Adequate Salary	14	48.27	15	51.73	-	-	82.76	14	48.27	15	51.73	-	-	82.76
Satisfactory service conditions (leave, pension, medical aid, paid sick leave, written contract of service, etc.)	11	37.93	18	62.07	-	-	79.31	11	37.93	15	51.73	3	10.34	75.86
Satisfactory working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)	13	44.83	16	55.17	-	-	81.61	12	41.38	15	51.73	2	6.89	78.16
The social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community	23	79.31	6	20.69	-	-	93.10	22	75.86	7	24.14	-	-	91.95
Easy communication and co-operation between staff members, and between staff members and volunteers	19	65.52	10	34.48	-	-	88.51	12	41.38	15	51.73	2	6.89	78.16
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in the agency) to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff	19	65.52	10	34.48	-	-	88.51	17	58.62	12	41.38	-	-	86.21
Interesting work	18	62.07	11	37.93	-	-	87.36	18	62.07	11	37.93	-	-	87.36
Adequate opportunities for professional improvement (Opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)	11	37.93	18	62.07	-	-	79.31	12	41.38	15	51.73	2	6.89	78.16
Provision for supervision and/or guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues	23	79.31	5	17.24	1	3.45	91.95	13	44.83	13	44.83	3	10.34	78.16
A reasonable work load (i.e. possibility of worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her)	20	68.97	8	27.58	1	3.45	88.51	17	58.62	11	37.93	1	3.45	85.06

High EQ Group N = 29 Low EQ Group N = 29

* See page 168 for definition

basis of their assessments, a group work satisfaction importance score (WSIS) was computed for each work consideration.

In analysing the data contained in Table XLVI, use can again be made of the frame of reference outlined at the beginning of this chapter.

On the basis of WSIS's, the high EQ group give highest work satisfaction importance to the ethical consideration of the agency's social work service being of real value to the community (WSIS of 93.10), and second highest importance to an aspect of work associated with long-term career goals: the supervision and guidance of less experienced personnel (WSIS of 91.95).

The three considerations jointly ranked third with a WSIS of 88.51 are related to the provision of an effective social work service. They are easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers; willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of the professional social work staff; and a reasonable work load.

Sixth, seventh and eighth in work satisfaction importance are three aspects of work associated with worker reward: interesting work (WSIS of 87.36); adequate salary (WSIS of 82.76); and satisfactory working conditions (WSIS of 81.61).

Finally, joint ninth are two considerations associated with a worker's long-term career goals: satisfactory service conditions, and

opportunities for professional improvement (each with a WSIS of 79.31)

The high EQ group's ordering of work satisfaction priorities reveals two other issues of note. Firstly, very few respondents rate any aspect of work "not necessary" for their work satisfaction. Only two considerations are ever assessed in this way: 1 respondent (3.45% of all respondents) rates the two considerations of a reasonable work load, and the provision of supervision and guidance to less experienced workers, as "not necessary" for her work satisfaction. Secondly, six of the ten aspects of work are assessed as "essential" for the work satisfaction of the majority of respondents: the agency's social work service being of real value to the community (79.31%); provision of supervision and guidance for less experienced workers (79.31%); a reasonable work load (68.97%); easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers (65.52%); willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff (65.52%); and interesting work (62.07%).

The low EQ group present a different pattern of work satisfaction priorities:-

Highest work satisfaction importance is given to the ethical consideration of the social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community (WSIS of 91.95), and second most importance is given to interesting work (WSIS of 87.36), an aspect of work related to worker reward.

Third and fourth in work satisfaction importance are two aspects of work associated with the provision of an effective social work service. The willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of the professional social work staff is given a WSIS 86.21, and a reasonable work load is given a WSIS of 85.06.

Adequate salary, a financial reward to the worker, is fifth in work satisfaction importance with a WSIS of 82.76.

Four work considerations are assessed as joint sixth, with a WSIS of 78.16. One is associated with the provision of an effective social work service (communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers); one is associated with worker reward (satisfactory working conditions); and two are related to a worker's long-term career goals (adequate opportunities for professional improvement, and the supervision and guidance of less experienced personnel).

Finally, tenth and lowest in work satisfaction importance is satisfactory service conditions, with a WSIS of 75.86.

Two additional trends can be identified in the low EQ group's work satisfaction priorities. Firstly, a small proportion of respondents assess six of the ten aspects of work as "not necessary" for their work satisfaction: satisfactory service conditions (10.34%); provision of supervision and guidance for less experienced personnel (10.34%); satisfactory working conditions (6.89%); easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers (6.89%); and a reasonable work load (3.45%). Secondly, a majority of respondents assess four of the ten work considerations as "essential" for their

work satisfaction: the social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community (75.86%); interesting work (62.07%); willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of the professional social work staff (58.62%); and a reasonable work load (58.62%).

It is interesting to compare the high and low EQ groups' assessments of work satisfaction priority. For this purpose, it is helpful to have an additional tabulation that reflects the groups' ordering of the ten work considerations in work satisfaction importance. This is provided in Table XLVII, overleaf.

Five main trends, involving similarities and differences, can be identified.

Firstly, the high EQ group make greater work satisfaction demands than the low EQ group. The high EQ group give a higher WSIS to eight of the ten work considerations assessed, and in the case of the other two considerations, they give the same WSIS as the low EQ group.

Secondly, both the high and the low EQ groups give prime work satisfaction importance to the agency's service being of real value to the community.

Thirdly, Both the high and the low EQ groups place a high work satisfaction premium on the provision of an effective social work service. For example, both groups give a higher WSIS to "a reasonable work load", and "the willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff", than they give to "adequate salary".

TABLE XLVII

RANK ORDER COMPARISON: HIGH AND LOW EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENT GROUPS' ASSESSMENT OF THE WORK SATISFACTION IMPORTANCE TO THEMSELVES OF TEN SELECTED WORK CONSIDERATIONS, IN TERMS OF WORK SATISFACTION IMPORTANCE SCORES

WORK CONSIDERATION	Order of importance of this work consideration in terms of work satisfaction importance score (WSIS)*	
	High EQ Group	Low EQ Group
Adequate salary	7	5
Satisfactory service conditions (leave, pension, medical aid, paid sick leave, written contract of service, etc.)	9	10
Satisfactory working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)	8	6
The social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community	1	1
Easy communication and co-operation between staff members, and between staff and volunteers	3	6
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in the agency) to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff	3	3
Interesting work	6	2
Adequate opportunities for professional improvement (Opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)	9	6
Provision for the supervision and/or guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues.	2	6
A reasonable work load (i.e. the possibility of the worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her).	3	4

* WSIS's tabulated in Table XLVI, supra.

Fourthly, there is no marked difference between the work satisfaction importance scores given by the two groups to aspects of work associated with worker reward. Both groups give the same WSIS's to "interesting work" and to "adequate salary"; and the high EQ group give only a slightly higher WSIS to "satisfactory working conditions" (81.61, as compared to 78.16). However, the low EQ group do give all three worker reward considerations a higher WSIS rank order.

Fifthly, in terms of WSIS's themselves, the high EQ group gives greater work satisfaction importance to all three aspects of work associated with a worker's long-term career goals. The difference between the high and low EQ groups is particularly marked when the provision of supervision and guidance to less experienced workers is assessed: the high EQ group give this a WSIS of 91.95, while the low EQ group give a WSIS of 78.16.

It should be borne in mind that the foregoing analysis is based on work satisfaction importance scores. Respondents assessed each work consideration in isolation, and were not required to compare the work satisfaction importance of one consideration with that of others. The findings of the analysis may therefor represent "ideal" work satisfaction priorities.

6. High and low employment quotient groups: respondents' ranking of ten selected work considerations in order of work satisfaction importance.

Table XLVIII, overleaf, reflects the ranking of ten selected work considerations in the order of their work satisfaction importance for members of the high and low EQ groups. The tabulation includes the range of work satisfaction importance rankings given to each consideration, median and quartile rankings, totals of all rankings, and, derived from these latter totals, the overall rank in work satisfaction importance of each work consideration.

To obtain the data reflected in Table XLVIII, respondents were themselves required to rank the work satisfaction importance of one consideration against that of others.

A preliminary note must be made about the number of high EQ group respondents who provided data for inclusion in Table XLVIII. Of the 29 members of the high EQ group, two members did not complete question 7 of the questionnaire. One respondent found the ten work considerations "impossible to rank" in work satisfaction importance, while another completed this section of her questionnaire incorrectly.

Table XLVIII can be analysed using the frame of reference described at the beginning of this chapter.

The high EQ group. The high EQ group rank interesting work as their most important work satisfaction (total rankings 89), and adequate salary as their second most important satisfaction (total rankings 104). Both of these aspects of work are related to worker reward.

TABLE XLVIII

HIGH AND LOW EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENT GROUPS AND WORK SATISFACTION: RESPONDENTS' RANKING OF TEN SELECTED WORK CONSIDERATIONS IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE FOR THEIR WORK SATISFACTION

WORK CONSIDERATION	High EQ group				Low EQ group			
	RANGE of work satisfaction importance rankings given to this considera-tion by respondents	MEDIAN & QUARTILE work satisfac-tion importance rankings given to this considera-tion by respondents	TOTAL * of all individual work satisfact-tion importance rankings given to this considera-tion by respon-dents	OVERALL RANK in work satisfaction importance of this consideration **	RANGE of work satisfaction importance rankings given to this considera-tion by respondents	MEDIAN & QUARTILE work satisfaction importance rankings given to this conside-ration by respondents	TOTAL * of all individual work satisfac-tion importance rankings given to this considera-tion by respondent-ts.	OVERALL RANK in work satisfaction importance of this consideration **
Adequate salary	1 to 10	3 2 and 5	104	2	1 to 10	5 4 and 8	159	5
Satisfactory service conditions (leave, pension, medical aid, paid sick leave, written contract of service, etc.)	2 to 10	7 4 and 10	188	9	2 to 10	6 4 and 8	185	7
Satisfactory working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)	1 to 10	7 5 and 9	179	8	1 to 10	7 4 and 8	189	8
The social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community	1 to 9	4 1 and 5	114	3	1 to 9	2 1 and 6	97	2
Easy communication and co-operation between staff members, and between staff members and volunteers	1 to 10	5 3 and 8	150	5	1 to 8	7 4 and 8	168	6
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in the agency) to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff.	1 to 10	6 3 and 8	154	6	1 to 10	6 3 and 8	158	4
Interesting work	1 to 10	2 1 and 4	89	1	1 to 10	3 2 and 4	93	1
Adequate opportunities for professional improvement (Opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)	2 to 10	8 6 and 9	201	10	3 to 10	8 3 and 9	202	10
Provision for supervision and/or guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues	1 to 10	6 4 and 8	165	7	2 to 10	8 3 and 10	197	9
A reasonable work load (i.e. possibility of worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her)	1 to 10	5 2 and 8	137	4	1 to 10	4 3 and 8	147	3

N of Respondents in High EQ group = 27; in Low EQ group = 29

* Total of individual work satisfaction importance rankings has a potential range of 27 to 270 for High EQ group, and 29 to 290 for Low EQ group.

** See p. 353 for a description of this measure

Ranked third in work satisfaction importance is the ethical consideration of the agency's service being of real value to the community (total rankings 114).

Fourth, fifth and sixth in work satisfaction importance are three aspects of work that are related to the provision of an effective social work service: a reasonable work load (total rankings 137); easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers (total rankings 150); and the willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff (total rankings 154).

Seventh in importance (total rankings 165) is the supervision and guidance of less-experienced workers, an aspect of work associated with long-term career goals. Eighth is satisfactory working conditions (total rankings 179), an aspect of work related to worker reward. These two work considerations also have implications for the provision of an effective social work service.

Finally, ranked ninth and tenth in work satisfaction importance, are two aspects of work associated with a worker's long-term career goals. They are satisfactory service conditions (total rankings 188), and adequate opportunities for professional improvement (total rankings 201).

The low EQ group. The low EQ group place interesting work, a consideration related to worker reward, as first in work satisfaction importance (total rankings 93). Second is the ethical consideration of an agency's service being of real value to the community (total rankings 97).

Third, fourth and sixth in importance are three considerations related to the provision of an effective social work service. They are, respectively, a reasonable work load (total rankings 147); the willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff (total rankings 158); and easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers (total rankings 168).

Fifth in importance is adequate salary (total rankings 159), a financial reward to the worker for her services. Seventh is satisfactory service conditions (total rankings 185), a consideration associated with long-term career goals. Eighth is satisfactory working conditions (total rankings 189), a reward to the worker in terms of convenience, but with overtones for the provision of an effective social work service.

Ninth and tenth in work satisfaction importance are two aspects of work that are related to long-term career goals: the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers (total rankings 197), and adequate opportunities for professional improvement (total rankings 202).

Comparing the work satisfaction importance priorities of the high and low EQ groups, five main trends can be identified in Table XLVIII.

Firstly, both groups give prime work satisfaction importance to interesting work.

Secondly, the low EQ group give a higher ranking to the ethical consideration of the social work service being of real value to the community.

Thirdly, the high and low EQ groups place different emphasis on aspects of work related to the provision of an effective social work service. The high EQ group give more importance to easy communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers. The low EQ group, on the other hand, give a higher ranking to the willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff, and also to reasonable work loads.

Fourthly, of the three work considerations that can be classified as providing worker reward, the high and low EQ groups differ in the importance that they give to one consideration: the high EQ group ranks adequate salary 2nd in work satisfaction importance, while the low EQ group ranks it 5th. They agree in the work satisfaction importance rank that they give to the other two worker reward considerations: both groups rank interesting work 1st, and satisfactory working conditions 8th.

Fifthly, neither the high nor the low EQ group give great work satisfaction priority to work considerations associated with long-term career goals. Both groups rank adequate opportunities for professional improvement least in work satisfaction importance; the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers is ranked 7th (high EQ group) and 9th (low EQ group); and satisfactory service conditions is ranked 7th (low EQ group) and 9th (high EQ group).

Thus, on a basis of comparative ranking of work satisfaction priorities, neither the high nor the low EQ groups emerge as being over-concerned with long-term career goals such as satisfactory service conditions, opportunities for professional improvement and the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers. On the other hand, both groups place top work satisfaction priority on interesting work, a reward to

the worker in terms of personal satisfaction. In addition, both groups place considerable work satisfaction importance on the social work service provided by the agency being of value to the community.

Two main ways in which the high EQ group differs from the low EQ group, are that the high EQ group gives more work satisfaction importance to adequate salary, and to the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers.

7. High and low EQ groups: comparison of respondents' direct ranking of the work satisfaction importance of ten selected work considerations, and their indirect ranking of the same considerations by means of work satisfaction importance scores.

Table XLIX, overleaf, contains a rank order comparison of the high and low EQ groups' direct ranking of the work satisfaction importance to themselves of ten selected work considerations (Rank Order B), and their ranking of the same considerations, based on work satisfaction importance scores (Rank Order A). The data for the table is drawn from the earlier Tables XLVII and XLVIII.

It can be suggested that Rank Order B will reveal a realistic ordering of work satisfaction priorities. To complete the ordering, respondents had to comparatively weigh the work satisfaction importance of one consideration against that of others. Conversely, Rank Order A may be an idealistic assessment of work satisfaction priorities, as respondents evaluated the work satisfaction of each consideration individually, without reference to other considerations.

TABLE XLIX

RANK ORDER COMPARISON: HIGH AND LOW EMPLOYMENT QUOTIENT GROUPS' DIRECT RANKING OF THE WORK SATISFACTION IMPORTANCE OF TEN SELECTED WORK CONSIDERATIONS TO THEMSELVES, AND THEIR RANKING OF THE SAME CONSIDERATIONS BASED ON WORK SATISFACTION IMPORTANCE SCORES

WORK CONSIDERATION	High EQ group			Low EQ group		
	Rank Order A Rank Order of this consideration in terms of WSIS * (Table XLVII)	Rank Order B Rank Order of this consideration in respondents' direct ranking of work satisfaction importance (TableXLVIII)	Increase in position of this work considera-tion in Rank Order B, from Rank Order A	Rank Order A Rank Order of this consideration in terms of WSIS * (Table XLVII)	Rank Order B Rank Order of this consideration in respondents' direct ranking of work satisfaction importance (TableXLVIII)	Increase in position of this work considera-tion in Rank Order B, from Rank Order A
Adequate Salary	7	2	+ 5	5	5	0
Satisfactory service conditions (leave, pension, medical aid, paid sick leave, written contract of service, etc.)	9	9	0	10	7	+ 3
Satisfactory working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)	8	8	0	6	8	- 2
The social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community.	1	3	- 2	1	2	- 1
Easy communication and co-operation between staff members, and between staff and volunteers.	3	5	+ 2	6	6	0
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in the agency) to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff.	3	6	+ 3	3	4	- 1
Interesting work	6	1	+ 5	2	1	- 1
Adequate opportunities for professional improvement (opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)	9	10	- 1	6	10	- 4
Provision for the supervision and/or guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues.	2	7	- 5	6	9	- 3
A reasonable work load (i.e. the possibility of the worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her)	3	4	- 1	4	3	- 1
TOTAL OF DIFFERENCES IN RANK ORDER	-	-	24	-	-	16

* WSIS = Work Satisfaction Importance Score

The high EQ group. Table XLIX shows similarities and differences between the ordering of work satisfaction priorities in Rank Order A and Rank Order B.

The principal similarity between the two rank orders is that lowest work satisfaction importance is attached, in both cases, to satisfactory service conditions and to adequate opportunities for professional improvement. These two aspects of work are both related to a worker's long-term career goals.

There are two principal differences. Firstly, two considerations associated with reward to the worker are each given considerably higher work satisfaction priority in Rank Order B. Indeed, in comparison to Rank Order A, both move up five places in rank: interesting work from 6th to 1st, and adequate salary from 7th to 2nd.

A second difference is that two work considerations show a notable drop in work satisfaction importance from Rank Order A to Rank Order B. The supervision and guidance of less experienced workers drops from 2nd to 7th, and the social work service being of real value to the community drops from 1st to 3rd.

It has earlier been suggested that Rank Order B will be a more realistic ordering of work satisfaction priority than Rank Order A. If this suggestion has substance, the actual work behaviour of high EQ group respondents should support Rank Order B. Specifically, interesting work and adequate salary should be major influences upon occupational mobility, while the "supervision and guidance of less experienced workers" should be a lesser influence.

Tables XXXI and XXXII, supra, reflect the factors that have influenced high EQ group respondents to choose and terminate social work jobs.

Interest in a field of social work is the most important influence on job choice, and good salary is the second most important influence. Similarly, being "more interested in another field" and dissatisfaction with salary are, jointly with other factors, the most frequent job dissatisfactions causing respondents to leave jobs.

On the other hand, the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers plays only a minor role in respondents' actual work behaviour. The "supervision and guidance of less experienced personnel" is not directly reported in Tables XXXI and XXXII, but "better non-physical working conditions" (which includes the provision of supervision) is the seventh most important influence on job choice, and dissatisfaction with non-physical working conditions is, jointly with other factors, the most frequent dissatisfaction influencing job termination.

Overall, therefor, on the three major points of difference between Rank Order A and Rank Order B, Rank Order B is supported by the actual work behaviour of high EQ group respondents.

<u>The low EQ group</u>. Table XLIX shows similarities and differences between the ordering of work satisfaction priorities in Rank Order A and Rank Order B. Unfortunately, however, one issue clouds a comparison of the two rank orders: in Rank Order A, the low EQ group allocate four different aspects of work the joint rank of 6th in work satisfaction importance.

Nevertheless, some similarities can be noted. Firstly, "adequate salary" is ranked 5th in both rank orders. Secondly, both rank orders show that aspects of work related to long-term career goals are not given high work satisfaction priority. Satisfactory service conditions is 10th in Rank Order A, and 7th in Rank Order B; adequate opportunities for professional improvement is ranked 6th in Rank Order A, and 10th in Rank Order B; while provision for the supervision and guidance of less experienced personnel is ranked 6th in Rank Order A, and 9th in Rank Order B. Thirdly, aspects of work relating to the provision of an effective social work service retain the same general importance (between 3rd and 6th) in both Rank Order A and Rank Order B.

On the other hand, there are two slight differences between Rank Order A and B. Firstly, interesting work is given a slightly higher rank in Rank Order B (1st) than in Rank Order A (2nd). Secondly, the reverse is true of "the service provided by the agency being of real value to the community", which is 2nd in Rank Order B, yet 1st in Rank Order A.

It has been suggested that Rank Order B will be the more realistic of the two rank orders. If this is so, then the actual work histories of low EQ group respondents should show "interesting work" to be a major influence on occupational mobility, and "the service provided by the agency being of real value to the community" to play a lesser part.

When Tables XXXI and XXXII are surveyed, there is partial support for Rank Order B being a realistic ranking. Interesting work is indeed the most important influence on job choice, but in job termination, being "more interested in another field" is only the fourth most frequent job dissatisfaction influence. Perhaps this is because the low EQ group

have (comparatively) fewer jobs. The "service provided by the agency being of real value to the community" is not directly reported as an influence on occupational mobility. However, the sixth most important influence on job choice is "scope for a high standard of service"; and when jobs are terminated, a belief that social work is "palliative" and "inability to practice social work of a high standard" are joint sixth most prevalent job dissatisfaction causes.

The conclusion can be reached, therefor, that both the high and low EQ groups give a more realistic reflection of their work satisfaction priorities in Rank Order B. As such, the high and low EQ groups follow a trend already established for respondents as a whole.

From this finding, a further question poses itself. Is there a greater discrepancy between the idealistic and realistic rankings of the one group, than of the other? It might be expected, for example, that the high EQ group (with an average of nine times more social work service than the low EQ group) will have moved towards a reconciliation of their ideal and realistic work satisfaction priorities. However, an examination of Table XLIX shows the converse of this expectation to be true:-

Firstly, the high EQ group have the greatest discrepancy between their idealistic and realistic orderings of work satisfaction priority. Table XLIX shows that the high EQ group have a total difference of 24 units between Rank Orders A and B, while the low EQ group have a difference of only 16 units.

Secondly, three major causes can be identified for the high EQ group's greater discrepancy. On the one hand, two aspects of work related to worker reward (interesting work, and adequate salary) each

increase in importance by five rank units from the idealistic to the realistic ranking; and on the other hand, the "supervision and guidance of of less experienced workers" drops in importance by five units from the idealistic to the realistic ranking.

No clear-cut explanation can be advanced for these findings. However, it is possible to put forward a number of tentative suggestions.

One suggestion might be that low EQ group respondents have not had sufficient exposure to social work practice for their "realistic" work satisfaction priorities to become different from their "ideal" priorities. Respondents in the low EQ group have an average of only 6.88 months actual social work service. Of the 29 social workers in the group, seven have never worked in the field. One consequence of this minimal practical experience may be that ideal work satisfaction values have never been seriously challenged by some reality demands. To give an example, it is unlikely that many low EQ group respondents will have experienced trying to combine the potentially conflicting demands of motherhood and social work.

Another suggestion might be that high EQ group respondents (who have an average of nine times as much social work experience as the low EQ group) may have <u>had</u> to adopt realistic work satisfaction priorities that are different from their ideal priorities. For example, the single woman who is her own source of financial support might ideally place great value on "a social work service being of real value to the community", yet realistically, she may have to place considerable importance on "adequate salary": her work is the source of her livelihood. A second example might be the married woman whose return to work is motivated by financial factors. In such a case, the work satisfaction priorities

that she is forced to adopt in practice might be different from her ideal priorities. A third example might be the married woman who is committed to her profession, yet who must seek a job that permits the combination of work-home roles. In the realistic situation, a social worker in this position might have to give top work satisfaction priority to aspects of work that reduce, or compensate for, work-home role conflict.

No single explanation exists to explain the high EQ group's wide disparity between ideal and realistic work satisfaction priorities. It seems likely that a number of different forces may combine together to produce this particular finding. Nevertheless, it is of note that those respondents with the most experience in social work have the greatest disparity between their ideal and realistic work satisfaction values.

8. Summary

Respondents were asked to assess the work satisfaction importance that they attach to ten selected aspects of work, by the two methods of assessing each aspect individually, and ranking the ten aspects comparatively. It is suggested that the former procedure results in an "idealised" ordering of work satisfaction priorities, while the latter procedure produces a more "realistic" ordering.

Respondents as a whole

On the basis of individual assessments of each item, respondents as a whole give highest work satisfaction priority to the "service provided by the agency being of real value to the community", to "interesting work", and to a "reasonable work load".

On the basis of a comparative ranking, respondents as a whole give top work satisfaction priority to "interesting work", "adequate salary", and the "service provided by the agency being of real value to the community".

In both the individual assessments and comparative rankings, lowest work satisfaction importance is given to satisfactory service conditions, and adequate opportunity for professional improvement.

High and low EQ groups

On the basis of individual assessments of each item, the high EQ group make greater work satisfaction demands than the low EQ group: the high EQ group place a greater work satisfaction premium on 8 of the 10 considerations assessed, and in the case of the remaining 2 considerations, the same work satisfaction premium as the low EQ group.

Both groups give prime work satisfaction priority to the "service provided by the agency being of real value to the community", and both groups give low work satisfaction importance to satisfactory service conditions, and opportunities for professional improvement.

On the basis of a comparative ranking, the high EQ group give top priority to "interesting work", "adequate salary", and the "service provided by the agency being of real value to the community". The low EQ group give top priority to "interesting work", the "service provided by the agency being of real value to the community" and a "reasonable work load."

Both groups place comparatively low work satisfaction importance on "opportunities for professional improvement", "working conditions", "service conditions" and "the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers".

Of the two groups, the high EQ group has the greatest disparity between an ordering of work satisfaction priorities in terms of individual assessments, and a comparative ordering.

Chapter 11

SOCIAL WORK JOBS AND WORK SATISFACTION

Chapter 11

SOCIAL WORK JOBS AND WORK SATISFACTION

Earlier findings in this research study have shown that respondents allocate different degrees of work satisfaction importance to different work considerations. How adequately do actual social work jobs meet respondents' work satisfaction priorities? The following chapter explores some answers to this question.

1. Respondents' assessment of their most recent social work jobs in terms of ten selected work considerations.

Table L, overleaf, reflects respondents' assessments of their "most recent" social work posts, in terms of ten selected work considerations. The work considerations assessed are identical to those which respondents ranked in work satisfaction importance in an earlier section of this research study (Tables XLIV and XLV, supra).

Three aspects of Table L require clarification. Firstly, the data in the table is based upon the individual assessments of only 79 respondents, as 7 respondents have never worked in the social work field.

Secondly, the term "work consideration assessment score" is defined, and its method of computation described, in an earlier section of this dissertation (p. 169 , supra). An abbreviated form of the term, WCAS, is used in this chapter.

TABLE L

RESPONDENTS' PERSONAL ASSESSMENT OF THEIR "MOST RECENT" SOCIAL WORK JOBS* IN TERMS OF TEN SELECTED WORK CONSIDERATIONS

Work Consideration	RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENT OF THEIR MOST RECENT SOCIAL WORK JOBS IN TERMS OF THIS WORK CONSIDERATION						WORK CONSIDERATION ASSESSMENT SCORE (WCAS) **
	GOOD		FAIR		POOR		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Salary	20	25.32	35	44.30	24	30.38	64.98
Service conditions (leave, pension, medical aid, etc.)	39	49.37	29	36.71	11	13.92	78.48
Working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)	31	39.24	24	30.38	24	30.38	69.62
Value of the Social Work service provided by the Agency to the community	45	56.96	29	36.71	5	6.33	83.54
Communication and co-operation (between staff, and between Staff and Volunteers).	34	43.04	27	34.18	18	22.78	73.54
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in agency) to appreciate points of view of professional Social Work staff	24	30.38	34	43.04	21	26.58	67.93
Interesting work	55	69.62	20	25.32	4	5.06	88.19
Opportunity for professional improvement (opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)	25	31.64	35	44.30	19	24.06	69.19
Supervision and/or Guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues	27	34.18	25	31.64	27	34.18	66.66
Reasonableness of work load (i.e. possibility of worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her).	19	24.06	30	37.97	30	37.97	62.03

N. of respondents = 79 (7 respondents had no jobs in social work); Potential range of WCAS's = 33.3 to 100.00

* Table LI, infra, reflects years in which "most recent social work jobs" were terminated.

** See p. 169 for description of "Work Consideration Assessment Score" (WCAS).

Thirdly, clarification is required on the relevance of respondents' "most recent" social work employment. For example, if many of the "most recent" social work jobs took place some years before the time of this research study (30.6.70), the findings will be of limited value and relevance to present-day conditions. Table LI, overleaf, reflects the years in which respondents' "most recent" social work posts are terminated.

The figures in Table LI show that of the 79 respondents who have had jobs in social work, 29.11% are either in their most recent jobs in June, 1970, or terminate them in the first six months of the year; 12.67% terminate them in 1969; 11.39% terminate them in 1968; 5.06% terminate them in 1967; and 8.86% terminate them in 1966. In other words, a total of 53 respondents, or 67.09% of all respondents who have worked in social work, are either in their most recent jobs at the time of this study, or terminate them in the five years preceding this date. For the majority of respondents, therefor, the "most recent post" that they assess is in the five-year period ending 30th June, 1970.

It is possible to discuss and interpret respondents' assessments of their "most recent" social work posts in terms of the frame of reference outlined on pp. 342 to 345 of the preceding chapter.

Table L shows that of the ten work considerations against which respondents assess their "most recent" posts, the two considerations most fully met are <u>interesting work</u> (a reward to the worker in personal satisfaction) and the <u>value of the social work service provided by the agency to the community</u> (an ethical consideration). The former

TABLE LI

RESPONDENTS' "MOST RECENT" JOBS IN SOCIAL WORK: YEAR IN WHICH THESE POSTS WERE TERMINATED. *

Year in which most recent social work job was terminated *	No. and % of respondents who terminated their most recent social work job in this year	
	No.	%
1970 *	23	29.11
1969	10	12.67
1968	9	11.39
1967	4	5.06
1966	7	8.86
1965	4	5.06
1964	3	3.80
1963	4	5.06
1962	5	6.33
1961	1	1.27
1960	2	2.53
1959	2	2.53
1958	0	-
1957	4	5.06
1956	1	1.27
1955	0	-
TOTAL	79 **	100.00

* The 21 respondents who were in the field of social work at the time of this study are incorporated into the "terminated in 1970" group.

** 7 respondents had no jobs in social work

has a WCAS of 88.19, and the latter a WCAS of 83.54.

The third most fully met consideration (WCAS of 78.48) is that of service conditions, an aspect of work associated with long-term career goals. Fourth highest WCAS of 73.54 is allocated to communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers, an aspect of work related to the provision of an effective social work service. Fifth highest WCAS of 69.62 is given to working conditions, a reward to the worker in personal and professional convenience.

Sixth and eighth highest WCAS's are allocated to two aspects of work associated with long-term career goals. Opportunity for professional improvement has a WCAS of 69.19, and supervision and guidance of less experienced personnel is allocated a WCAS of 66.66.

Seventh and tenth highest WCAS's are given to two aspects of work concerned with the provision of an effective social work service. The willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff has a WCAS of 67.93, while reasonableness of work load has a WCAS of 62.03.

Salary, a financial reward to the worker, has the ninth highest WCAS of 64.98.

Table L reveals three trends in respondents' assessments of their "most recent" social work posts:-

Firstly, only 2 of the 10 considerations are assessed as "good" by an outright majority of respondents: interesting work (69.62%), and the value of the social work service provided by the agency to the community (56.96%). These are also the two aspects of work allocated the highest WCAS.

Secondly, the three aspects of work least adequately met in terms of WCAS are reasonableness of work load, salary, and supervision and guidance of less experienced personnel.

Thirdly, 5 of the 10 considerations are assessed as "poor" by more than one-quarter of respondents. They are reasonableness of work load (37.97%); supervision and guidance of less experienced workers (34.18%); salary (30.38%); working conditions (30.38%); and willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff (26.58%).

The foregoing findings indicate that in terms of the ten work considerations used for assessment, conditions of employment and practice in respondents' "most recent" social work posts fall far short of the ideal.

2. Work considerations of importance to respondents for their work satisfaction, and the extent to which these considerations are met in respondents' most recent social work jobs.

The foregoing section of this chapter shows that in respondents' "most recent" jobs, some work considerations are more adequately met than others.

This finding gives rise to a number of pertinent questions. For example, how well do "most recent" jobs meet those aspects of work that are of high work satisfaction importance to respondents? Are there any marked discrepancies between respondents' work satisfaction priorities, and the actual conditions that they experience in their "most recent" jobs?

One way of providing partial answers to these questions is to compare respondents' assessments of how their "most recent" jobs meet ten selected work considerations, with their ranking of the same ten considerations in work satisfaction importance. This is done, in the form of a simple rank order comparison, in Table LII, overleaf.

Table LII shows that respondents' top work satisfaction priority, interesting work, is also the work consideration met most fully in their "most recent" social work posts. Similarly, their second most important work satisfaction priority, the agency's social work service being of value to the community, is second most fully met.

However, the tabulation shows a disparity between the two rankings for seven of the eight remaining considerations.

On the one hand, 3 work considerations have a lower rank order, when fulfilment in "most recent" posts is assessed, than they have when respondents rank them in work satisfaction importance. The work considerations of 3rd and 4th most work satisfaction importance, salary and reasonable work loads, are ranked 9th and 10th respectively in terms of fulfilment in "most recent" posts. In both cases, a marked gap is apparent between respondents' work satisfaction requirements and

TABLE LII

RANK ORDER COMPARISON: RESPONDENTS' RANKING OF TEN SELECTED WORK CONSIDERATIONS IN ORDER OF THEIR WORK SATISFACTION IMPORTANCE, AND RESPONDENTS' RANKING OF HOW FULLY THESE CONSIDERATIONS ARE MET IN THEIR "MOST RECENT" SOCIAL WORK JOBS

WORK CONSIDERATION	Respondents' Ranking of ten selected work considerations in order of importance for their work satisfaction * (N of Respondents = 84)	Respondents' "most recent" social work jobs: Rank Order of ten selected work considerations in terms of work consideration assessment score (WCAS) ** (N of Respondents = 79)
Interesting work	1	1
Value of the Social Work service provided by the Agency to the community	2	2
Salary	3	9
Reasonableness of work load (i.e. possibility of worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her).	4	10
Communication and co-operation (between staff, and between Staff and Volunteers.)	5	4
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in agency) to appreciate points of view of professional Social Work staff	6	7
Working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)	7	5
Supervision and/or Guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues.	8	8
Service conditions (leave, pension medical aid, etc.)	9	3
Opportunity for professional improvement (opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)	10	6

* Source: Table XLV

** Source: Table L

actual work conditions. A third work consideration, the agency policy-making body's willingness to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff, is ranked 6th in order of work satisfaction importance, yet ranked 7th in terms of fulfilment in "most recent" posts.

On the other hand, 4 work considerations are ranked higher in terms of fulfilment in "most recent" posts, than they are ranked in terms of work satisfaction priority. Firstly, communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers is ranked 5th in work satisfaction importance, yet ranked 4th in terms of fulfilment in "most recent" posts. Secondly, working conditions is ranked 7th in work satisfaction importance, yet 5th in terms of fulfilment in "most recent" posts. Thirdly, service conditions is ranked 9th in terms of work satisfaction importance, yet 3rd in terms of fulfilment in "most recent" posts. Lastly, opportunity for professional improvement is ranked 10th or least in work satisfaction importance, but is ranked 6th in terms of fulfilment in "most recent" posts.

Finally, the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues is ranked 8th both in work satisfaction importance, and in terms of fulfilment in "most recent" posts.

When the two rank orders in Table LII are compared, four main trends can be identified:-

Firstly, respondents place top work satisfaction priority on interesting work, and the social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community. These two considerations are

also the ones most adequately met in respondents' "most recent" social work jobs. The former is an intangible reward to the worker in personal satisfaction, and the latter relates to social work's value emphasis on benefit to the client.

Secondly, two considerations of high work satisfaction importance are inadequately met in respondents' most recent social work jobs. Salary, a financial reward to the worker, is ranked 3rd in work satisfaction importance, yet is ranked 9th in terms of adequate fulfilment in "most recent" posts. Indeed, 30.38% of respondents rate salary "poor" in their "most recent" posts, and a further 44.30% rate it only "fair". The other consideration, reasonable work loads, is ranked 4th in work satisfaction importance, yet is ranked 10th in terms of adequate fulfilment in "most recent posts". Table L shows that in their "most recent" posts, 37.97% of respondents rate reasonable work load "poor", and that a further 37.97% rate it only "fair".

Although this latter assessment of salary and reasonableness of work loads refers only to respondents' most recent jobs in social work, it is of interest to note that dissatisfactions with salary and work loads are the most common job dissatisfaction reasons for all resignation. Table XXVI, supra, shows that "inadequate salary" is active in 6.78% of all resignations. The table also shows that dissatisfaction with an inability to practice high-standard social work, and dissatisfaction with working hours and overtime (an indirect reflection of unreasonable work loads) together influence 9.04% of all resignations.

Thirdly, four work considerations are ranked 5th to 8th in work satisfaction importance, and are ranked 4th to 8th (although in a

slightly different order) in adequacy of fulfilment in "most recent" jobs. Two are related to the provision of an effective social work service (communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers; and willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of social work staff); one is a reward to the worker in personal and professional convenience (working conditions); and one is related to long-term career goals, although it is also related to the provision of an effective social work service (supervision and guidance of less experienced workers).

Fourthly, two work considerations associated with long-term career goals, service conditions and opportunity for professional improvement, are given the lowest work satisfaction importance rankings of 9th and 10th, yet are ranked 3rd and 6th respectively in terms of adequate fulfilment in "most recent" social work posts.

The foregoing trends would seem to indicate that in respondents' "most recent" jobs, the two top work satisfaction priorities (interesting work, and the agency's social work service being of real value to the community) are relatively adequately met. On the other hand, two high work satisfaction priorities (salary, and reasonable work loads) are relatively poorly met.

3. Respondents' assessment of their "most recent" social work jobs in terms of ten selected work considerations, by major fields of social work employment

Are respondents' work satisfaction priorities better met in some fields of social work employment than in others? One approach to answering this question is to analyse respondents' assessments of their "most recent" social work jobs, by major fields of social work employment.

The distribution of respondents' most recent jobs by fields of social work is shown in Table LIII, overleaf. Of the 79 most recent posts, 40.50% are in the field of child and family welfare; 17.72% in medical social work; 8.86% in psychiatric social work; 6.33% in social work education; 5.06% in each of the fields of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, and social work with prisoners; 3.80% in each of the three fields of alcoholism, community work, and physical disability; and 1.27% in each of the two fields of the aged, and school social work.

Table LIII shows that some fields of social work have very few "most recent" jobs, and the analysis that follows is restricted to respondents' major fields of employment. From an earlier finding in this study (Table XI, supra), it is known that these fields are child and family welfare, medical social work, psychiatric social work, social work with prisoners, social work with the physically disabled, and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. The former three fields each contain from 7 to 32 "most recent" jobs (or from 8.86% to 40.50% of "most recent" jobs); while the latter three fields each contain from 3 to 4 "most recent" jobs (or 3.80% to 5.06% of "most

TABLE LIII

RESPONDENTS' "MOST RECENT" SOCIAL WORK JOBS: DISTRIBUTION OF JOBS BY FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK

FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK	No. and % of respondents who have their "most recent" social work job in this field	
	No.	%
Aged	1	1.27
Alcoholism	3	3.80
Child and Family	32	40.50
Community	3	3.80
Department of Social Welfare & Pensions	4	5.06
Medical	14	17.72
Physical disability	3	3.80
Prisoners	4	5.06
Psychiatric	7	8.86
Recreation	2	2.53
School	1	1.27
Social Work Education	5	6.33
TOTAL:	79	100.00

recent" jobs).

Table LIV, overleaf, reflects respondents' assessment of how well 10 selected work considerations are met in their "most recent" social work posts, by the six major fields of social work employment.

In the following comparison of conditions of employment and practice in major fields of employment, use is again made of the frame of reference outlined on pp. 342 to 345 of the previous chapter. This frame of reference involved the division into four categories of the ten work considerations presented to respondents. The categories are aspects of work providing worker reward; aspects of work promoting long-term career goals; ethical aspects of work; and aspects of work promoting an effective social work service.

(i) Aspects of work that provide reward to the worker

Three of the ten work considerations are directly concerned with worker reward. They are interesting work, salary, and working conditions.

Interesting work, the work consideration given top work satisfaction priority by all respondents (Table XLV, supra), is allocated WCAS's ranging from 100 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions) to 66.66 (physical disability). In all fields except psychiatric social work and social work with the physically disabled, the WCAS allocated to interesting work is ranked 1st.

TABLE LIV

RESPONDENTS' PERSONAL ASSESSMENT OF THEIR "MOST RECENT" SOCIAL WORK JOBS IN TERMS OF TEN SELECTED WORK CONSIDERATIONS, BY MAJOR FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK EMPLOYMENT.

WORK CONSIDERATION	WCAS* and rank order of WCAS allocated to this consideration by respondents, by fields of their social work employment											
	Child & Family (N = 32)		Dept. of Social Welfare & Pensions (N = 4)		Medical (N = 14)		Physical Disability (N = 3)		Prisoners (N = 4)		Psychiatric (N = 7)	
	WCAS	Rank Order	WCAS	Rank Order	WCAS	Rank Order	WCAS	Rank Order	WCAS	Rank Order	WCAS	Rank Order
Salary	61.46	7	83.33	5	66.66	7	66.66	4	50.00	10	61.90	10
Service conditions (leave, pension, medical aid, etc.)	75.00	3	91.66	2	83.33	2	77.77	1	58.33	7	90.48	1
Working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)	66.66	6	91.66	2	71.43	5	77.77	1	58.33	7	76.18	6
Value of the Social Work service provided by the Agency to the community	83.33	2	75.00	6	78.57	3	77.77	1	83.33	1	90.48	1
Communication and co-operation (between staff, and between staff and volunteers).	69.79	4	58.33	7	73.81	4	66.66	4	66.66	4	85.71	3
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in agency) to appreciate points of view of professional Social Work staff	67.71	5	58.33	7	61.90	9	55.55	7	75.00	3	80.95	5
Interesting work	89.58	1	100.00	1	85.71	1	66.66	4	83.33	1	85.71	3
Opportunity for professional improvement (opportunity for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)	60.41	9	91.66	2	71.43	5	55.55	7	66.66	4	76.18	6
Supervision and/or Guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues	61.46	7	58.33	7	66.66	7	33.33	10	66.66	4	71.43	8
Reasonableness of work load (i.e. possibility of worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her.)	60.41	9	50.00	10	57.14	10	44.44	9	58.33	7	66.67	9
MEAN WCAS FOR THIS FIELD	69.58	-	75.83	-	71.66	-	62.16	-	66.66	-	78.57	-

* Work consideration assessment score. Term defined on page 169

Potential Range of WCAS's : 33.33 to 100.00

In the field of psychiatric social work, where intersting work has a WCAS rank of 3, the actual WCAS is the third highest given to this consideration in any field. The lower rank of 3rd for interesting work in the psychiatric field is a consequence of high WCAS's being given to other work considerations.

Salary, a financial reward to the social worker, is the consideration of third greatest work satisfaction importance to respondents (Table XLV, supra). Salary is allocated WCAS's ranging from 83.33 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions) to 50.00 (social work with prisoners), and WCAS ranks of from 4 (social work with the physically disabled) to 10 (social work with prisoners, and psychiatric social work).

The high WCAS of 83.33 allocated to salary in the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions can be partly explained: the salaries of social workers employed by the Department tend to be the barometer for social workers' salaries in other fields. When salary scales of the Department's social workers are reviewed, salary scales in community welfare organisations are often adjusted, although not always to the Department's level.

Also of note is the relatively high WCAS rank of 4 given to salary in the field of physical disability. The high rank of this consideration seems partially due to the low ranks allocated to other considerations in this field. The opposite would seem to apply in the field of psychiatric social work, where comparatively high ranks given to other considerations reduce the WCAS rank of salary to 10th.

Working conditions is related to worker reward in personal and professional convenience, but it is also associated with the provision of an effective social work service. For respondents as a whole, this consideration is ranked 7th in work satisfaction importance (Table XLV, supra). In "most recent" jobs in major fields of employment, working conditions is allocated WCAS's ranging from 91.66 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions) to 58.33 (social work with prisoners), and WCAS ranks ranging from 1 (social work with the physically disabled) to 7 (social work with prisoners).

The high WCAS allocated to working conditions in the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions is of note, and suggests that in this public social welfare agency, completely supported by State funds, there is less difficulty in providing adequate physical working conditions for social work personnel.

Overall, on the basis of respondents' assessment of their "most recent" jobs in major fields of social work employment, aspects of work related to worker reward are most adequately fulfilled in the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions.

(ii) Aspects of work that promote long-term career goals.

For the purposes of this present analysis, three aspects of work are considered to promote long-term career goals: service conditions, opportunity for professional improvement, and the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers.

Service conditions is ranked 9th in work satisfaction importance for respondents as a whole (Table XLV, supra). In "most recent" jobs, service conditions is allocated a WCAS ranging from 91.66 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions) to 58.33 (social work with prisoners), and WCAS ranks ranging from 1 (the physical disability and psychiatric fields) to 7 (social work with prisoners).

Perhaps it is of significance that the three highest WCAS's for service conditions (91.66, 90.48, and 83.33) are given to the three fields of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, medical social work, and psychiatric social work, respectively. This suggests better service conditions where the State (as in the Department) or the Province (as in many medical social work posts) is the employer. It may also suggest that when the social worker is engaged in an inter-disciplinary team with members of high-status professions (as in the medical,and some psychiatric settings), better service conditions result.

A second career-oriented consideration, and one to which respondents as a whole attribute lowest work satisfaction importance (Table XLV, supra), is opportunity for professional improvement. In respondents' "most recent" jobs, this work consideration is allocated WCAS's ranging from 91.66 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions) to 55.55 (the field of physical disability), and WCAS ranks ranging from 2 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions) to 9 (child and family welfare).

It is of note that the highest WCAS's for opportunity for professional improvement, 91.66 and 76.18, are allocated to the fields

of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, and psychiatric social work. The former field has a policy of encouraging social workers to improve their professional qualifications; and it can be suggested that the latter field has a tradition of social workers obtaining a specialist qualification after the completion of their generic social work education.

A third career-oriented consideration, and one to which respondents as a whole ascribe low work satisfaction importance (Table XLV, supra), is the supervision and guidance of less experienced personnel. This consideration is allocated WCAS's ranging from 71.43 (psychiatric social work) to 33.33 (social work with the physically disabled), and WCAS ranks ranging from 4 (social work with prisoners) to 10 (social work with the physically disabled).

The higher WCAS of 71.43 allocated to this consideration in psychiatric social work may be characteristic of tradition in this field, where a premium is placed upon close guidance of the beginning worker. It may also represent the indirect "guidance" which the psychiatric social worker receives through interaction with other members of the inter-disciplinary team.

The two lowest WCAS's for the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers are given to jobs in the field of social work with the physically disabled (33.33) and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions (58.13). In the case of the former, this lowest possible WCAS indicates that supervision was poor in all instances. The case of the latter is more difficult to explain. For some years, the Department has implemented a comprehensive "in-service training

programme" for new workers,[1] and perhaps the low WCAS for supervision and guidance of less experienced workers is related to the low WCAS allocated in this field to "communication and co-operation between personnel".

Overall, on a basis of respondents' assessment of their "most recent" jobs in major fields of social work, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions best meets two of the three aspects of work associated with long-term career goals.

(iii) Ethical aspects of work

The value of the social work service provided by the agency to the community is respondents' second most important work satisfaction priority (Table XLV, supra). In "most recent" jobs, this consideration is allocated WCAS's ranging from 90.48 (psychiatric social work) to 75.00 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions), and WCAS ranks ranging from 1 (psychiatric social work, social work with prisoners, and social work with the physically disabled) to 6 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions). Both extremes merit comment.

The high WCAS given to the value of the service in the psychiatric field is consistent with the high WCAS's given in this field to "communication and co-operation between staff" and to the "willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff": when there is good co-operation and sound team work, social workers have the opportunity to influence agency goals and standards of service. In consequence, they will feel that the service is of increased value to the community.

The opposite of the foregoing remarks may apply to the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. In the Department, a (comparatively) low WCAS is given to both "communication and co-operation between staff" and to "the willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff". Workers may thus feel that they cannot influence agency policy and procedures. In consequence, they may have reservations about the actual value of the social work service rendered to the community.

(iv) Aspects of work that promote an effective social work service

For the purposes of the present analysis, three aspects of work are considered to promote an effective social work service. They are communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers; the willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff; and reasonable work loads.

Communication and co-operation between staff, and between staff and volunteers is ranked 5th in work satisfaction importance by all respondents (Table XLV, supra). This consideration is allocated WCAS's ranging from 85.71 (psychiatric social work) to 58.33 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions), and WCAS ranks from 3 (psychiatric social work) to 7 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions). Both extremes merit comment.

The comparatively low WCAS and WCAS rank allocated to this consideration in the Department is perhaps indicative of the structure of a large State enterprise, where it can be suggested that an

hierarchy of authority exists, based upon rank and position. In the field of psychiatric social work, on the other hand, the opposite can be suggested: social workers operate as professional persons in their own right, and often as members of an interdisciplinary team. It can be suggested that the more authoritarian, bureaucratic structure of the former field will inhibit free communication and co-operation, while the more democratic structure of the latter field will encourage it.

The willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff is ranked 6th in work satisfaction importance by all respondents (Table XLV, supra). In "most recent" jobs, this consideration is allocated WCAS's ranging from 80.95 (psychiatric social work) to 55.55 (social work with the physically disabled), and WCAS ranks ranging from 3 (social work with prisoners) to 9 (medical social work).

The high WCAS given to this consideration in the field of psychiatric social work is consistent with the suggestion that psychiatric social workers are often members of inter-disciplinary teams, and may thus participate in policy formulation.

Also of note are the low WCAS's allocated to this consideration in the fields of the Department of Social Welfare, and medical social work (58.33 and 61.90, respectively). This finding is consistent with the suggestion that, in both of these settings, social workers may be part of an authoritarian structure (a Government Department, and a hospital, respectively).

No clear explanation is available for the low WCAS score (55.55) allocated to this consideration in the field of social work with the physically disabled. However, it can be observed that comparatively lower WCAS's are given to most considerations assessed in this field.

A reasonable work load is ranked 4th in work satisfaction importance by respondents (Table XLV, supra). This consideration is allocated WCAS's ranging from 66.67 (psychiatric social work) to 44.44 (social work with the physically disabled), and WCAS ranks ranging from 7 (social work with prisoners) to 10 (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions and medical social work). The comparatively low WCAS ranks given to this work consideration indicate that unreasonably heavy caseloads are common to all major fields of respondents' "most recent" employment.

Overall, on a basis of respondents' assessment of their "most recent" jobs in major fields of social work, the field of psychiatric social work best meets the three work considerations associated with the provision of an effective social work service.

Finally, one other approach can be used to compare conditions of employment and practice in the six major fields of social work employment: the mean WCAS allocated to respondents' "most recent" posts in each field.

The mean WCAS gives a general guide to the adequacy with which the ten selected work considerations are met in each field. However, the mean WCAS has limited use, as in computing this measurement, equal weighting is given to each individual WCAS. In reality, it is known

that respondents ascribe widely different work satisfaction importance to different work considerations.

Bearing this reservation in mind, it can be noted that the highest mean WCAS (78.57) is given to the field of psychiatric social work, the second highest (75.83) to the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, and the third highest (71.66) to medical social work. This would indicate that, overall, these three fields most fully meet the ten work considerations assessed in respondents' "most recent" jobs.

The three lowest mean WCAS's are allocated to the fields of child and family welfare (69.58), social work with prisoners (66.66), and social work with the physically disabled (62.16).

Six trends can be established from the foregoing discussion about conditions of employment and practice in respondents' "most recent" jobs in major fields of social work employment:-

Firstly, the ten work considerations assessed are better met in some fields than in others. Overall, psychiatric social work is the field that best meets the ten work considerations, and social work with the physically disabled is the field which least adequately meets them.

Secondly, the two work considerations that are generally best met in the fields are "interesting work", and the "value of the social work service provided by the agency to the community". However, there are exceptions. For example, in the field of physical disability, "interesting work" is allocated a WCAS of only 66.66, and a WCAS rank of 4. In the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions,

the "value of the social work service provided by the agency to the community" has a WCAS of 75.00, and a WCAS rank of 6.

Thirdly, the three work considerations associated with long-term career goals are most fully met in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, a public social welfare agency. However, one career-oriented work consideration (the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers) is met less adequately in the Department than in four other fields.

Fourthly, the three work considerations associated with the provision of an effective social work service are most fully met in the field of psychiatric social work.

Fifthly, work considerations associated with reward to the worker for her services are most fully met in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, where in their "most recent" jobs, respondents assess "interesting work", "salary" and "working conditions" to be better fulfilled than in any other major field of social work employment.

Finally, the ethical consideration of the agency's service being of value to the community is best met in the field of psychiatric social work.

4. Summary

Most of respondents' "most recent" jobs in social work (67.09%) were terminated in the five year period preceding the date of this study (30.6.70).

Respondents were asked to assess the adequacy with which their "most recent" jobs met ten selected work considerations.

Only two work considerations (interesting work, and the value of the social work service provided by the agency to the community) were assessed as "good" in their "most recent" posts by the majority of respondents.

On the other hand, more than one-quarter of respondents assessed their "most recent" jobs as "poor" in terms of reasonable work loads, supervision and guidance of less experienced workers, salary, working conditions, and willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff.

The foregoing findings indicate that conditions of employment and practice in respondents' "most recent" jobs fell somewhat short of the ideal.

Respondents' two top work satisfaction priorities (interesting work, and the value of the service provided by the agency to the community) are met relatively adequately in their "most recent" posts. However, two other work considerations with high work satisfaction importance (salary, and reasonable work loads) are met relatively poorly.

When "most recent" posts are analysed by major fields of social work employment, different patterns can be established for each field.

The field of psychiatric social work best meets aspects of work associated with the provision of an effective and valuable social work service. The field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions best meets aspects of work associated with reward to the worker, and most aspects of work associated with long-term career goals.

Overall, psychiatric social work is the field which best meets all ten work considerations, and social work with the physically disabled is the field which least adequately meets them.

REFERENCES

1. Report of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, 1966 - 1970, Pretoria, RP 83/1970, 1970, p. 32

PART IV : FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 12

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 12

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Presentation of findings

Two of the three major aims of this study are to establish and accurately convey data on the work patterns and work satisfactions of white female social workers.

(i) Respondents as a whole

a. The sample

Over the 11-year period 1955 to 1965, 117 European females graduated as social workers from the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand. Of these 117 graduates, 86 (or 73.50%) responded to a research questionnaire.

Most respondents qualified as social workers during their 20th, 21st and 22nd years of age, and most of them possessed a 4-year under-graduate degree in social work. At the time of this study (30th June, 1970) the median age of respondents was 30 years. Only 24.40% of respondents were in paid social work employment. Of the remaining 75.60%, most were not employed in social work as a result of pregnancy and child-rearing, or full-time employment outside the profession.

b. Employment in social work

Respondents realise only 32.99% of their potential working lives in social work (2890.5 months out of a possible 8760 months).

The average length of their 198 jobs is 14.59 months. Employment is reported in 15 fields of social work, but most jobs are in the six fields of child and family welfare, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, medical social work, social work with prisoners, psychiatric social work, and social work with the physically disabled.

Part-time work is reported in 12 of the 15 fields of employment. However, part-time work forms only a minor part of all work (6.9%).

Age is closely related to employment. From the age of 22 years, when 70.50% of respondents are in paid social work employment, there is a decrease in the proportion of respondents employed each year until the age of 34 years, when only 7.15% are employed. After 34 years, the employment pattern becomes irregular. Respondents give the major part of their contribution to social work in their younger, less-experienced years.

Age is also related to field of employment. In their younger years, respondents tend to work in the broad field of child and family welfare (i.e. in community welfare organisations concerned with child and family welfare, and in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions). As they grow older, they tend to favour employment in more "specialised" fields of social work.

In addition, age is related to part-time employment. Firstly, the bulk of part-time employment takes place during the age range 22 to 31 years, thus overlapping the period during which occupational wastage for pregnancy and child-rearing is greatest. Secondly, the proportion of part-time employment to all employment increases with age from 22 to 31 years.

Overall, respondents average 33.61 months employment in social work.

c. Occupational wastage

Almost two-thirds of respondents' potential work contribution in social work is lost to the profession (67.00%; or 5869.5 months out of 8760 months). Respondents report 256 periods of wastage, each lasting an average length of 22.49 months.

The predominant cause of occupational wastage is pregnancy and child-rearing, which accounts for 56.15% of all wastage. Marriage *per se* is a minor reason for wastage, responsible for only 3.47% of all absence from the profession. The second most prevalent cause of occupational wastage is employment outside social work. Full-time employment outside the profession accounts for 24.03% of all wastage, while part-time employment accounts for only 4.74%.

Besides the four reasons for occupational wastage named above, no other category of wastage accounts for more than 4% of all absence from the profession. Of particular note, however, is the small part of all wastage (1.76%) that is attributable to "awaiting social work

vacancies". This suggests that social work posts are generally readily available.

Age and occupational wastage are closely related. From the age of 22 years (when 29.50% of respondents are not employed in social work) there is an increase in the proportion of respondents out of the field each year until the age of 34 years, when 92.85% are outside the profession. After 34 years, occupational wastage patterns become irregular.

Age is also related to the causes of occupational wastage. Wastage due to pregnancy and child-rearing takes place extensively from 20 to 36 years of age, steadily increasing its proportion of all wastage from the ages of 23 to 32 years; wastage due to full- and part-time employment outside the profession mainly takes place during the same age range; and wastage due to further study is greatest in the early and middle twenties. Other types of wastage are less clearly age-related.

In addition to providing reasons for their own occupational wastage, respondents record 49 reasons which they consider to cause occupational wastage amongst female social workers generally. The majority of these reasons (89.80%) are related to difficulties which female social workers encounter when they attempt to combine home and work roles. The main difficulties are a lack of adequate substitute care for pre-school children; a lack of social work posts where workers are employed on a part-time or sessional basis; and a lack of social work posts where working hours coincide with school hours.

d. Occupational mobility

Respondents record a total of 198 jobs in social work, 177 of which had been terminated by the time of this study. The average number of jobs per respondent is 2.06.

No direct relationship can be established between experience (as measured by year of graduation) and occupational mobility (as measured by average number of jobs).

Respondents report 267 reasons for choosing their 198 jobs. The five major reasons for job choice, and the percentage of job acceptances in which they are active, are interest in a field of social work (56.06%), good salary (19.19%), a job being the "only job available" (18.18%), suitable hours (13.13%), and the availability of locum tenens posts (11.11%). No other reason for job choice is active in more than 7% of all jobs accepted.

Respondents give 204 reasons for resigning from 177 jobs. The largest proportion of reasons (43.63%) are family-oriented, and consist of pregnancy, transfer of husband/family, marriage and "other family reasons". A further 27.94% of all reasons concern specific job dissatisfactions. Nine types of job dissatisfaction are identified, but besides dissatisfaction with inadequate salary and becoming "more interested in another field", no individual dissatisfaction is active in more than 5% of all resignations. Finally, the remaining 28.43% of reasons are unrelated to either family responsibilities or to job dissatisfaction. Of note, however, is that 12.99% of all resignations involve locum tenens positions coming to an end, and that a further 11.86%

of all resignations are occasioned by respondents embarking upon extended holidays and travel, usually overseas.

A relationship can be suspected between some reasons for job choice, average length of job, and reasons for resignation. Specifically, it can be suspected that when jobs are chosen because of "interest in a field of social work", average length of job is longer, and job dissatisfactions play a lesser part in resignation. The converse can be suspected when jobs are chosen because they are "the only jobs available". Great caution should be excercised in viewing this tenuous finding: many variables are uncontrolled, and the indications observed may be a result of chance.

Occupational mobility (as measured by job resignation) is related to age. It is greatest in the 20 to 24 year age range (when 38.05% of respondents leave their jobs <u>each year</u>), steadily decreasing until the 30 to 34 year age range (when 7.14% of respondents leave their jobs each year). Thus, occupational mobility is least at those ages where occupational wastage is greatest, and vice versa.

The principal causes of occupational mobility are also related to age. Job termination for family-oriented reasons steadily increases from the age range 20 to 24 years, to the age range 30 to 34 years, where it is at its peak. Job termination brought about by job dissatisfaction is greatest in the age range 20 to 24 years. Most job termination caused by extended holidays/travel is in the age range 20 to 24 years, while most job termination for further study is in the age range 25 to 29 years.

e. Other types of mobility

Geographical mobility is active in 31.07% of all jobs terminated. Most geographical mobility is brought about by the transfer of husband/family. To a lesser extent, geographical mobility is caused by extended holidays and travel.

Vertical upward mobility is reported on 15 occasions. The most frequent change in occupational rank is from "social worker" to "senior social worker". Of note is the fact that only 4 of the 15 promotions occur when respondents remain with the same employer, while 11 of the 15 promotions are achieved by moving from one employer to another.

f. Work satisfaction

Two methods were used to establish respondents' work satisfaction priorities. Firstly, respondents were asked to assess the work satisfaction importance that they would attach to ten selected aspects of work, by assessing each aspect individually. Secondly, they were asked to rank the same ten aspects in work satisfaction importance to themselves. It can be suggested that the former method results in a more "idealised" assessment, while the latter leads to a more "realistic" ordering.

On the basis of individual assessments of each item, respondents give top work satisfaction priority to "the service provided by the agency being of real value to the community", "interesting work", and

"reasonable work loads", in that order.

On the basis of a comparative ranking, respondents give highest work satisfaction priority to "interesting work", followed by "the service provided by the agency being of real value to the community", and "adequate salary".

A principal similarity between the two orderings in work satisfaction importance is that lowest work satisfaction importance is given to two aspects of work which can be associated with long-term career goals (service conditions, and opportunities for professional improvement).

Two principal differences exist between the orderings. Firstly, three aspects of work that can be associated with reward to the worker (interesting work, adequate salary, and working conditions) are given a higher work satisfaction priority on the realistic, comparative ordering, than they are on the idealistic, non-comparative ordering. Secondly, the reverse is true for "the supervision and guidance of less experienced workers", which is given comparatively high work satisfaction importance ideally, and comparatively low importance realistically.

These findings suggest that respondents have different work satisfaction values in the ideal and realistic situations.

g. Social work jobs and work satisfaction

The majority (67.09%) of respondents' "most recent" jobs were terminated in the five-year period preceding the date of this study. Respondents were asked to assess the adequacy with which their "most

recent" jobs met the same ten aspects of work that they earlier assessed in work satisfaction importance.

Only two of the ten work considerations (interesting work, and the value of the social work service to the community) were assessed as "good" in their "most recent" posts by a majority of respondents.

On the other hand, more than 25% of respondents assessed their "most recent" posts as "poor" in terms of reasonable work loads (37.97%), supervision and guidance of less experienced workers (34.18%), working conditions (30.38%), salary (30.38%), and willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff (26.58%).

There is a considerable difference in the adequacy with which "most recent" posts meet respondents' four top work satisfaction priorities. "Interesting work" and "the value of the social work service to the community" are met relatively adequately. "Salary" and "reasonable work loads" are met relatively poorly.

(ii) First jobs in social work

Of the 86 respondents, 79 report first jobs in social work. The average length of first jobs is longer than the average length of all jobs (17.5 months, as compared to 14.5 months).

The major fields of first employment are identical to the major fields of all employment. However, most first jobs (55.70%) are in the broad field of child and family welfare (either in community

child and family welfare agencies, or in the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions), whereas most later jobs (66.38%) are in other "specialised" fields of social work.

When reasons for the choice of first jobs are compared with reasons for the choice of later jobs, five main differences can be identified. First job choice is more influenced by "interest in a field of social work" (67.09% of first jobs, as compared to 48.74% of later jobs), and by jobs being the only available vacancies (22.78% of first jobs, as compared to 15.12% of later jobs). On the other hand, first job choice is less influenced by "good salary" (13.92% of first jobs, as compared to 22.69% of later jobs), suitable working hours (8.86% of first jobs, as compared to 15.96% of later jobs), and the availability of locum tenens posts (5.06% of first jobs, as compared to 15.12% of later jobs).

When resignation from first jobs is compared to resignation from later jobs, two main trends can be observed. Firstly, job dissatisfaction is more prevalent in resignation from first jobs than from later jobs (40.21% of all reasons for resignation, as compared to 16.82%). The most common dissatisfactions in first job resignation are with inadequate salary, and "becoming more interested in another field of social work". Secondly, family-oriented reasons are less common in resignation from first jobs than in resignation from later jobs (37.11% of all reasons for resignation, as compared to 49.53% of all reasons). In resignation from first jobs, the most frequent individual family-oriented reasons are pregnancy and marriage.

Most respondents (73.42%) have second jobs in social work. Of the respondents who do have second jobs, the large majority (67.24%) change their field of employment when they move from first to second jobs.

(iii) High and low employment quotient groups

The high EQ group consists of the 29 respondents with the highest EQ's (median EQ: 60.25), while the low EQ group consists of the 29 respondents with the lowest EQ's (median EQ: 4.61).

a. Employment in social work

The low EQ group realise only 199.5 months of actual service in social work out of a potential 3342 months. The high EQ group realise 1814 months out of a potential 2526 months. Members of the low EQ group average 6.88 months social work employment, while members of the high EQ group average 62.55 months.

The high EQ group have more jobs than the low EQ group (96, as compared to 29), and they spend a longer mean period in each job (18.80 months, as compared to 6.88 months). The high EQ group give proportionally more service to the broad field of child and family welfare (i.e. community welfare organisations concerned with child and family welfare, and the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions).

b. Occupational wastage

The mean occupational wastage for members of the high EQ group is 24.55 months, while for the low EQ group it is 108.36 months.

Of particular note is that the average length of each wastage period is more than three times longer for the low EQ group than for the high EQ group (37.86 months, as compared to 10.30 months).

Two major reasons are apparent for the low EQ group's greater occupational wastage. Firstly, the low EQ group attribute 1659 months (or 52.79%) of their wastage to pregnancy and child-rearing (high EQ group: 248 months, or 34.83% of all their wastage). Secondly, the low EQ group have considerably more wastage due to full- and part-time employment outside social work. They attribute 1220 months (or 38.83%) of all their wastage to these reasons (high EQ group: 118 months, or 16.57% of all their wastage).

The different occupational wastage patterns of the high and low EQ groups cannot be solely attributed to the low EQ group being a relatively older group.

c. Occupational mobility

When the high and low EQ groups' reasons for job choice are compared, it is of note that both groups give the same five principal reasons. However, two main differences in emphasis are apparent. Firstly, "interest in a field of social work" is proportionally more influential in the low EQ group's job choice (active in 68.97% of jobs accepted, as compared to 54.17% of jobs accepted by the high EQ group). Secondly, "good salary" plays a greater part in the high EQ group's job choice (active in 21.88% of jobs accepted, as compared to 17.24% of jobs accepted by the low EQ group).

It is likely that both of the above differences are a result of proportionally more low EQ group jobs than high EQ group jobs being first posts in social work.

When the high and low EQ groups' reasons for resignation are compared, three main differences are apparent.

Firstly, family-oriented reasons are proportionally more prevalent in the resignations of the low EQ group (41.18% of all reasons, as compared to 34.04% in the high EQ group). This finding is a result of the low EQ group leaving proportionally more jobs on account of marriage per se. Secondly, job dissatisfactions are slightly more prevalent in the resignations of the low EQ group (35.29% of all reasons, as compared to 32.98% in the high EQ group). Finally, the high EQ group resign from proportionally more jobs on account of reasons that are neither family-oriented nor job dissatisfactions. This is largely due to a propensity in high EQ group respondents to embark on extended holidays and travel. Indeed, 15% of high EQ group jobs are terminated for this reason, as compared to 3.5% of low EQ group jobs.

d. Work satisfaction

The work satisfaction priorities of the high and low EQ groups were established in two ways. Firstly, respondents were asked to assess each of 10 selected work considerations in work satisfaction importance. This non-comparative assessment represents work satisfaction priority in an "ideal" situation. Secondly, they were asked to comparatively rank the same ten considerations in work satisfaction importance to themselves. This represents a more "realistic" ordering.

When they assess the work satisfaction importance of ten considerations individually, the high EQ group make greater work satisfaction demands than the low EQ group: they place a greater work satisfaction premium on 8 of the 10 considerations, and in the case of the remaining two considerations, the same work satisfaction premium as the low EQ group. However, the two groups are similar in that both give top work satisfaction priority to "the service provided by the agency being of real value to the community", and both groups give low work satisfaction importance to "service conditions" and "opportunities for professional improvement".

On the basis of a direct, comparative ranking in work satisfaction importance, the high EQ group give top priority to "interesting work", "adequate salary", and "the service provided by the agency being of real value to the community", in that order. The low EQ group give top priority to "interesting work", "the service provided by the agency being of real value to the community", and "reasonable work loads", in that order. Both groups place relatively low work satisfaction importance on "opportunities for professional improvement", "working conditions", "service conditions", and the "supervision and guidance of less experienced workers".

When "ideal" and "realistic" rankings in work satisfaction importance are compared, the high EQ group show a greater disparity between the two orderings than the low EQ group: the high EQ group have a total difference of 24 units between the two rank orders, whereas the low EQ group have a difference of only 16 units.

Three specific reasons can be identified for the high EQ group's greater disparity. On the one hand, two aspects of work related to worker reward ("interesting work" and "adequate salary") each increase 5 rank units in work satisfaction importance from the "ideal" to the "realistic" ranking. On the other hand, the "supervision and guidance of less experienced workers" drops in importance by 5 rank units from the "ideal" to the "realistic" ranking.

These findings suggest that those respondents with the most experience in social work have the greatest disparity between their ideal and realistic work satisfaction priorities.

(iv) Fields of social work employment

Respondents in this study report employment in 15 fields of social work. The six fields in which most jobs are recorded are the fields of child and family welfare, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, Medical social work, psychiatric social work, social work with prisoners, and social work with the physically disabled.

When reasons for job choice are compared by major fields of employment, "interest in a field of social work" is the major reason for job choice in all fields. In three fields (the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, medical social work and psychiatric social work) "good salary" is the second most important reason for job choice. In the other three fields, the second most important reason for job choice is that jobs were "the only jobs available". No other single reason influences the choice of more than 15% of jobs in any major field.

When reasons for resignation are examined by major fields of employment, family-oriented reasons form the largest group of reasons for resignation in four of the six fields. The exceptions are the fields of child and family welfare, and physical disability. In the former field, job dissatisfactions are the major group of reasons for resignation, while in the latter field, there are an equal proportion of family-oriented and job dissatisfaction reasons. However, from 17.24% to 38.46% of all reasons for resignation in each major field of employment concern one or other specific job dissatisfaction.

Finally, when respondents assess the adequacy with which their "most recent" jobs in major fields of employment meet 10 selected work considerations, two trends can be established. Firstly, psychiatric social work is the field which best meets all 10 work considerations. In addition, the psychiatric field most adequately fulfils specific aspects of work associated with the provision of an effective and valuable social work service. Secondly, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions best meets aspects of work associated with reward to the worker for her services, and most aspects of work associated with a worker's long-term career goals.

2. Testing of tentative hypotheses.

The third aim of this research study is to use data obtained on respondents' work patterns and work satisfactions to test two tentative hypotheses.

(i) First hypothesis

The first hypothesis identified for testing can be stated as follows:-

H 1. The demands of the role of wife-mother may at times be so pressing that female social workers will be prevented from work participation.

The findings of this study show that respondents realise only 33.91% of their potential service in social work (or 2890.5 months out of a possible 8760 months).

Of the 5869.5 months of occupational wastage, 3296 months (or 56.15%) is due to pregnancy and child-rearing, and a further 204 months (or 3.47%) is due to marriage *per se*. Together, these two categories form 59.62% of all occupational wastage.

This finding supports the hypothesis stated.

It is of note that wife-mother duties are the greatest cause of occupational wastage, and that more service is lost to the profession for this reason than for all other reasons combined. However, it is interesting to observe that while respondents often find it impossible to combine a "mother" role with work, they do not experience quite the same difficulty in combining the roles of social worker and "wife": there is more than fifteen times as much occupational wastage for "pregnancy and child-rearing" as there is for "marriage" *per se*.

(ii) Second hypothesis

The second hypothesis identified for testing can be stated as follows:-

> H 2. The need to accommodate conflicting home and work demands will have two consequences for female social workers:-
>
> Firstly, they will give high work satisfaction importance to aspects of work which reduce, or compensate for, work-home role conflict;
>
> Secondly, they will give low work satisfaction importance to aspects of work associated with long-term career goals.

To test the foregoing hypothesis against the data of this study, an interpretation is required of which aspects of work "reduce work-home role conflict", and which aspects of work are "associated with long-term career goals".

Ten work considerations were presented to respondents for assessment in work satisfaction importance. It can be suggested that three of these considerations will either reduce, or compensate for, work-home role conflict. They are "interesting work" (a compensation in personal satisfaction); "adequate salary" (a financial compensation); and "working conditions" (a compensation in personal and professional convenience, which may also serve to reduce conflict, for example by providing suitable working hours).

Using the above interpretation, the findings of this study show that when respondents rank ten selected aspects of work in work satisfaction importance, "interesting work" and "adequate salary" are ranked 1st and

3rd, respectively. "Working conditions" is ranked only 7th. Thus "interesting work" and "adequate salary" are given high work satisfaction importance, whereas "working conditions" is not.

This tendency is also apparent when respondents' actual work patterns are examined. "Interest in a field of social work" and "good salary" are the two most common reasons for job choice. Dissatisfaction with inadequate salary and "becoming more interested in another field of social work" are the two most common job dissatisfactions in resignation. "Working conditions" is of only minor importance in job choice and resignation.

The second part of the hypothesis refers to aspects of work associated with long-term career goals. It can be suggested that three of the ten work considerations presented to respondents are associated with a worker's long-term career goals. These are "opportunities for professional improvement" (which enable the worker to develop her professional knowledge and skills); the "supervision and guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues" (which enables the beginning worker to develop her skills); and "service conditions" (leave, sick leave, medical aid, pension, written contract of service etc.; which provide the worker with long-term job security).

Using the above interpretation, the findings of this study show that when respondents rank 10 selected aspects of work in work satisfaction priority, "adequate opportunities for professional improvement", the "supervision and guidance of less experienced workers", and "service conditions" are ranked 10th, 8th and 9th respectively. In other

words, these considerations are of lowest work satisfaction importance.

The foregoing tendency is also apparent when respondents' actual work patterns are examined. When they choose social work jobs, "scope for a high standard of service" (which includes opportunity for professional improvement) is active in only 6.06% of job choice. "Better non-physical working conditions" (which includes the provision of supervision) is active in only 3.03% of job choice. "Satisfactory service conditions" is not reported as an influence upon job choice.

In resignation, an "inability to practice social work of a high standard" and "poor non-physical working conditions" are each active in only 4.52% of all resignations. No resignation is caused by dissatisfaction with service conditions.

The above findings indicate that respondents give high work satisfaction importance to "interesting work" and "adequate salary" (both of which are interpreted to be potential compensations for work-home role conflict). On the other hand, they give low work satisfaction importance to "opportunities for professional improvement", the "supervision and guidance of less experienced workers", and "service conditions""(all of which are interpreted to be associated with a worker's long-term career goals).

These findings are in accordance with the hypothesis stated. However, do these findings occur as a <u>result</u> of female social workers having to accommodate conflicting home and work demands?

No proof of a causal relationship can be established. Indeed, spinster social workers, or for that matter male social workers, might well place a high work satisfaction premium on "interesting work" and "adequate salary". Social workers as a profession might place (comparatively) low work satisfaction importance on "opportunities for professional improvement", the "supervision and guidance of less experienced workers" and "service conditions".

The findings of this study do not lend full support to the second hypothesis. What the findings do indicate, however, is that the social workers studied in this research project place a high work satisfaction premium on interesting work and good salary. Conversely, they place low work satisfaction importance on some aspects of work associated with long-term career goals.

This may or may not be a result of some female social workers needing to accommodate work-home role conflict. Nevertheless, the findings of this study serve to support a suspicion that there may be a relationship between the home responsibilities of some female social workers, and their realistic work satisfaction priorities. The tenuous indication that emerges from this study merits further investigation.

3. Discussion of major findings

The nineteen major findings of this study are identified and discussed in the following section. Where appropriate, findings are compared to the findings of other investigators.

(i) Respondents spend more of their professional lives outside the profession, than within it

The overall proportion of occupational wastage of respondents in this study (67.00%) is greater than in any other study known to the investigator.

White female social workers in McKendrick's Durban study had a mean occupational wastage rate of 33%[1]; Timms' English female psychiatric social workers had mean occupational wastage rates of 10% to 32%, depending on their marital status[2]; and in the United States of America, Lewin's female social workers had an occupational wastage rate of 47.1%[3], while those of Tropman had a rate of 56.1%[4].

It is possible that the high occupational wastage rate of respondents in this study is related to their age. Respondents have a median and modal age of 30 years, and are thus younger than the female subjects in McKendrick's study[5] or in Lewin's study[6] (the age of Timms' and Tropman's subjects is not provided). It is known that occupational wastage is greatest in the late twenties and early thirties. Thus, it is possible that respondents in the present study are passing through the age range where occupational wastage is most prevalent.

(ii) Most social work service is given by respondents when they are young and inexperienced.

The employment and occupational wastage of respondents is closely related to their age. The greatest part of respondents' employment takes place in their younger, less-experienced years (the early and

mid-twenties). As they grow older, they tend to be absent from the profession, usually for pregnancy and child-rearing.

Most early employment is in the broad field of child and family welfare, while most later employment is in more "specialised" fields of social work. Thus, the field of child and family welfare provides the main training ground for respondents. When respondents become more experienced, they favour employment in other fields. This finding is not unique to respondents in this study, and has been substantiated by other investigations.[7]

The implication of these findings is that South Africa's basic field of social work - the welfare of children and their families - is not attractive to many experienced workers.

(iii) Part-time employment is not common

Part-time and sessional employment forms a minor part of all employment (6.9%). This is a surprising finding, in view of the fact that the greatest part of respondents' occupational wastage is brought about by their wife-mother duties: part-time employment would seem the obvious way to "reach out" to these married respondents, and enable them to give some service to the profession.

This finding may indicate that there is a shortage of part-time and sessional posts in social work. Indeed, when respondents identify reasons for occupational wastage amongst social workers, 30.61% of all their comments concern a lack of sessional posts, and 12.25% concern a lack of posts where working hours coincide with school hours.

It would seem that many social work agencies are not offering sessional and part-time positions that would appeal to the married social worker. In the six major fields of employment, part-time work does not form more than 16.8% of all service in any field. The field of child and family welfare, which has the largest share of part-time work (33.5 months), has a ratio of part-time to full-time work of only 3.8 : 96.2.

Social work agencies appear to be neglecting the potential contribution of married women workers by not offering sufficient part-time and sessional positions.

(iv) The major cause of occupational wastage is the home responsibilities of some respondents.

The findings of this study show that pregnancy and child-rearing accounts for 56.15% of all occupational wastage, while marriage *per se* accounts for a further 3.47%. Thus, 59.62% of wastage is due to respondents' home duties.

Other studies support the finding that family-oriented reasons predominate in the occupational wastage of female social workers. McKendrick found that white female social workers in Durban attributed 71% of all their wastage to marital and family causes,[8] while in other countries, Timms,[9] Tropman[10] and Lewin[11] all agree that home duties are the major reason for female workers' wastage.

The findings of this study show that occupational wastage for family reasons is least in the early twenties, and then forms an

increasingly larger proportion of all wastage each year until 32 years of age. Thus, family-oriented reasons lie behind the bulge in occupational wastage that occurs in the late twenties and early thirties.

It is of interest to note that when the high and low EQ groups of respondents are compared, the principal cause of the low EQ group's lesser service in social work is their family duties. The low EQ group have 1659 months of wastage due to pregnancy, child-rearing and marriage, while the high EQ group have only 248 months of wastage for these reasons.

Far-reaching implications for social work manpower emerge from these findings. It would seem that respondents give most service in their early twenties, and then become increasingly prone to occupational wastage for family reasons. Thus, the profession will be characterised by a (relative) abundance of young, inexperienced workers, and a (relative) shortage of workers at the "middle range" senior social worker or supervisor level.

(v) Employment outside social work accounts for more than one-quarter of all occupational wastage.

The second major cause of occupational wastage is employment outside social work (28.77% of all wastage). A popular explanation for the employment of female social workers outside the profession is that they can obtain part-time work with congenial working hours. However, the findings of this study do not support the foregoing explanation: there is more than five times as much full-time employment outside

social work as there is part-time employment.

Nevertheless, it is possible that work outside the profession may offer more congenial working conditions to the married woman worker. This suggestion receives support from an additional finding of this study, namely that employment outside the profession is greatest at the ages when occupational wastage for pregnancy and child-rearing is most prevalent.

Whatever the motivation for the large amount of wastage due to employment outside social work, the phenomenon is in itself disturbing. Further investigation is indicated, particularly in view of the fact that the findings of this study are supported by the findings of other investigations: in the 1966 study of Durban social workers, for example, McKendrick found that white female social workers attributed 22% of their wastage to employment outside the profession.[12]

(vi) Respondents experience little difficulty in finding social work vacancies, when they wish to do so.

Employment outside social work is not due to a shortage of full-time social work posts. Indeed, a very small amount of all occupational wastage (1.76%) is caused by "awaiting social work vacancies".

On most of the occasions when respondents attribute wastage to an absence of social work positions, they are resident in small rural areas or in foreign countries.

This finding suggests that there may be a shortage of social workers in South Africa to fill full-time posts in urban centres.

(vii) Factors outside the profession contribute to respondents' occupational wastage

Earlier findings of this study have shown that the major cause of respondents' occupational wastage is pregnancy and child-rearing. Although respondents suggest that a paucity of part-time and sessional jobs prevents married women returning to social work, other inhibiting factors are also operative.

Respondents indicate that in their opinion, a major extra-work cause of occupational wastage is the lack of adequate pre-school care for young children. This factor forms 46.94% of all additional reasons for occupational wastage that they identify. There is little doubt that in South Africa as a whole, substitute care services for pre-school children are under-developed. Coupled to this is the fact that respondents seem particularly conscious of the adequacy of pre-school care for their children: they seek more than custodial care, and emphasise their desire for full nursery school facilities.

To a lesser extent, respondents report dissatisfaction with excessive income tax for married women workers (6.12% of all additional reasons for occupational wastage).

Whereas taxation of the married woman's income has become more equitable in the 1970's, there has not been the same dramatic improvement in the provision of adequate substitute care for pre-school children. The lack of nursery school facilities remains a barrier to the mother who would like to return to work.

(viii) Respondents do not remain in social work jobs for long periods of time

The average length of all jobs reported by respondents is 14.59 months. However, average length of job is considerably longer in some fields of social work than in others. In the field of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, for example, average length of job is 27 months.

The mean length of job found in this study is shorter than the mean length of job reported by other investigators. The 1966 study of Durban social workers found that white females averaged 3 to 4 years in each job (although their modal length of job was only one year).[13] In England, Timms has reported that female psychiatric social workers have an average length of job of from 2 years to 5.2 years, depending on their marital status.[14]

It seems possible that the shorter mean job length of respondents in this study may be attributable to their relative youth: occupational mobility is greatest in the lower age range of 20 to 24 years, and decreases with increasing age.

Despite this explanation, the lower mean length of job found in this study provides grounds for concern. An average stay of less than 1½ years in each job means that social work agencies may experience rapid staff turnover, with consequent implications for the standard of service.

(ix) The major reason for job choice is interest in a field of social work, while other reasons are of lesser influence.

"Interesting work" is the predominant motivation in job choice (active in 56.06% of jobs accepted). Thus, in the practical situation, respondents are primarily attracted to jobs which will provide them with personal satisfaction.

Four other reasons influence the acceptance of from 10% to 20% of all jobs: good salary, jobs being "the only jobs available", suitable working hours, and the availability of locum tenens posts. The two latter reasons are potentially related to the wife-mother role carried by some respondents.

A striking feature of respondents' reasons for job choice is the small part played by some long-term career motivations. Indeed, moving to a "more senior post" is active in only 2.02% of jobs accepted, and "service conditions" is not mentioned.

It is tempting to attribute this particular pattern of job choice to respondents' femininity and to their mother-wife roles. However, until the findings of this study can be compared with data on male social workers, no definite conclusions can be drawn.

Despite the above limitation, it can be noted that the two most potent forces in job choice are anticipated personal satisfaction (through "interesting" work), and anticipated financial reward (through "good salary"). Both of these factors involve reward to the worker for her services.

(x) Family-oriented reasons are the major cause of resignation

Family-oriented reasons play a prominent part in resignation, and comprise 43.63% of all reasons for job termination. Pregnancy is the main reason given, while marriage per se plays a lesser part. A finding of particular note is that the transfer of husband/family is second only to pregnancy as a cause of resignation.

Family-oriented reasons for job termination are least in the lower age range of 20 to 24 years (34.78% of all reasons for resignation), and are at their peak in the age range of 30 to 34 years (63.63% of all reasons for resignation).

It is known from earlier findings that family-oriented reasons are the major cause of respondents' occupational wastage. The present finding indicates that they are also the main cause of occupational mobility (as measured by job termination). The family roles of respondents are therefor the predominant influence not only in their movement out of the profession, but also in their movement away from specific social work jobs.

(xi) Job dissatisfaction is prevalent in resignation

More than one-quarter of all reasons for resignation concern one or other dissatisfaction with the job terminated. The two most prevalent dissatisfactions are with inadequate salary, and becoming "more interested" in another field. Other prominent dissatisfactions are with working hours and overtime, with an inability to practice high-standard social work, and with non-physical working conditions. No

other individual dissatisfactions are active in more than 3% of resignations.

It is of interest that job dissatisfactions are most influential in resignation during the lower age ranges of 20 to 24 years, and become steadily less influential with increasing age. The implication is that younger workers are more prone to leave social work posts on account of job dissatisfaction.

In terms of these findings, a number of social work posts fail to provide respondents with work satisfaction. However, it must be noted that, if anything, the present findings underplay the full extent of job dissatisfaction. Many respondents resign primarily for family reasons, and thus do not record job dissatisfaction as a cause of resignation.

(xii) Resignation is influenced by factors that are not directly associated with family responsibilities or with job dissatisfaction

More than one-quarter of all reasons for resignation are not directly connected to family roles or to job dissatisfaction. Two prominent reasons for resignation merit note.

Over 11% of all jobs are terminated by respondents who embark on extended holidays and travel, usually whilst they are aged from 20 to 24 years. Young respondents thus show a propensity to temporarily leave social work for extended periods. Normally, they go on an overseas journey lasting, on the average, 6.1 months. The tendency of young social workers to go on a "grand tour" may not necessarily be peculiar to social workers, and may be characteristic of middle-class South Africans as a whole.

Nearly 13% of all jobs are terminated because they are locum tenens posts which have come to an end. Although such resignations cannot be directly attributed to family responsibilities, it would seem likely that locum tenens posts would appeal to married female social workers. This suggestion is supported by the finding that locum tenens posts are generally taken by respondents in the middle and upper age ranges.

(xiii) Respondents' job moves are not normally accompanied by vertical upward mobility.

Of respondents 198 movements to social work jobs, only 11 involve an upward movement in occupational rank; and in only 4 instances do respondents note promotion as a specific reason for job choice.

On the surface, these findings indicate that respondents' occupational mobility is not primarily motivated by a desire for upward movement in the career structure. Indeed, they move primarily to get "interesting work", and "good salaries".

However, these findings could also indicate that there is a shortage of senior social work posts that are attractive to respondents. This latter suggestion receives support from the finding that of the 86 respondents studied, only four have ever received a vertical upward move in rank while remaining with the same employer.

(xiv) Respondents ascribe low work satisfaction importance to some aspects of work that are related to long-term career goals.

In both their "ideal" and "realistic" rankings of work satisfaction priority, respondents attach low work satisfaction importance to

"service conditions" and "opportunities for professional improvement".

This finding may be a consequence of respondents' gender. Female social workers may not view their work role as their major source of life satisfaction, and as a result, they may not seek long-term job security or opportunities to develop their professional knowledge and skills.

The foregoing suggestion receives support when respondents' work satisfaction priorities are analysed by high and low EQ groups. The high EQ group, with an average of nine times as much social work service as the low EQ group, nevertheless give lowest work satisfaction importance in the realistic situation to "service conditions" and "opportunities for professional improvement".

(xv) Respondents place high work satisfaction importance on a social work service being of real value to the community

The "real value" of a social work service to the community is ranked 1st in work satisfaction importance in the ideal situation, and 2nd in the realistic situation.

Thus, both ideally and realistically, respondents can get great work satisfaction from a knowledge that the service in which they are involved is of value to the community. This finding is appropriate to a profession such as social work: in social work, a major ethical value is that the interests of the client should be an overriding service consideration .

(xvi) <u>In the realistic situation, respondents attach high work satisfaction importance to "interesting work" and "adequate salary"</u>.

Respondents give a higher work satisfaction priority to "interesting work" and "adequate salary" in a realistic (i.e. comparative) ordering of work satisfaction importance, than in an idealised (i.e. non-comparative) assessment.

Realistically, respondents rank "interesting work" 1st in work satisfaction importance, and "adequate salary" 3rd.

A number of possible explanations exist for a disparity between ideal and realistic work satisfaction priorities. For example, most people may have a difference between their idealised work satisfaction priorities, and their actual values in practice. On the other hand, it is possible that female social workers place a high premium on interesting work and adequate salary in the realistic situation for a specific reason. For example, they could both represent almost immediate "compensations" for conflict that might be experienced in accommodating home and work roles.

No definite conclusions can be drawn. Whatever the reasons for the above findings, the findings themselves are important for an understanding of respondents' work behaviour.

(xvii) Respondents with the most experience in social work have the greatest disparity between their ideal and realistic work satisfaction priorities.

The high EQ group have nine times as much experience in social work as the low EQ group. Despite this greater exposure to social work practice, the high EQ group have the widest disparity between their idealistic and realistic work satisfaction priorities.

The reasons for this finding are two-fold. Firstly, the high EQ group give considerably more work satisfaction importance to "interesting work" and "adequate salary" in the realistic situation, than in the ideal situation. Secondly, the reverse is true in the case of the high EQ group's assessment of the "supervision and guidance of less-experienced workers".

A number of varying explanations can be suggested for the above findings. It is possible, for example, that the low EQ group have not had sufficient exposure to social work practice for them to develop "realistic" work satisfaction priorities that differ from their "ideal" priorities. On the other hand, it is possible that the high EQ group may contain more "career women" or social workers who have worked at the same time as they have had a wife-mother role. In each of these cases, the work rewards of "interest" and "salary" may have assumed added importance in the realistic situation.

(xviii) Conditions of employment and practice in social work posts fall far short of the ideal

When respondents assess their "most recent" jobs in social work, more than one-quarter of respondents rate them "poor" in regard to reasonable work loads, supervision and guidance of less experienced workers, salary, working conditions, and willingness of agency policy-making authorities to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff.

On the other hand, a majority of respondents rate their "most recent" jobs as "good" in regard to interesting work, and the value of the service provided by the agency to the community.

Of respondents' four top work satisfaction priorities, two are met comparatively well in their "most recent" posts (interesting work, and the value of the service provided to the community), and two are met comparatively poorly (adequate salary, and reasonable work loads).

Many different factors may combine together to produce less adequate conditions of employment and practice in social work posts. For example, social work developed out of voluntary, unpaid social welfare activities. It is primarily a women's profession, and women may not be as concerned with working conditions as men. The femininity of social workers may have other possible repurcussions, all of which militate against high standards of employment and practice: high staff turnover; a less powerful professional association; and a less aggressive approach to the improvement of conditions, to name but some of them.

It is of more than passing interest that in respondents' "most recent" jobs, some fields of social work meet conditions of employment and service better than others.

The field of psychiatric social work best meets aspects of work associated with the provision of a valuable and effective social work service. The implication is that this field (which is often characterised by inter-disciplinary work with members of high status professions) has better communication and co-operation between personnel, policy making authorities more willing to understand the social worker's point of view, and (relatively) reasonable work loads.

On the other hand, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions best meets aspects of work associated with reward to the worker, and most aspects of work associated with long-term career goals. The implication, therefor, is that a State welfare agency, completely supported by public funds, is able to provide interesting work, better salaries, better working and service conditions, and more adequate opportunities for professional improvement.

The tentative indications identified above provide food for thought, and suggest a possible relationship between some conditions of work, and the setting in which the social worker practices.

Overall, however, the findings of this study indicate considerable room for improvement in social workers' conditions of employment and practice. There would seem to be a need for South African social workers to develop minimum standards of personnel policy and administration, which could be applied to all social work posts in all fields.

(xix) Job dissatisfaction is most prevalent in first jobs

The findings of this study show that respondents are particularly prone to resign from their first jobs because of job dissatisfaction. Indeed, 40.21% of all reasons for first job resignation concern job dissatisfaction, as compared to 16.82% of all reasons for resignation from later jobs.

This finding indicates that respondents are more likely to experience dissatisfaction and discontent in their first social work posts. On the other hand, however, the finding may be a partial result of fewer first jobs than later jobs being terminated for family-oriented reasons.

Nevertheless, the prevalence of job dissatisfaction in first job termination may be connected to the fact that more than one-quarter of respondents do not have second jobs in social work.

The influence of job dissatisfaction on first job resignation is of particular concern to social workers. The worker who has an unhappy first work experience may not only leave her job: she may also leave the profession.

4. Conclusions and recommendations.

The conclusions of this study are restricted to the 86 respondents studied, and cannot be generalised to all social work graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand, or to social workers as a whole. The recommendations that follow the conclusions must also be viewed with caution, as they are based wholly on the limited sample of female social workers investigated in this research project.

(i) Conclusions

Respondents show a greater rate of occupational wastage and occupational mobility than social workers in any other study known to the investigator. They spend just under two-thirds of their potential working lives outside the profession, and when they do work, their average length of job is only 14.59 months. The largest part of their service to social work is in their younger, less-experienced years. It is possible that the high rates of occupational wastage and mobility found in this study may be due to the relative youth of respondents.

Family responsibilities are the principal cause of both occupational wastage and occupational mobility. Family-oriented reasons (mainly pregnancy and child-rearing) account for 59.62% of all respondents' occupational wastage, and family-oriented reasons (mainly pregnancy, and the transfer of husband/family) form the largest category of reasons for job resignation.

Dis-incentives can be identified that serve to discourage respondents from attempting to combine their home roles (and more particularly their mother roles) with social work employment. Respondents consider that there is a shortage of part-time and sessional posts in social work that permit a mother to work and also fulfil her maternal obligations. At the same time, there is a lack of community resources that can be used by the married woman worker. Specifically, there is a shortage of adequate day-care services for pre-school children.

In addition to family responsibilities, a sizeable part of occupational wastage and occupational mobility is caused by dissatisfaction with social work jobs. Directly, more than one-quarter of all reasons for resignation concern one or other specific job dissatisfaction. First jobs in social work are particularly prone to termination through job dissatisfaction. Indirectly, some dissatisfaction with social work jobs is indicated by the fact that 28.77% of all occupational wastage is due to employment outside social work. There is more than five times as much full-time work outside the profession as there is part-time work.

Conditions of employment and practice in social work jobs fall far short of the ideal. More than 1 out of 4 respondents assess their "most recent" social work posts as "poor" in regard to reasonable work loads, supervision and guidance of less-experienced workers, salary, working conditions, and the willingness of the agency policy-making authority to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff. On the other hand, however, the majority of respondents assess their "most recent" posts as "good" in regard to interesting work, and

the value of the social work service provided to the community.

Respondents have different work satisfaction priorities in the ideal and realistic situations. Exposure to social work practice does not help respondents to reconcile their ideal and realistic values: those respondents with the most social work service have the greatest disparity between ideal and realistic work statisfaction priorities.

Ideally, respondents place top work satisfaction importance on a social work service being of real value to the community, interesting work, and reasonable work loads, in that order. Realistically, they give prime work satisfaction importance to interesting work, followed by the social work service being of real value to the community, and adequate salary. Thus, realistically, respondents give higher work satisfaction importance to interesting work and adequate salary. No firm conclusions can be drawn about the reasons for the difference between ideal and and realistic work satisfaction priorities. However, the suggestion can be advanced that in the realistic situation, interesting work and adequate salary may assume increased importance to the female worker: they may both be compensations for potential conflict between work and home roles.

Respondents place little value on some aspects of work that are associated with long-term career goals. In both the ideal and the realistic situations, they give lowest work satisfaction importance to service conditions, and opportunities for professional improvement. In their actual work movements, respondents are only minimally influenced by opportunities for promotion.

These findings suggest that respondents are relatively unconcerned with social work as a long-term career, possibly because of their

gender. On the other hand, however, social work may not provide a career structure for female social workers who often carry dual work-home roles.

Overall, the central theme in the findings of this study is that the work patterns of female social workers (and possibly also their work satisfactions) are predominantly influenced by their femininity. The wife-mother roles of many respondents affect their movement in and out of the profession, and even their movement away from specific social work jobs.

(ii) Recommendations.

At present, social work is characterised by a broad base of young, relatively inexperienced workers, and a paucity of "middle position" workers in their late twenties and thirties.

The majority of persons who are trained for social work in South Africa are white females, and there is little evidence that this trend will change, at least in the foreseeable future.

One of the most pressing manpower problems currently facing social work is to find ways of attracting married female social workers back into the profession, particularly to meet the shortage of "middle-level" personnel. To achieve this end, it is necessary to create conditions, within the profession and in the community at large, that will encourage married women to return to work. This can be done by a number of means:-

(a) The provision of more part-time and sessional posts.

More part-time and sessional posts are required in social work. Part-time posts for married women workers are generally morning posts; while sessional posts generally involve working a limited number of days each week, or working in phases that correspond with school terms.

Myrdal and Klein have pointed out that many employers hold the view that part-time employment is auxilliary or incidental to the main (i.e. full-time) work of an organisation.[15] Perhaps it is for this reason that social welfare agencies do not make more use of "less than full-time" workers.

Most professions that are predominantly feminine contain the potential for increased use of part-time personnel. The effective use of part-time professional women has been demonstrated in medicine and nursing,[16] school teaching,[17] and social work.[18] Indeed, some writers consider that of all professions, social work most readily lends itself to part-time employment.[19]

Part-time work is contra-indicated in some areas of social work, for example, work with individuals and families who are liable to crisis situations, where immediate social work intervention is required. On the other hand, a large part of social work is not concerned with crises, and is amenable to part-time service: intake work, work in children's institutions, work with old age clubs, short-contact casework, supervision, administrative activities, and so forth.

Part-time and sessional work is not the panacea for social work's manpower problems. It does, however, hold out two main advantages to the social work profession. Firstly, it enables some married women to make use of their experience and training. Secondly, it has an advantage that is not often recognised: it enables the married woman to "keep her hand in" during those years when she is primarily concerned with child-rearing. Thus, when children are older, and the social worker considers a return to full-time employment, she does not feel out of touch with social work and its new developments.

b. Registers of employment opportunities.

The provision of more part-time and sessional posts will not in itself ensure that such positions are filled. An urgent need exists for some uniform, effective and central system whereby social workers can readily learn of available full- and part-time vacancies.

There is little doubt that the operation of a social work "employment exchange" falls within the purview of the professional social workers' association. The professional association has an interest in social work manpower, and an obligation to see that such manpower is used effectively and fully.

Some local branches of the White Social Workers' Association of South Africa already have informal systems of advising members about social work vacancies. The Southern Transvaal branch of the Association, for example, has adopted a procedure whereby the branch secretary is notified of vacant posts. She is then able to inform intending applicants about available social work positions in the community.

A more formal system designed on the above pattern could be established by all branches of the White Social Worker's Association. The branches could request social work agencies to inform the branch secretary of all vacancies. The secretary could then act as the clearing house for job-seekers, and even use the available machinery of the Association to bring vacancies to the attention of members. For example, a list of vacancies could be attached to notices of meetings, or even announced at meetings of the Association.

c. The creation of minimum standards of personnel policy and practice

The findings of this study reveal that in respondents' "most recent" jobs, standards of employment and practice leave much to be desired. Indeed, a majority of respondents could rate their "most recent" jobs as "good" in respect of only two out of ten considerations. From 26.58% to 37.97% of respondents rated their "most recent" jobs as "poor" in regard to five of the work considerations that they assessed.

Many bodies and groups have an interest in social workers' conditions of employment and practice. They include National Councils of welfare organisations, individual welfare organisations, the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, the Social Work Commission of the National Welfare Board, and ultimately, the social work profession itself. A suggestion advanced in this dissertation is that it is social workers themselves who have the primary responsibility to formulate minimum standards of personnel policy and practice. This comes about for two reasons: as employees, social workers are directly concerned with their own work conditions; and as social workers, they are aware that defective or inadequate conditions of employment and practice may lead to a reduced standard of client service.

The findings of this study indicate a pressing need for South African social workers to compile a statement of minimum personnel policy and practice for employer social welfare organisations. Such a statement could best be formulated by social workers acting together through their National professional association, the White Social Workers Association of South Africa.

If South African social workers were to adopt this course of action, they would be following a pattern established by social workers in other countries.

The Canadian Association of Social Workers, for example, provide a statement on personnel practice that embraces conditions of employment, conditions of work, channels of communication, and opportunities for professional growth.[20] Their statement is a guide to social agencies which employ social workers, and it is also a code which the Canadian Association is prepared to uphold as the minimum standards acceptable to professional members.[21]

The National Association of Social Workers in the United States of America have produced a similar document. They specify detailed conditions of employment and work, including standards for the physical environment and working hours.[22] The standards are based on the Association's belief that staff members can give their best service when they work under conditions of employment that are, "conducive to the maintenance of high quality and quantity of production".[23]

At present, South African social workers are attempting to devise a code of professional ethics that will be acceptable to all social

workers. The time may therefor be opportune to extend this examination to include both a code of ethical behaviour and minimum standards of personnel policy and practice. The two issues are intimately connected, as the employed ethical and competent social worker gives her best service in organisations characterised by good administrative practice.[24]

Adequate standards of employment and practice would enhance the work of all social workers in the Republic. However, in the context of this dissertation, they are of special importance to two groups: the beginning worker, and the married female social worker.

The beginning worker who starts her career in an unsatisfactory work environment may be exposed to working conditions and practice which quickly nullify the ideals and standards inculcated in her social work education. In addition, she courts the risk of becoming disillusioned and discontented. The married female worker is in a different position. Often, she does not need to work. Thus, unattractive conditions of employment and practice may deter her from returning to the profession.

d. The provision of adequate day-care services for pre-school children

The findings of this study indicate that more than half of respondents' occupational wastage is due to their home role of mother. The demands of this role (particularly with younger children) are not normally compatible with work outside the home. Thus, services which supplement traditional mothering duties, or which partly replace them, may act as incentives to the married woman's return to work.

Nursery schools are a particularly under-developed service in South Africa. Respondents in this study indicate that a shortage of such services sometimes prevents married social workers from returning to the profession.

Although Provincial authorities have recently assumed added responsibility for the nursery school education of white children, it is unlikely that these facilities will increase dramatically in the near future.

Organisations in the community which employ married women staff in large numbers have therefor found it necessary to provide their own domestic creche/nursery school facilities for the children of staff members. This procedure has become increasingly common in large commercial organisations, and latterly, similar systems have been adopted by non-commercial undertakings. In Johannesburg, for example, the General Hospital operates a creche for the pre-school children of staff members[25], while married women teachers are exploring the possibility of establishing a nursery school for their children.[26]

No instance has come to the attention of the investigator where social workers have attempted to establish either creche or nursery school facilities for the children of married workers. However, in major urban centres, such an innovation may become a viable proposition.

e. The introduction of taxation procedures that do not discriminate against the married woman worker

Traditionally, South Africa has followed a taxation procedure where the incomes of husband and wife have been combined for taxation purposes. The last decade has seen a number of different taxation formulae for married couples, but in all instances, the two spouses have ultimately been seen as a single taxation unit.

Tax payable by married women who work has been considerably reduced since the middle and late 1960's, but despite more equitable taxation procedures, one category of married women remain excessively penalised. This category consists of married professional women whose husbands are members of the professional and managerial group. Because the husbands of women in this category have high earnings, the tax payable by wives on their additional income is increased. For these women, the financial incentive of work is lessened.

Short of a drastic revision of the taxation system, three courses of action can be suggested that may alleviate the punitive taxation status of the married woman worker:-

Firstly, a larger amount of the married woman's salary can be given "tax-free" status. At present, when the total family income is R8,000 or under, the first R500 of the wife's salary is not considered to be "taxable income".

Secondly, provision can be made for wives in families whose total income exceeds R8,000, to also benefit from "tax-free" income concessions.

This would serve to increase the financial incentive of work for social workers who are married to high-earning husbands.

Thirdly, taxation allowances can be devised to compensate for the extra expenditure which the married woman incurrs through work outside the home. In particular, taxation allowances could be provided for the cost of substitute day care for pre-school children, and for the employment of extra domestic help.

The foregoing recommendations concern some possible procedures that could be of use in encouraging married women social workers to return to the profession. However, the recommendations are based on the study of a limited number of social workers, and the findings of this research project may be unrepresentative of female social workers as a whole.

Despite the above limitation, the findings of this study constitute a cause for concern. No profession can develop and grow when its "grass-root" personnel consist predominantly of young, relatively inexperienced workers.

If social work continues to attract a large number of female practitioners - and there is every indication that this will be the case - the profession will always be liable to considerable occupational wastage, discontinuity of employment, and relatively high occupational mobility: these phenomena are hall-marks of a female occupation.

Furthermore, these hall-marks may be particularly pronounced in social work. By virtue of their professional training, social workers

may be especially conscious of adequate performance in their wife and mother roles, and this may make them unwilling to combine home and work responsibilities.

Nevertheless, there is no reason to "write off" female social workers for the period of their lives when they are engaged in child rearing. Married female social workers can be attracted back to the profession, but on their own terms.

These terms are that social work jobs should be interesting and well-paid, in agencies that provide a social work service of real value to the community. Hours of work should be flexible, and provision is required for more part-time and sessional employment. In addition, married workers require adequate community resources for the care of their pre-school children.

If social work manpower is to be more balanced, and to contain a greater proportion of experienced workers at middle echelons, only one immediate solution is available: to attract married female social workers back to the profession.

In essence, this involves the creation of work opportunities where the married social worker can accommodate the demands of her work and home roles, and obtain satisfaction from both.

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23.		Ibid., p. 9
24.		Ibid., p. 5
25.		Personal Communication, Inspectress of Children's Institutions, City Health Department, Johannesburg, 24th June 1971
26.		Ibid.

APPENDIX I - QUESTIONNAIRE FORM

NOTE: Individual information given in this questionnaire will be regarded as CONFIDENTIAL. The information will only be used in the compilation of Group Data.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

1. This questionnaire is in four parts. Part I, below, deals with personal information. Part II concerns your occupational history. Part III canvasses your opinions on Social Work occupational conditions. Part IV invites you to make additional comments, should you wish to do so.

2. Where a choice of answers is printed after a question, please indicate your particular answer by placing a tick (✓) in the appropriate square.

3. Please answer ALL eight questions.

PART I

1. Your BASIC Qualification as a Social Worker

   a. In what year was it obtained? 19_____

   b. Your age at this time? _____ years

   c. Nature of the qualification?

3 year degree	
4 year degree	

2. Other Qualifications

   a. Have you at any time obtained other academic or professional qualifications (in addition to the qualification listed in Question 1 above)?

   Yes ☐ No. ☐

b. If "YES", please list these other qualifications below:

	Year obtained	Description of Academic or Professional Qualification (e.g. B.A. Hons. in Psychology, M.A. in Social Work, etc.)	Name of Institution or Professional Body from which obtained.
1.	19		
2.	19		
3.	19		
4.	19		

PART II

3. SOCIAL WORK OCCUPATIONAL HISTORY

Please outline below, in time sequence, your occupations in SOCIAL WORK since your qualification as a Social Worker

Month and Year	NATURE of post held (e.g. Social Worker, Supervisor, etc.)	FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK (e.g. Aged, Child Welfare, Dept. of Social Welfare & Pensions, etc.)	FULL or PART-TIME	TOWN	INFLUENCING FACTORS. Please attempt to list the particular factors that influenced you in TAKING this post, or in LEAVING this post.	
					Factors influencing TAKING post	Factors influencing LEAVING post
19 19						
19 19						
19 19						
19 19						
19 19						
19 19						
19 19						

4. PERIODS SPENT OUTSIDE SOCIAL WORK

If you have spent periods of time outside Social Work since qualification, please list them below, in time sequence, checking off the appropriate reason next to each period with a tick (✓). If none of the reasons listed below satisfactorily explain your absence from the field, please specify the reason for your absence in the column headed "Other".

	Period spent outside Social Work (month and year)		REASON					
	From	To	Pregnancy and child-rearing	Further study	Ill-Health	Full-time Occupation outside Social Work	Part-time Occupation outside Social Work	Other - (Please specify)
1	____ 19__	____ 19__						
2	____ 19__	____ 19__						
3	____ 19__	____ 19__						
4	____ 19__	____ 19__						
5	____ 19__	____ 19__						
6	____ 19__	____ 19__						
7	____ 19__	____ 19__						

PART III

5. YOUR PRESENT POSITION

Please ASSESS how your present position in Social Work measures up to each of the ten undermentioned considerations.

(If you are at present OUTSIDE the field of Social Work, please complete the assessment in regard to your LAST Social Work position).

Place a tick (✓) in the column that most closely represents your assessment of each of the items.

ITEM	YOUR ASSESSMENT		
	GOOD	FAIR	POOR
Salary			
Service conditions (leave, pension, medical aid, etc.)			
Working conditions (Office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)			
Value of the Social Work service provided by the Agency to the community			
Communication and co-operation (between Staff, and between Staff and Volunteers).			
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in agency) to appreciate points of view of professional Social Work staff			
Interesting work			
Opportunity for professional improvement (opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)			
Supervision and/or Guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues			
Reasonableness of work load (i.e. possibility of worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her).			

6. The list below contains 10 considerations that could apply to a social worker's post in any agency.

Drawing upon YOUR OWN OPINIONS AND EXPERIENCE, you are asked to assess the importance that YOU would attach to each consideration for your work satisfaction, by grading each of the considerations as either "Essential", or "Desirable", or "Not Necessary".

Please place a tick (✓) in the appropriate column next to each consideration.

CONSIDERATION	YOUR GRADING OF THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CONSIDERATION FOR YOUR WORK SATISFACTION		
	ESSENTIAL	DESIRABLE	NOT NECESSARY
Adequate salary			
Satisfactory service conditions (leave pension, medical aid, paid sick leave, written contract of service, etc.)			
Satisfactory working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)			
The social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community.			
Easy communication and co-operation between staff members, and between staff and volunteers.			
Willingness of Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in the agency) to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff.			
Interesting work			
Adequate opportunities for professional improvement (opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)			
Provision for the supervision and/or guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues.			
A reasonable work load (i.e. the possibility of the worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her)			

7. The list below contains 10 considerations that could apply to a social worker's post in any agency.

Again drawing upon YOUR OWN OPINIONS AND EXPERIENCE, please place these 10 considerations in the order of importance that YOU would attach to them for your work satisfaction.

Place a "1" in the column next to the consideration that you think is most important, a "2" in the column next to the consideration that you think is second most important, and so on up to "10", the "least important" consideration.

CONSIDERATION	ORDER OF IMPORTANCE
Adequate salary	
Satisfactory service conditions (leave, pension, medical aid, paid sick leave, written contract of service, etc)	
Satisfactory working conditions (office space, availability of secretarial assistance, suitable transport, hours of work, etc.)	
The social work service provided by the agency being of real value to the community.	
Easy communication and co-operation between staff members, and between staff members and volunteers.	
Willingness of the Board of Management (or other policy-making authority in the agency) to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff.	
Interesting work	
Adequate opportunities for professional improvement (Opportunities for further study, to do research, to try out new techniques, to keep up with the literature, etc.)	
Provision for supervision and/or guidance of less experienced workers by more experienced colleagues.	
A reasonable work load (i.e. possibility of worker effectively carrying out all work assigned to her)	

PART IV

8. If, in your opinion, there are other factors (besides the considerations listed in the last three questions) which contribute to social workers' work satisfaction, or to their occupational mobility and occupational "wastage", please comment on them below:-

THANK YOU FOR YOUR KIND CO-OPERATION

APPENDIX II - SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONNAIRE

School of Social Work
University of the Witwatersrand
Johannesburg

Dear Colleague,

Some months ago, you were kind enough to complete a questionnaire concerning the occupational wastage, occupational mobility and work satisfaction of social workers.

In the questionnaire, the term interesting work was used. It has been suggested that this term is capable of a number of different interpretations, and to clarify the meaning that you would attach to the term, I would be grateful if you could complete the one question hereunder, and return this form to me in the enclosed stamped addressed envelope.

Your continuing co-operation is much appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Brian McKendrick.

SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONNAIRE

1. When considering the term interesting work, which of the following phrases would express most clearly your interpretation of this term?

   Please place a tick (✓) opposite the phrase of your choice.

Work which gives me personal satisfaction	
Work which will lead to my improved development as a professional person.	
Work which paves the way to the development of my career as a social worker	

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ABSTRACT

THE EMPLOYMENT, OCCUPATIONAL WASTAGE, OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AND WORK SATISFACTIONS OF SOCIAL WORKERS: A STUDY OF THE EUROPEAN FEMALE SOCIAL WORK GRADUATES OF THE UNIVERSITIES OF NATAL AND THE WITWATERSRAND, 1955 TO 1965.

Brian William McKendrick, December 1971.

Postal questionnaires were sent to the 117 European female social work graduates of the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand, 1955 to 1965. Eighty-six social workers responded to the questionnaire.

Respondents showed a high rate of occupational wastage and occupational mobility. They spent two-thirds of their potential working lives outside the profession, and when they did work, their average length of job was only 14.59 months. Most of their social work service consisted of full-time employment in their younger, less-experienced years.

Family responsibilities were the principal cause of both occupational wastage and occupational mobility. However, more than one out of four reasons for resignation from social work jobs concerned job dissatisfaction. Job dissatisfaction was particularly prevalent in resignation from first jobs.

When respondents assessed their "most recent" social work posts, conditions of employment and practice were found to be considerably short of the ideal. The most prominent shortcomings were unreasonable work loads, a lack of supervision and guidance for less-experienced workers, inadequate salary, poor working conditions, and an unwillingness of agency policy-making authorities to appreciate the points of view of professional social work staff.

Respondents had different work satisfaction priorities in the "ideal" and "realistic" situations. Exposure to social work practice did not help respondents to reconcile their ideal and realistic values. Indeed, those respondents with the most social work service had the greatest disparity between their ideal and realistic work satisfaction priorities.

Realistically, respondents gave a higher work satisfaction priority to "interesting work" and "adequate salary".

In both the ideal and realistic situations, they placed high work satisfaction importance on a social work service being of "real value" to the community, and low work satisfaction importance on "service conditions" and "opportunities for professional improvement".

On the basis of research findings, five courses of action are recommended, that may serve to draw married female social workers back to the profession. They include the provision of more part-time and sessional posts; the establishment of employment opportunity registers; the formulation of minimum standards of personnel policy and practice;

the provision of adequate day-care services for pre-school children; and the introduction of taxation procedures that do not discriminate against the married woman worker.