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SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

A Service of Schools

• Articles by authorities in the field •

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Editor

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FOREWORD

PUBLIC EDUCATION in America is never static. Through its ceaseless change in content and method, it mirrors social evolution and the advancing front of our knowledge, concepts, and practices. One important trend is the extension of the professional base for public education. There has developed an increased use of professional personnel for noninstructional services. The range of professions or services involved includes attendance, guidance, health programs, psychology, and social work.

This publication deals primarily with school social work. School social work provides to education a supportive casework or personal adjustment service for pupils and their families on an individual basis, consultative assistance to teachers and school administrators, community referral services, and assistance in the implementation of school policy and programs. Several titles have been used to designate these professional workers and their programs, such as attendance worker, home and school counselor, school adjustment counselor, visiting teacher, and school social worker. Considerable variation exists among these noninstructional programs, both in content of service and the professional training required of practitioners.

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INTRODUCTION

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School Social Work in Transition

SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK or visiting teacher services are a comparatively recent addition to the services of the public schools, first appearing about 50 years ago with advances in the behavioral sciences. The work of Alfred Binet provided the start for more adequate techniques of intellectual measurement and supplied new tools for the individualization of pupils. Refinements were made in psychological as well as intellectual assessment. The contributions of Freud and others supported vital new conceptualizations in the field of psychology. As a result there has been a considerable increase in our comprehension of human motivation, conscious and unconscious, and the purposive nature of behavior. In its nearly simultaneous development in Boston, New York City, and Hartford, Connecticut, in the first decade of the 20th century, school social work embodied elements of both education and social work. Its functions, as conceived by Katherine M. Cook, pertain to ". . . matters which involve contacts with the home or which concern problems of the environment."[1]

Initially, community agencies recognized the potential value of social work in public education and arranged for members of their staffs to participate in school-based activities. This beginning was followed by programs originating within the school districts. These early school social work programs were developed singly, in individual cities or school districts. Their position, organizationally, varied within the school's administrative structure, ranging from a place in a centralized

[1] Katherine M. Cook, *The Place of Visiting Teacher Services in the School Program*, Bulletin No. 6, 1945, p. 4; and *Visiting Teacher Services*, Leaflet No. 75, 1946, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

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pupil personnel service or department to one attached directly to the office of the superintendent.

Special Education, a Forerunner

The practices employed and experiences gained in special education have contributed greatly to all education. These programs provided the first widespread, vigorous effort to adjust the school expectations and requirements to the child's potential and needs, not the child to the school. In special education activities the need for a broader range of professional knowledge and assistance became recognized as a means of effectively coping with the diverse problems of exceptional children. Recognition of the need to plan for children with a wide range of disabilities provided the impetus in many school districts for the employment of professional noninstructional personnel. It was also reflected in the staffing of many State departments of education. As the value of psychological evaluation, casework, and health services was demonstrated in special education, the potential contribution of these services to general education was gradually recognized.

In this context it seems desirable for special education and general education to be considered together as integral parts of a continuous program in public education. When the educational offering is so viewed and organized, it provides a unified, interrelated structure wherein school social work and other pupil personnel services are equally available to serve the teachers and pupils in both special and general education.

In many instances school social work was first made available through the use of special education allocations. Its evolution is reflected in three characteristic phases of special education's development:

1. School social workers were included in the professional team which provided noninstructional services.
2. As the noninstructional professions were employed in special education, they were added to the staff and organizational structure of State departments of education.
3. Special education practices and techniques found to be of particular value were frequently adapted to the general education program. By this process the use of school social work and the other pupil personnel services often found their way into general education.

As proficiency in assessment of intellectual ability has increased, separate educational resources have gradually been developed for children of limited intellectual capability. The

policy of public education for all children has thus found expression through advances in special education. Small classes in which greater individual attention is devoted to each child have extended the range of mentally limited children for whom public education can be a happy and useful experience. These advances in special education have in considerable measure resulted from a supplementation of teaching and specialized educational programs through the schools' employment of other professionals, primarily those educated in the behavioral sciences. Thus the psychological services, so necessary in student evaluation and placement during the formation of classes for the mentally handicapped, have increasingly been augmented by the employment of a professional team. In this way psychological, health, guidance, and social work services have each made a valuable contribution to teaching and to educational administration.

In some States the leadership and administrative center for special education is located in a division of the State department of education. These States frequently augment their technical and consultive services by sharing in the cost of special education in the local school districts. Special education, including the development of pupil personnel teams, has experienced a more uniform development as a consequence of such statewide programing. In a number of States these specialized services have been gradually extended from special education to the general education program.

Attendance Services

School social work programs have been vitally affected by education's involvement in seeking solutions to the problem of nonattendance. Even though attendance services may frequently have started with a limited or compulsory focus, it soon became clear that reliance solely on the legal or statutory provisions of compulsory attendance did not solve the problem of nonattendance. As a result nonattendance has increasingly been thought of as complicated and symptomatic in nature. The State, with increasing frequency, has shared in the responsibility for a variety of services that in a sense are byproducts of State compulsory attendance laws. Several States have provided fiscal support for attendance services, and State certification has been adopted as a means of controlling the qualifications of personnel. Consistent with this emphasis on

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higher entrance qualifications has been the inauguration of inservice training to improve staff competency.

Often a corollary of compulsory attendance has been the gradual development of greater flexibility in school activities and course offerings. This emphasis has derived from the schools' attempts to make education more meaningful and valuable for a more complete cross-section of American youth who remain in school because of compulsory attendance provisions. Frequently there have been an expansion of evaluative and adjustment efforts and an increased reliance on professional noninstructional services: guidance and counseling, health, psychological, and school social work.

Whether the service has originated in attendance provisions, special education, delinquency control, or concern for the general social and emotional adjustment of the pupil, there has been a growing awareness that any student may need special assistance. With this in mind, social workers in the school, in close cooperation with teachers and administrators, have emphasized casework with the pupil and his family and coordinated school-community efforts as means of modifying adverse environmental influences or stresses. The mutual objective is a higher level of interdisciplinary practice and integrated activity among instructional, administrative, and professional noninstructional staff members of the school.

Coordination and Collaboration

In the closing months of World War II there was growing apprehension regarding the increase in juvenile delinquency and a reaction to the disquieting disclosures made by the Selective Services Administration of the educational, physical, and emotional deficiencies of many young men. The public schools, when confronted with this evidence of individual ineffectiveness and maladaptation, assumed considerable responsibility, both preventive and remedial.

In 1945, Katherine Cook wrote, "As we look over the recent developments within the service itself [visiting teacher and school social work] we can see at least three significant trends."[3] In essence, these were:

1. A broadening of professional responsibilities without diminishing the worker's interest in direct service to the child; greater attention to di-

[3] *The Place of Visiting Teacher Services in the School Program*, ibid., p. 13.

agnosis and an increase in liaison activity between the school and other community agencies.

2. A growing concern with the coordination of pupil personnel services to assure more effective school social work collaboration with the workers who provide guidance or counseling, health, psychological, and attendance services.
3. The possibility of using group work with parents or ". . . even sometimes with groups of children."

Mrs. Cook noted the need to avoid overlapping and duplication and foresaw the possibility of coordination through an administrative structure such as a pupil personnel department.

In 1964, the accuracy of Mrs. Cook's projections is apparent. However, within these trends are problems of practice which must be resolved. The transitional state remains characteristic, necessitating continued professional attention. School social workers are still evaluating the balance between the professional time devoted to direct services versus a consultative role with school staff. They are also studying the factors which relate to the decision whether to continue working with a case or refer it to another community agency. The development of the most effective administrative structure for pupil personnel services and its contribution to coordination and collaboration are subjects of central and common concern for all the pupil personnel professions. As if an event is forecast by its shadow, attention to group work as a school social work method is gaining renewed attention.

Finally, the public schools often turn to other agencies for assistance with the many social and personal problems that manifest themselves within the school. The school's awareness of these contributes to its greater communitywide coordination efforts.

Additional Areas for Concentration

The informed public, generally, and those in education, particularly, have become more aware of the need for all youth to develop social and economic competencies. This need is especially urgent in the 1960's, when a rapidly expanding youth population is seeking employment in competition with older workers, who are themselves being displaced by automation. The more technical nature of modern industry places greater demand on worker competencies and skills. Thus for many, the plight of a "dead-end" employment situation has been added to the potential hazards of living in an economi-

cally depressed area. Furthermore, a relative decrease in the farm labor force has resulted in a migration of the unskilled to the cities. Racial discrimination in the large urban centers tends further to prejudice the already difficult social and economic assimilation of these poorly prepared rural families.

The exceptional child, the educationally disadvantaged, the underachiever in school, and the displaced adult in need of retraining are all part of the problem facing American public education. Each group in its unique way demands educational innovations: improved teaching methods, remedial assistance, more varied and appropriate curriculums, and improved professional noninstructional services.

SOME CURRENT PROBLEMS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION[1]

HORACE W. LUNDBERG

EDUCATION AS A PROFESSION, with its long experience in group instruction and learning, considers the classroom unit to be of central importance. More recently there has also been a growing concern for the needs of each child as an individual. The effort in this direction, through both research and the consolidation of knowledge from the behavioral sciences, has resulted in considerable development, philosophically, in curricular content and in direct application to teaching activities. Organizations such as the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development through conferences, study groups, and publications have advanced the schools' capability to individualize more effectively each pupil and his academic program.

Importance of the Community on Learning

There are indications of a growing awareness in public education that the schools cannot consider the classroom unit and the individual pupil to be their only basic areas of concern. "The school . . . is a part of the community and interacts with the standards and values which are represented in it."[2] The question of how adaptations can be made by the school to characteristics of the community is gaining increased prominence in educational deliberations. Schools are responding to the complex problems of their communities, i.e., behavior traits, economic and cultural characteristics, by inaugurating school-

[1] Much of the material in this article is based on Mrs. Arnita Boswell's experiences with the Chicago Special Project. Mrs. Boswell is a teacher and social worker with the Chicago Board of Education, and served as a consultant to the U.S. Office of Education Conference on the Educationally Disadvantaged, Washington, D.C., May 1962.

[2] Arlien Johnson, *School Social Work: Its Contribution to Professional Education.* New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1962, p. 25.

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directed services designed to cope with influences that are felt to affect adversely the educational progress of students. Many of these influences derive from the economic and social-cultural characteristics found in the school area. These cultural forces in the community must be understood and their impact on pupils considered by the school if its program is to be fully effective.

The recent effort to improve the educational accomplishment of that large segment of children who are loosely termed "culturally deprived," "educationally disadvantaged," or "lower class' has caused educators to relate in a more direct and imaginative way to the community and to the families served by the school.[3]

Dr. Arlien Johnson has said, "The school is an environmental force." It is the interaction of this "force" with a particular kind of community that determines the educational potential. An acceptance of the "school in the community" is the kind of conceptualization by which the school is advancing beyond the responsibilities of providing only traditional instruction to a more "community-conscious" kind of programing. Curricular adaptations are now being designed that reflect modified educational expectations, expectations which are geared to the varying capacities, interests, and limitations of educationally disadvantaged children. This broader approach is based in part on an understanding of community traits, the out-of-school components or factors which precondition children's school capabilities and behavior. The parents, extended family, and community must be recognized as continuing and highly significant influences in children's lives. The Great Cities School Improvement Projects are, in many ways, an acknowledgment of this reality. Much that is being done by the schools in these project cities represents pragmatic efforts to deal with and improve the ongoing home-community influence upon the lives of their disadvantaged pupils. Thus, in their programs these schools take into account the fact that a child's learning is a response to all aspects of his life and is conditioned by them. It cannot be considered to be merely a cognitive process. Neither can learning be segmented into an "in-school"/"out-of-school" dichotomy, for the child as an integral part of himself brings his home, with both its limitations and its enrichments, to the classroom.

[3] Ibid, p. 25 and 155.

Effect of Cultural Deprivation

Education is increasingly aware of the dynamic and frequently damaging effect of cultural deprivation on the capacity of children to learn and on their motivation for educational attainment. In part, these cultural deterrents to learning seem to derive from the "lower-keyed" intellectual stimulation of the home with its adverse influence on development and, in part, from the neighborhood attitudes toward the school and education. These culturally disadvantaged children are exposed to parent-community attitudes that detract from their natural curiosity about anything that is beyond their immediate sphere. Even with the parents' attachment of value to the better earning capability that accrues from possessing an education, there is a tendency among many of these families to be suspicious of school personnel, identifying them with authority and legal force. Furthermore, repeated failure in school experiences is inclined to produce in the child an ego defensive denial of education's worth at a time when his "in-group" identifications and those of his family have portrayed education and other social institutions as protagonists. These parental and in-group influences, which are so crucial, are not susceptible to easy modification. Related to parental re-education, Luther E. Woodward wrote:

> It is of course clear that in this field [family life education] it is much more than the giving of information . . . in many instances nothing less than an emotional re-education is required . . . this involves either personal counseling or a dynamic kind of group thinking and self-discovery.[1]

A school, then, cannot adequately manage the central educational variables without taking into account the characteristics of the community it serves. It needs to make this recognition of community factors explicit to assure conscious and appropriate adaptations. In this context, schools are responding with fuller involvement in a wider field of concern than that centered in regular classrooms or even in classrooms with individualized programs, whether the latter is accomplished through adjustment in the teacher's assignment or in a protected classroom milieu through special education. This view is supported by Charles Mitchell when, in writing about the Detroit school community program, he noted:

> It seems reasonable that the educator should be concerned with all that affects the child he is trying to educate . . . [the public schools] seldom make

[1] Luther E. Woodward, "Family Life Education," *Social Work Yearbook*, Russell H. Kurtz, ed. New York: American Association of Social Workers, 1954.

official organized attempts to alter the "other lives" of children, and yet experience in educating culturally deprived children has shown that investment of funds and energy by a traditional one-sided approach often proves futile . . . .[5]

The Educationally Disadvantaged

The educationally disadvantaged is a broad grouping, not exclusively urban or rural, regional, or economic in character. Being disadvantaged is usually associated, however, with low economic capability and with low educational and social aspiration. Recognizable concentrations of these educationally handicapped are evident in the slums, among agricultural migrants, and in certain groupings of Spanish Americans, Negroes, and Indians. We categorize them as dropouts, juvenile delinquents, culturally deprived, or just as uninterested students who lack motivation. They may be aggressive, shy, emotionally disturbed, or hungry. As a conceptual rationale,

> . . . the potential for social functioning is not permanently fixed within the limits that define it at any particular period or culture. The extent to which potential can be realized and the scope of social functioning possible to man may be greatly enlarged or narrowed by the nature of the long time change in society and culture.[6]

An example of social change narrowing the prospects of sound social functioning is apparent in the middle-class migration from the city to the suburbs, leaving a racially and economically handicapped residue with low leadership potential. There remains in the urban centers the distillation of the community's problems to which has been added an in-migration of the castoffs from rural areas who have been adversely affected by the advances in machine-powered agriculture.

This migration confronts big cities with the absorption of an uncontrolled mass of individuals whose education and life experiences have been so limited as to poorly prepare them for urban life with its already serious social problems. The potential for social functioning is constricted by these changes in society and culture.

Any resolution of the big city plight seems dependent upon total community effort—health, welfare, education, housing, police, and fiscal planning. Just to survive taxes the slum

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[5] Charles L. Mitchell, "The Culturally Deprived—A Matter of Concern," *Childhood Education*, May 1962, p. 4–5.

[6] Ruth M. Butler, *An Orientation to Knowledge of Human Growth and Behavior in Social Work Education*, New York: Council on Social Work Education, Social Work Curriculum Study, Vol. VI, 1959, p. 39.

family's existing resources. Conceivably, in education rests the brightest prospect and the fullest responsibility for raising the level of function of these unfortunate people. Education can and must help to arm them with greater social effectiveness.

A Sociocultural Problem

The long-range problem in our schools is not increased numbers of students but meeting the varying needs of students in terms of cultural and economic conditions of 1965 or 1970 rather than those of 1950.[7]

In many urban centers, the adjustments made necessary by our social and industrial evolution are further complicated and jeopardized by a heavy concentration of the disadvantaged in congested areas. The choice confronting urban planners and social institutions seems to be either to accomplish a progressive sociocultural and vocational adaptation or accept increasing human stagnation. The consequences of our failure in this social and vocational transition have been graphically described by James B. Conant as social dynamite.[8]

Several large cities have experienced an in-migration of families with essentially rural background. These have become a distinct subgroup adding to the concentration of the low-income and racially disadvantaged in already deteriorating areas of heaviest population. For education to be effective with these rather poorly prepared migrants, it appears necessary to modify the attitudes of the children. This in turn requires some influencing of their parents. To develop a favorable educational climate with these parents amounts to a type of informal adult education. These parents must be involved in the schools' educational objective. They must also be shown new ways of assisting their children. First, it is necessary to obtain their cooperation toward and a belief in a better opportunity for their children. Relatedly, in Conant's words, "... almost illiterate parents may be frightened of anyone officially connected with education."[9]

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[7] Gilbert C. Wrenn, *Counseling in a Changing World*, Washington, D.C.: The Commission on Guidance in American Schools, American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962.

[8] James B. Conant, "Social Dynamite in Our Large Cities," Washington, D.C.: National Committee for Children and Youth, Conference on Unemployed, Out-of-School Youth in Urban Areas, May 26, 1961, keynote address.

[9] Ibid., p. 25.

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School Social Work Services

Assisting family adjustment.—The school social worker has traditionally been assigned the task of expanding the school-parent relationship toward the goal of improving some of the more damaging of the sociocultural or attitudinal elements in the home when these prejudice the child's academic potential.

In such areas of high potential for dropouts, it is particularly necessary for a school social worker to learn as much as possible about every aspect of family life. In the beginning with the child who is having problems in the classroom, either academic or personal, the school social worker should discuss the referral with the teacher, keeping in mind the teacher's viewpoint and his own standards as well as those of the school. The school social worker, because of his knowledge of the family and of human behavior, may quickly sense unsupportive attitudes of the teacher toward the child and his problem. Thus, the school social worker is often able to assist the teacher to differentiate between the child's problem and her own differently cultured perception of it.

For many families confronted with the problem of successfully incorporating broad social and cultural changes, the necessity for change arises out of being transplanted from rural living to urban slum, or even from a slum neighborhood into a "high-rise" project in which standards of housekeeping, behavior, and responsibility for rent have been set down in the regulations of the housing authority. Mere requirement does not mean that these new cultural patterns are being incorporated into the lives of tenants, nor does it follow that the tenants know how to adapt to these demands. If the family's expectations and standards are not realistic, its members need to be helped to understand how this causes complications and results in feelings of hostility toward persons of authority.

It is necessary to understand what has happened in the lives of most of these children and their parents through past generations to appreciate fully the basis of their feeling of insecurity and hostility. Their needs dictate that they make greater demands on social and educational institutions, yet they are without the know-how to realize the full benefit from these resources or to assume an active role commensurate with these needs. In group sessions with the parents, at PTA meetings and other community activities, as well as through individual conferences, the social worker can help establish

a different climate and break through this barrier of ignorance and indifference.

By closing the gap that arises from the superiority-inferiority role between the school or community and the home, the school social worker is in a strategic position to bring these environmental forces into greater harmony. In cooperation with the greatly deprived family, it is important for the social worker to work with the school team in attempting to introduce new ideas into school and family life.

The school social worker has a responsibility to the child and to his family, to the field of education, and to society to help change ineffectual or self-defeating attitudes. To accomplish these purposes knowledge is required about the family and its motivations. Frequently, for the first time, these individuals learn that they can be and can have something different if they will prepare themselves through education, counseling, and good health practices. The school social worker, building on this hope, helps parents set new standards that will contribute to regular employment. These modifications of life habits start in the home and include being punctual, eating balanced meals, dressing properly, changing attitudes, developing a sense of responsibility, managing money efficiently, and choosing goals consciously.

Acting as liaison.—The school social worker is also helpful to the community. He can provide useful information regarding the family to prospective employers or the employment counselor. The understanding thus gained contributes to a more productive association through greater awareness and acceptance of the characteristics of the individual.

The employment choices of youth are frequently depressed by group mores that tend to limit employment aspirations to the earning capacities of the parents, peers, and locality. Many youths do not want to overachieve for fear of being ostracized by those individuals with whom they want most to relate. The opposite of this attitude, and frequently as damaging, is that found in the individual who wants to divorce himself from everything in his past to achieve unlimited heights.

The school social worker can help to bring these two extremes of attitude into better balance. By doing this he may uncover hidden talents that neither the school, the family, nor the individual has recognized. A concentrated search for hidden talent in these children can prove surprisingly fruitful.

This positive attitude also tends to reduce conflict and to produce better students. Through encouragement and counseling by the teachers and other school personnel, a desire and effort can be awakened in these youths that more nearly challenges their full capabilities.

With a change in vocational expectations, the child, his family, and the teacher can be helped to forego setting unrelated and unrealistic limits and be assisted in establishing appropriate goals. When a child presents behavior problems that result from emotional, physical, or psychological difficulties, school administrators, through a deeper insight into the total situation confronting the child, can utilize the varied resources of the school to provide the assistance necessary for him to remain in school.

Despite the fact that their parents have lived in these areas for some time and that many of the children have been born in blighted urban areas, in-migrants may feel that they must keep various behavior and cultural patterns as a symbol of individuality and independence. The school social worker's role is to help them accept changes, not as an attack upon the individual but as adjustments necessary to becoming a part of the society in which they live. He must also help the child, the parent, and the school to recognize the unconscious, hostile reactions that may arise out of insecurity. Thus, the individual who is helped to feel respectable does not feel attacked when confronted with the need to change his behavior patterns.

Interpreting behavior and needs.—It is not uncommon for persons in substandard living situations to find satisfactions in their personal lives in ways not always acceptable to society. The use of these means of gratification contributes to misunderstanding. The social worker interprets to others the basic meaning of this behavior and the needs of persons involved. Provided with better understanding of these individuals, the educator, the health authority, the social agency, and all others who manage the resources in the community can work together more effectively to better society and to provide a more acceptable and rewarding way of life for the disadvantaged.

Need for Cultural Base

Society's central objective with the educationally disadvantaged is determined by the nature of their predicament. Their

culture has failed to provide them with an adequate capacity for social functioning within their complex and personally damaging situation. Social effectiveness, the basic objective, is seemingly obtainable only through some new or strengthened processes of acculturation. The schools' educational objectives are likewise only realizable to the extent that schools and other social institutions succeed in building a cultural base that will support a more adequate social functioning.

Another consideration confronts education. Communities and cities can no longer assume that they are educating only their own future citizens, or that their populations consist primarily of those they have reared. Mobility affects all segments and all areas of the Nation. Most certainly affected by foreseeable employment trends are those who by training and tradition have depended upon common labor employment.

> The South, more than any other region, finds its employment problem compounded by changes in agriculture. . . . The grim prospects of rural youth living on the farm are unparalleled in our history. Only one tenth of rural youth can look forward to operating a farm for a decent living.[10]

Children need to develop a cultural base which will equip them not only for changes within society but also for moving, geographically, within that society. The complications arising from mobility, as with the other problems that have been considered, reinforce the importance which should be attached to education's role in cultural transmission.

[10] Samuel P. Wiggins, *Southern High Schools and Jobless Youth*, Nashville, Tenn., Center for Southern Education Studies, 1961, p. 4

PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES

HYRUM M. SMITH

THE TEACHING FUNCTION is not a primary responsibility of pupil personnel services. As indicated below in the Council of Chief State School Officers' statement:

> Pupil personnel services benefit all pupils. . . . The primary purpose of pupil personnel services is to facilitate the maximum development of each individual through education. These services are essential to adequate appraisal of individual needs and potentialities and the realization of the potentialities. . . . Pupil personnel services encompass the following major services: guidance, health, psychological services, school social work services, and attendance.[1]

Rather, assistance is given in other ways to help boys and girls achieve their educational objectives.

In 1962, approximately 70,000 pupil personnel workers were employed in American schools by both local and State programs. Several professions were represented, with each contributing from the unique body of knowledge and skills that characterize its professional practice.

Frank Davis in his book *Pupil Personnel Services*[2] has outlined the early beginnings of pupil personnel services. He noted that 4 years before Massachusetts passed a compulsory school law in 1852, the Boston public schools employed an attendance officer to keep children in school. The first placement officer was employed in the public schools in 1900, in the Woonsocket High School in Rhode Island. School social work services began in 1906 in New York, Boston, and Hartford, Connecticut. The psychologist and the psychiatrist became known to the Boston schools in the same year. In 1910, in Salt Lake City, secondary schools employed a person to fulfill duties that would, today, be assigned to the dean of girls. Eli Weaver is credited as being the first counselor, in 1907, in the Brook-

[1] Council of Chief State School Officers, *Responsibilities of State Departments of Education for Pupil Personnel Services*, Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1960, p. 2.

[2] Frank G. Davis, *Pupil Personnel Services*, Scranton, Pa.: The International Textbook Company, 1945, p. 15.

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lyn Boys' High School; thus, counseling was inaugurated in the public schools. Each of these services was established independently to meet the needs of boys and girls, and added to the school program without regard to other related services. Each service has survived through the years as best it could. Its success, to an extent, has been in direct proportion to the interest and enthusiasm of its sponsors.

In colleges and universities the term student personnel was first applied to these programs in 1930, as they were being inaugurated. Williamson and Darley were among the first in higher education to advance the student personnel concept.[3] The pupil personnel title was employed when similar services were developed in the public secondary schools. Ruth Strang was among the first to describe the latter.[4] Today, these two terms, pupil personnel and student personnel, are being increasingly accepted in education to designate noninstructional services in the schools and colleges, respectively.

As early as 75 A.D., Quintilian, one of the first publicly paid teachers, recognized individual differences and urged the teachers of his day to note that:

> . . . as narrow-necked vessels reject a great quantity of the liquid that is poured upon them, but are filled by that which flows or is poured into them by degrees, so it is for us to ascertain how much the minds of boys can receive, since what is too much for their grasp of intellect will not enter their minds, as not being sufficiently expanded to admit it.[5]

The belief that each boy and girl should be helped to achieve his fullest potential is based upon the concept of individual differences. This concept has long been recognized but not always employed by educators. The ideal of the worth of the individual has also been emphasized and perpetuated in the tenets of education.

Early American education provided a strong subject-centered curriculum. It was not until 1860 that a broader curriculum was advocated by Herbert Spencer.[6] He proposed the following training goals for American education:

- Self-preservation
- Attainment of sustenance
- Discharge of parental duties
- Social and political conduct
- Use of leisure time

[3] E. G. Williamson and John G. Darley, *Student Personnel Work*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937.

[4] Ruth Strang, *Pupil Personnel and Guidance*, New York: The MacMillan Company, 1941.

[5] *Institutes of Oratory*, about 75 A.D.

[6] Herbert Spencer, *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical*, New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1860, p. 71-72.

Through the years the above goals have been restated, redefined, broadened, and supplemented by leading educators. Running through all of the restatements and redefinitions there is, however, a strong thread of concurrence with Herbert Spencer's belief that pupils should be educated to meet life. Today, many prominent educators agree with James B. Conant who states, "It should be the policy of the school that every student have an individualized program."[7] This is not to gainsay that prominent critics of education still believe strongly that the subject-centered curriculum is the answer to many of our current educational problems. An adherence to the thought that education should be tailored to individual differences underlies the use of pupil personnel services. It is based on the principle that the individual learns only at the rate with which he is able to resolve deterring factors.

The price of education, according to William James, is to increase one's perception of the world about him. His idea now, as in the past, has significance in a world filled with suspicion and unrest. America's future success depends upon the ability of its citizens to accurately perceive and understand the world. For the attainment of this ability, considerable reliance must be placed on more selective education. Each pupil should be challenged in a way that assures the attainment of his highest potential. Teachers must motivate as well as instruct.

The teacher's efforts can be greatly supplemented by a coordinated team rendering professional noninstructional services. A central justification for pupil personnel services is the assurance of a greater return from the educational investment of the child, his parents, and society. Since these supportive activities are employed selectively in conjunction with teaching and school administration, skilled interprofessional collaboration is an essential component.

Teamwork is often complicated by the presence of the following common elements in pupil personnel services:

1. Each noninstructional worker is engaged in a supportive role to the teacher.
2. All pupil personnel professions are educationally based in the behavioral sciences.
3. Each uses, in a professional relationship, the one-to-one or small group situation in its practice.
4. Each pupil personnel worker, to be effective, must interrelate closely with the teacher and principal, or other designated administrative personnel.

[7] James B. Conant, *The American High School Today*, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959, p. 46.

Unless these contacts are well coordinated, they may make excessive demands upon the time and attention of instructional personnel. Thus, in view of these similarities of purpose and method, clarity in assignment of function or responsibilities is paramount. A well-defined organization and expert administration are necessary even though, in the final analysis, the decisions about and the handling of each case are dependent upon professional judgments, skills, and services that are individualized for each child referred. Agreement regarding function and coordination is necessary to realize the full potential of the staff's resources and the unique competencies of each profession. Staffing and assignments derive not only from the task to be performed but also from a study of each profession and its capacity for servicing the essential elements of the program. Each worker should be assigned in accordance with his profession's accepted team responsibility, after evaluation of potential based on personal qualifications and the content and thoroughness of professional preparation.[8]

Need for Pupil Personnel Services

Schools are confronted with a growing problem of juvenile delinquency which is interrelated with the serious school dropout problem that is causing concern across the Nation. The President of the United States recently stated that 40 percent of the young people now in the fifth grade will not graduate from high school, and there is evidence that many of the most able high school graduates do not enter college. Donald S. Bridgman concluded that between 20 and 25 percent of recent male high school graduates in the upper 30 percent of their classes, as determined by test scores, do not enter college on a full-time basis. Of similarly able female graduates, about 45 percent fail to continue with higher education. For both together, about one-third do not immediately enter college as full-time students.[9]

The Children's Bureau established the fact that, in 1960, 514,000 cases involving delinquency were handled by juvenile courts, and that the rate of juvenile delinquency increased more rapidly than our population. This figure does not in-

[8] Horace W. Lundberg, "Obtaining Improved Coordination and Collaboration in Pupil Personnel Activities," Speech at American Personnel and Guidance Association Annual Conference, Chicago, April 18, 1962.

[9] Donald S. Bridgman, *The Duration of Formal Education for High-Ability Youth*, National Science Foundation. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961, p. vii.

clude 306,000 juvenile traffic cases.[10] Our public schools annually give special help to about 1,500,000, or one-fourth, of the children with some exceptionality including the blind, deaf, speech impaired, crippled, special health problems, socially and emotionally maladjusted, and the mentally retarded. Thus, at the present time, only about one out of four exceptional children is receiving specialized education to suit his needs.[11] These children with their individual differences in abilities, capacities, handicaps, and aptitudes have the inalienable right to an education.

The explosive increase of population and the surge of children into schools in the next 10 years will greatly complicate school administration. In 1950–51, there were 25,200,000 elementary and secondary students enrolled in public schools. In 1962–63, there were 38,800,000 students enrolled. It is predicted that a student enrollment of 44,000,000 youngsters can be expected by 1969.[12]

Another problem confronting teachers stems from the fact that more than 12,000,000 children in the United States move from one house to another in a single year, and 2,000,000 children move from one State to another.[13] This constant uprooting of children is often the cause of emotional and social difficulties, family welfare problems, nonattendance, and underachievement.

Seven and one-half million women, or 30 percent of those with children under 18, are now in our labor force. Three million of these mothers have children under 6 years old. More than 2.5 million children, or 11 percent of those under 18 years of age, are from homes broken by death, divorce, or desertion.[14]

Only a few of the many complex factors confronting the classroom teacher and school administrator have been mentioned. To meet these and other situations, there is a pressing need for professional services that can reduce the exorbitant waste of human talent and insure that the schools fulfill their educational obligation to every student.

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[10] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. *Health, Education, and Welfare Trends*, 1962 edition. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962, p. 86.

[11] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. *Annual Report*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961, p. 276.

[12] *Health, Education, and Welfare Trends*, op. cit., p. 42.

[13] Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth, *Children in a Changing World*, Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1960, p. 7.

[14] Ibid., p. 10.

What Are Pupil Personnel Services?

Pupil personnel services encompass the activities of several professions, and the organizational structure as well as the scope of assigned functions varies considerably. The following is a general description of the services most commonly found in a pupil personnel department designed to provide noninstructional services under a director who coordinates the activities and assignments of workers from a variety of professions.

Guidance services.—Counselors assist all students in their educational and vocational planning, and assess pupils' aptitude and general school progress.

Health services.—Health personnel see that each child develops a sense of responsibility for his own health as well as that of others. Each child should have, in addition to immediate health care, an understanding of the principles upon which good health is based. No child should be deprived of an effective education because of his physical condition.

School psychological services.—The school psychologist has been trained to examine, diagnose, and interpret educational problems of pupils through the administration and evaluation of individual tests. His educational preparation has been designed to help him understand children who have learning or behavior difficulties caused by physical, mental, or emotional handicaps.

School social work services.—School social workers have, through training and experience, secured unique skills for helping children who experience difficulty in using the resources of the school effectively. In general, the contributions of the school social worker are as follows:

1. Casework involving an individualized approach to understanding and assisting in modification of problems of adjustment through an extensive knowledge of human behavior and skill in interviewing.
2. Skillful utilization of community resources in the process of working with children and parents.
3. Consultation services to staff members concerning child growth and development, and problems of adjustment.
4. Continuous collaboration with teachers, administrators, and other noninstructional personnel in gathering and sharing information about students, designed to modify or resolve student adjustment problems.

Speech and hearing correction.—The speech and hearing specialist provides diagnostic and therapeutic services for

individuals handicapped by impairments of language, speech, or hearing. Even though this specialist works within the elementary and secondary schools, he is not a curriculum-oriented, instructional person. His specific responsibilities, skills, and basic professional identity remain that of a clinical worker in speech and hearing.

Pupil personnel services sometimes contain both instructional and noninstructional functions under one coordinator or director. Thus, it is not uncommon to see in pupil personnel departments other specialized educational services such as remedial instruction, speech and hearing therapy, instruction for the homebound student, and even special educational services. An example of this type of organizational unit is found in the Connecticut State Department of Pupil Personnel and Special Education Services. In Connecticut are also found all of the major pupil personnel services as outlined in the policy statement of the Chief State School Officers. It is contended that the pupil personnel and special educational services are so closely related that a single director can effectively coordinate the total program.

With any organizational structure, administrative clarity and a mutual understanding or concurrence regarding staff assignments are prerequisites to pleasant and effective staff relations. When mutual agreement and coordination are lacking within an organization there is a threat, as Dr. Harold Mahoney has pointed out, to professional integrity and a "jockeying" for position that results in a competitiveness within the staff.[15]

Common Aspects of Pupil Personnel Functions

Common elements that have been identified among the different pupil personnel services are as follows:

1. Each worker helps the pupil to a better self-understanding for a fuller utilization of his abilities. In order to do this, each worker explores or is concerned with the pupil's educational background and his abilities, as well as the psychological forces affecting the child.
2. Each worker cooperates with the school staff. The teacher has the major educational responsibility for all pupils; the pupil personnel staff collaborates with the teacher to facilitate her work.

[15] Harold J. Mahoney, "The Team Approach to Pupil Personnel Services." A paper presented to the Interprofessional Conference on Pupil Personnel Services in the Public Schools, Washington, D.C., Sept. 21, 1961.

3. Each worker develops and maintains information and records about pupils. The school social worker keeps a record of salient information regarding each child who is referred. The school psychologist's clinical diagnosis becomes a very important part of the school's record. The counselor has a major responsibility for the general cumulative records maintained for all students. The speech and hearing correctionist maintains information on diagnosis and learning progress in his area of responsibility. Health personnel acquire important data including the results of physical examinations.
4. Each worker contributes to research.
5. Each worker shares with other school personnel a responsibility for working with parents and community groups to facilitate the progress of each child and to interpret the work of the school.
6. The most important common aspect of their work is each worker's concern for the individual pupil. Neither the pupil's learning nor his adjustment should be compartmentalized. For success, there cannot be categorical descriptions of pupil problems with which one specialist or another is exclusively concerned. Before it can be determined that a child should be placed in a special class for the mentally retarded, for instance, it is necessary to have the pooled information and judgments of the school psychologist, physician, school social worker, teacher, and administrator.

In light of our present knowledge of learning and child behavior, children who are emotionally disturbed should not be considered the province of a single discipline. The problem of the underachiever, for example, cannot be resolved singly by the teacher, school psychologist, school social worker, speech correctionist, or school nurse. By working together, however, these specialists can arrive at the appropriate diagnosis and course of action. It is disturbing to a teacher, parent, or pupil to receive conflicting advice from specialists. This is a possibility unless provision is made for a unified and coordinated approach to pupil personnel services.

A Look to the Future in Pupil Personnel Services

Organization and administration.—Pupil personnel departments, with a director to coordinate all services, are being developed by both local and State educational administrators. In 1962, 16 States had recourse to pupil personnel services, and most of them used this term, with some variations. With future expansion in State and local pupil personnel programs, a State supervisor may be required for each of the services.

Preparation of pupil personnel specialists.—The association representing each profession in pupil personnel services has recommended additional preparation for its members. For instance, counselors are stressing the need of 2-year graduate

preparation. School social workers are considering a third year, or the doctorate, desirable for advanced practice, administration, teaching, and research. Attendance coordinators are urging personnel to complete their social work training (a master's degree). School nurses are recommending at least a bachelor's, preferably a master's, degree in public health nursing. School psychologists are recommending that a Ph.D. be attained. Colleges and universities are strengthening their programs for professional preparation in order that graduates may do more effective work.

Elementary school guidance.—Interest in guidance for the elementary schools is being manifested by administrators, universities, and the practicing professions. The 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth advocated guidance programs for elementary schools. Depending on local needs, for economy these elementary guidance specialists may be shared by more than one school. The consultant working in the elementary school will probably have been educated in one of several areas—guidance, school social work, or school psychology—with a background in such related fields as economics, sociology, anthropology, and health information. Several colleges and universities are already developing such broadly conceived and flexible programs for the preparation of elementary school consultants.

Certification.—At the present, all but five States require certification of guidance counselors. Some States require or are developing certification for other pupil personnel specialists. In the next few years it may well be that all pupil personnel specialists will be required by all States to meet specific standards in their educational preparation. Several regional associations in their accreditation of schools have also specified requirements for certain pupil personnel specialists.

Reciprocity.—Reciprocity in certification is being studied by several States. Standard credentials are being developed which would be mutually acceptable.

Research.—With encouragement and staff assistance from the U.S. Office of Education, 12 national associations met during 1961–62 to discuss the future of pupil personnel services in the schools. After several conferences they formally organized the Interprofessional Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services. This commission has developed a 5-year research proposal. This proposal was submitted and accepted for financial support by the National Institute of Mental

Health. A grant was made to the commission to carry out extensive, country-wide research in pupil personnel services. This 5-year research undertaking should throw much light on how the needs of children can best be served through pupil personnel services. It may also provide guidelines for the organization of such services in various sized school systems.

PRESENT PRACTICES IN SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

JERRY L. KELLEY

SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK, 55 years ago, manifested in its isolated and embryonic development ideals of individual worth and the need to improve human functioning. There were social work ideals concerning socially underprivileged children which led the settlement houses of New York and Boston to reach out to the nearby schools as a means of improving service to children. The desire to augment psychological treatment of socially disturbed children led a Hartford, Connecticut, clinic to appoint a "special" teacher to work with these children in the schools. Educational responsibility for nonattendant children led school administrators to appoint visiting teachers and assign these the responsibility for constructive enforcement of compulsory attendance laws.

Today social workers are not yet employed in all schools, but their services are increasingly available. Clearly recognized as a distinct field of practice within the social work profession, school social work is also established as a vital segment of pupil personnel services in education. School social work has perpetuated the founding ideals while extending and refining its services. Social services are now available to more than the underprivileged, the disturbed, or the nonattendant school child.

The Shift in Focus

In the forefront now are programs for preventing delinquency, identifying and helping the potential dropout, and strengthening the educational accomplishment of the gifted and the underachiever. The earlier focus on children with particular symptoms or problems has been broadened over the years to provide for a potential contribution to all children.

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In individual communities a special project can still be centered on a particular group. More frequently, as in Connecticut, Illinois, or New Jersey, new programs are designed to make the social worker's help available to prevent or alleviate the social disfunctioning of any school child. This professional help takes various forms: casework counseling to children and parents, consultation with other school personnel, and coordination of school and community efforts.

Casework.—The troubled child in school is usually first identified by his teacher. The teacher proffers help out of his own professional knowledge and skill. This may be insufficient and special help necessary, if the problem is too severe, prolonged, or otherwise not amenable to the efforts of the teacher alone. John Nebo has written regarding the situations which require services in addition to those normally provided by the teacher:

> The main contribution of the school social worker is a specialized casework service which is based on his understanding of human behavior, skill in interviewing, and ability to use community resources . . . . As a member of the school staff the school social worker receives referrals, from teachers and other school personnel, of children who are exhibiting symptoms of social or emotional difficulty which are interfering with their learning, attendance, or social adjustment.[1]

In collaboration with the teacher and other school personnel who know the child, the social worker assists him sometimes briefly, sometimes over a period of months. Noar gives the following description of casework interviewing with school children:

> [The interview is] . . . a dynamic experience between the child and the worker; it should provide an arena or relationship within which the troubled child can do several things:
>
> 1. Clarify his own problem;
> 2. Gain support in accepting it;
> 3. Acquire motivation and strength for solving or modifying it;
> 4. Receive, concurrently, increased self-understanding in areas apart from his problem.[2]

Thus by casework the child is helped to acquire a greater understanding of himself and his situation, to find his own strengths, and to use these strengths toward improving his adjustment in school and in his peer relationships.

Parents are nearly always included in the helping process, although the focus remains on the child. They are helped to understand the school, its personnel, and its expectations as

[1] John C. Nebo, "Some Aspects of Social Work Practice in Schools," *Social Work in the Schools—Selected Papers.* New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1960, p. 8.
[2] Florence Noar, "Working With Children," *Social Work in the Schools—Selected Papers.* New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1960, p. 27.

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these relate to their child. In turn, school personnel gain a clearer perception of the family. Through their enriched knowledge parents frequently find more effective ways of expressing concern for their child and improved means of assisting him.

On occasion parents need particular help with their own problems. Marital stress or interpersonal discord may adversely affect the child at school as well as at home. The social worker can assist the family to recognize the nature of its own involvement in the child's problem and, where indicated, its responsibility for aiding in the resolution of the difficulty. Where the family recognizes the need for assistance with its own problems, the worker may aid in finding additional organized social resources in the community. Often those most in need of such assistance through community services are the least capable of reaching out for this help.

In some cases the major efforts of the social worker are related to factors that are external to the family, a means of helping which has been termed "environmental modification." Coordinated efforts to effect environmental change are often considered part of professional practice. The social worker, in collaboration with other professional persons, seeks to establish a more benign milieu for the child. Once a helping plan has been outlined for a specific pupil, his surrounding circumstances in and out of school may be changed for the better as a result of this plan. In school a teacher may change the child's seat in a class, or the guidance counselor may work out a special program of classes. Out of school the parents may arrange for swimming lessons, or the minister may invite the child to attend youth group meetings.

The social worker is primarily concerned with the child in school. However, this concern is expressed through mobilizing not only strengths within the child and the parents, but also the resources of school personnel and the community. All efforts are designed to make it possible for this child to realize his fullest potential in school.

Consultation.—An important role of the social worker is that of consultant to other faculty members. He obviously should not make curricular decisions, but he may provide information about the community and knowledge from the behavioral sciences which will contribute substantially to the basis for these decisions. Furthermore, the teacher may wish the social worker's judgment regarding a rebellious pupil or how best to individualize his classroom assignments. In another instance

he may inquire about a particularly withdrawn or poorly adjusted pupil, perhaps seeking to clarify whether the child should be referred to the social worker for special help.

In other instances a guidance counselor may want to know more about the social-emotional factors that underlie a learning difficulty, and turn to the social worker as a source of additional knowledge. Again, the principal may seek the social worker's opinion regarding the practical effectiveness of some school practice, such as suspension policy and its impact on parents and community-school collaboration.

All of the above are examples of consultation as defined below:

> Consultation is the provision of professional knowledge, judgment, and suggestions regarding a situation in professional practice at the request or with the concurrence of the consultee. The full and continuing professional responsibility for the practice situation including the use to be made of the consultant's information and recommendation remains with the consultee.[3]

Coordination.—The school social worker is frequently a coordinator. As plans for a troubled child are implemented, it is often the school social worker who serves as the liaison between home and school, between agency and school, or between different personnel within the school. Out of his understanding of children and extensive familiarity with social agencies, he is able to further coordination at the various levels. There may, for example, be curricular implications in population shifts within a school district. Through the school social worker the community agencies have a natural avenue of communication to the school. Their special knowledge of the community is thus more readily available as a basis for informed school decisions.

The social worker, depending upon local circumstances, shifts his emphasis from one professional activity to another, though the heart of his practice is the provision of basic casework service to children and parents.[4] More and more, however, consultation and coordination services have been developed and accepted as part of professional practice. This social work emphasis on consultation and coordination relates to services

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[3] Horace W. Lundberg, "Obtaining Improved Coordination and Collaboration in Pupil Personnel Activities." A paper read in Chicago, April 18, 1962, at the American Personnel and Guidance Association Annual Convention.

[4] Increasingly the method of social group work is also being practiced in schools. This method utilizes group situations as a means of helping individual troubled children and/or their parents. See Gisela Konopka, "The Method of Social Group Work," *Concepts and Methods of Social Work*, Walther A. Friedlander, ed. Englewood, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1958.

to the individual child, to groups of children, and to other work within the school and the community.

Integration Within Education

Many of the historic threads woven into the fabric of school social work are today faded and discolored. Others have been reinforced and emerge as established patterns of service. Some of the major elements in this integration are: the administrative incorporation of social services into the school system; the clarification of the educational rationale for social work service in the schools; the emergence of interdisciplinary collaboration of all professional school personnel; and the crystallization of training requirements for school social workers.

Administrative incorporation.—In the beginning community agencies, such as settlement houses and psychological clinics, wanted help when they provided social services to the schools. They recognized the importance of the accessibility to troubled children in the school. School personnel, out of the desire to assist certain children, also reached out for help from the social agencies.

Rochester, New York, was the first school system, acting on this common concern of the educator and social worker, to place social work services within the structure of the school system. Social workers were employed as part of the regular professional staff of the schools. Thus, the school gained more completely the responsibility for administering school social work. There are many functional advantages in this pattern of having the school social workers share authority, responsibility, and privileges with teachers, principals, and others who are employed by the school. Of this Nebo wrote:

> The fact that a school social worker is an employee of the school system, subject to the same responsibilities and privileges as teachers and other school personnel, identifies him with the school. The child referred to the school social worker is a pupil who is not benefiting from the educational program. Therefore, the service adheres to and is related to the educational objectives of the school. The child who has a problem in school is helped more effectively in that setting by a person who is unmistakably a part of the school.[5]

Educational rationale.—Another major integrative factor is the clarification of the educational base or rationale for school social work. Of prominence was the early belief that a child's

[5] John C. Nebo, ed., *Administration of School Social Work.* New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1960.

home and neighborhood environment probably needed changing. The school could help, for example, by assisting the settlement house in the fulfillment of its neighborhood service aims. In the "clinic" approach, psychologically and psychiatrically oriented agencies found the school to be a valuable asset in furthering their clinical treatment objectives. Meanwhile, through compulsory attendance laws, educators became legally bound to educate all children. Concurrently, they were deepening their philosophic commitment to provide, consistent with their abilities, an equal educational opportunity for all children. Special physical, mental, social, and emotional factors became identified as inhibiting or prohibiting normal school progress for some children. Out of this attempt to equalize the educational opportunity for all children developed the concepts and pattern of pupil personnel services. While educators have many purposes in common with the other community agencies who are concerned with children, the central justification for the direct employment of social workers in the schools remains the fulfillment of educational goals, rather than the noneducational goals of the community.

Interdisciplinary collaboration.—The concept of teamwork is now widely accepted and demonstrated. School social workers have supported this concept. There is to be found a commonality of educational objectives for children among teachers, guidance counselors, administrators, counselors, nurses, psychologists, social workers, and others. The *services* given, the *knowledge* employed, and *methods* used, as well as immediate *purposes*, may vary from one professional person to another. Yet, it is being recognized that the child is helped most by a unified effort.

The team approach has helped school social workers become better accepted and their services better integrated into the schools. Conversely, in some earlier social work articles, there was an implication that the teacher may, at times, have been looked upon as a client.[6] The clinical focus of social workers in that period, and their more isolated services, may serve to explain this point of view, but not to justify it.

The present aim is for all members of a school faculty to view each professional person as a coworker, to collaborate with rather than compete with. They work toward mutual respect, not toward the ranking of each profession in accordance with some preconceived status system.

[6] Shirley Leonard, "Visiting Teachers," *Social Work Yearbook*, Fred S. Hall, ed. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1935.

The Growth of the Profession

Internal improvement.—School social workers have been concerned, fundamentally, with improving their services to students, parents, and communities, in collaboration with other school personnel. Hence, they have concentrated on a consistent examination of their education and practice. In progressive and circular fashion, such examination has usually led to the publication of new knowledge and consensus; and these, when applied, have led to further examination.[7]

External improvement.—In addition to seeking to enhance their own specific functioning, school social workers have concentrated on facilitating the conditions of practice. Efforts have been made to improve the understanding and support given school social work.

By clarifying its own practice, school social work has assisted other members of the school team and the general public to differentiate more clearly the variations in professional functions. Social workers, psychologists, guidance counselors, nurses, teachers, and others have become more precise in their understanding of what each does best and distinctively, and what several professions may do equally well. On this broader interdisciplinary level, every effort has been made to collaborate with other professions in the establishment of new school social work programs as well as the improvement of existing ones.

As school social work practice has evolved, it has been significantly influenced in its content and method by the nature of the public school program and the needs of pupils. Furthermore, activities of social workers, as members of a professional team, have been conditioned by the characteristics of allied professions. Each profession has sought to utilize fully its own growing body of professional knowledge and increasing skills. Advancements in pupil personnel practices already have been derived from these interchanges. As the various professions individually and collectively push ahead with thinking, research, and practice, more and better services for children will emerge.

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[7] The following basic school social work documents have been published by the National Association of Social Workers, New York: *School Social Work Practice*, by Virginia Quattlebaum, 1958; *Helping the Troubled School Child*, by Grace Lee, 1959; *Administration of School Social Work*, by John C. Nebo, 1960; *Social Work in the Schools—Selected Papers*, 1960; and *School Social Work, Its Contribution to Professional Education*, by Arlien Johnson, 1962.

STATE LEVEL LEADERSHIP, ADMINISTRATION, AND FINANCIAL SUPPORT[1]

JOHN C. NEBO

The Changing Role of the State

THE TENTH AMENDMENT to the United States Constitution reserves primary responsibility for public education to the States. Originally, by precedent set in colonial times or through delegation, the States placed considerable autonomical authority in the local school units or boards. Thus, local control has been a fundamental characteristic of American education.

> The American public school is one of possible types that might have developed. It so happens that State legislatures have decided that school districts would be formed, that these may establish schools, that there should be local boards of education in charge of the schools, that school officials may be elected, and so forth. Such a system of delegated power with local control and direction fits in with our notions of democracy and is thus supported by democratic values and hallowed by tradition. The parent group, however, is the state, and the public schools make up one of its delegated or subsidiary agencies.[2]

A review of educational literature of recent years also reveals an increasing acceptance of the role of the State in developing and maintaining educational standards.

A State department of education is a legal creation. Legislation defines its powers and duties. Its philosophy or policies with regard to the educational designs for the State are usually the result of several factors: (1) The legislation itself and the powers and duties of the chief State school officer as stated in the legislation; (2) policies and procedures that have previously been formulated; (3) particular ideas and plans which have

[1] Much of the material for this article has been drawn from printed circulars, reports, and other materials issued by the departments of education of six States—Connecticut, Georgia, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, and New Jersey—which, in 1962, had consultants for school social work. The original documents are available on request from the State departments of education.

[2] H. Otto Dahlke, *Values in Culture and Classroom*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958, p. 72.

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motivated the chief State school officer and his staff; and (4) the traditions and practices which have developed over a period of time.

Six basic considerations characterize the role of the State in its educational system:

1. The extent is established by its constitution, precedents, and practices of equality of educational opportunities for all its children.
2. Within varying limits, public education is both provided free or at reduced cost and is compulsory.
3. Local units receive their authority for conducting, developing, and financing their educational programs through custom and the extension of the plenary authority of the State.
4. Public taxes may be levied, collected, and used to give an educational opportunity to all children.
5. Varying combinations of legal representative and taxing authority are vested in local, county, or State levels of government.
6. Minimum and maximum age limits are determined by the State.

Wayland has further clarified some of these considerations:

> Education is the only activity in the American society in which all persons are required by law to participate. There are many activities in which a high proportion of the people do participate voluntarily, and many activities which are specifically forbidden to all. Compulsory school attendance is the one exception to free and voluntary association . . . . Flexibility and the operations of checks and balances have insured a measure of freedom in education through a pattern of local and State control, in spite of the universal and compulsory feature of education. . . .[3]

With the recent trend toward greater State controls, State departments of education, for consistency, have need of a philosophy or body of well-considered purposes which will result in the establishment of principles to aid them in a reassertion of State-level guidance or regulation in education. Equalization of fiscal resources among local school districts and the assurance of uniformity of educational opportunities are practices that may well derive from an underlying philosophy. Limits to local control, or the reassumption of authority by the State, are exemplified by: (1) Teacher certification, (2) textbook selection, (3) statewide achievement testing, (4) compulsory attendance laws, and (5) programs of special education.

Collaboration Between State and Local Units

In school social work services, as is true in the development of all educational programs, the State and the local unit can

[3]Sloan R. Wayland, "The School as a Community Center," *Public Education in America*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958, p. 161.

best realize their objectives by working together. There are two factors which must be considered: (1) The State should encourage local initiative; and (2) local units should face the fact that there are children in their schools who need special help, and these units should assume responsibility for the provision of this help.

Despite differences in areas of jurisdiction and functions, all levels or types of school administrative agencies—local school districts, intermediate units, and the State education agency—hold a number of factors in common:

- Each is a product of State law, having been created either by means of constitutional mandate or legislative enactments.
- Each derives its powers and functions from State law.
- None has any inherent power to alter, abolish, or perpetuate its organizational identity.
- None has any inherent power to take over the functions assigned to another level.
- Each shares in the responsibility for administering public education.
- Each owes its existence to one fundamental purpose—provision of adequate educational opportunities for all children in the State.

In these respects there is no hierarchy among administrative levels, with one level subordinate to the others. Instead, all are coordinate agencies. All are copartners to achieving the common purpose, each with its own tasks to perform as authorized by State law.[4]

Thus, school social work programs are more successful when both local and State officials recognize that social work offers valuable enrichment to the school. It is a professional service with a specific contribution to make to children who cannot fully use their right to an opportunity for an education because of their emotional and social disadvantages. These children may not learn to their capacity, yet they may improve with the help of specialists. School social work, as do the other pupil personnel services, supports the objectives of education.

The fact that there are State school social work consultants implies recognition of the need for assistance from the State to the local district. Yet, from its inception, school social work has been most often initiated through local schools by educators inviting another profession to participate in their programs. One of the essential factors in the development of any pupil personnel service, then, is the support of educators who are convinced of the value of the service. Such leadership

[4] American Association of School Administrators, "School District Organization, Report of the A.A.S.A. Commission on School District Reorganization," Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958, p. 67.

is necessary to make it possible for the new service to demonstrate its value in the context of the school program. This is true at all levels—local, State, and national.

Inauguration of Local Programs

In the six States studied, the inauguration of school social work at the local district level was based on permissive legislation. Each school district elected either to have or not to have the service. The decision to introduce the service was based, generally, on the recognition of the need of certain children for special help in order to make the best possible use of their school experience. These are the children in the school population who have social and emotional difficulties. They are required, under compulsory education, to attend school; and they need help, just as physically and mentally handicapped children frequently need adaptations of the regular classroom. Unfortunately, not all school districts are prepared to face their responsibility for these children. Dr. Ray Graham has proposed four elements which are needed for the successful establishment and continued effectiveness of a new service:

1. Acceptance by the board of education is not enough. It must be accepted by the staff and community. This acceptance means both accepting the children with problems and accepting the responsibility for helping those who need this particular service.
2. Readiness of staff and community results from the encouragement of their participation in the initial studies of need and their exploration of the best adaptations of the service to their problems. Readiness establishes the climate for a successfully functioning program.
3. Balance includes a correct understanding of what a school social work program is and what it is not. Balance does not result if the discipline is trained to do one type of service but is expected to do another . . . .
4. Timing includes many things. Understanding and interpretation come first. Readiness and acceptance are an outgrowth of these first two steps. Then comes the time for organization and for starting the service. Timing is a matter of sequence. It is also quantitative. Too little time to assure understanding can result in nonacceptance, difficulties, and failure.[5]

During the period prior to the actual establishment of the service, the State consultant is available to share his knowledge and skill with the local district. During this deliberative process the school board and superintendent are free to reject or accept the advice of the consultant as together they consider whether to institute the program.

[5] Ray Graham, "The School Administrator Views School Social Work," *Social Work*, The Journal of the National Association of Social Workers, October 1958, p. 97.

Continuing Function of the State

If a district chooses to establish a school social work program, it can expect services and assistance through a continuing relationship with the State department of education. However, after the establishment of the service, if State grants are provided, the role of the State consultant changes. An element of authority related to State reimbursement enters the picture. Accordingly, each of the six States referred to has developed policies and minimum standards which are to be met by the local district in order to receive reimbursement. Usually, there is flexibility in the administration of these standards. However, the fact that the State consultant is assigned responsibility for making a recommendation regarding the approval of local programs gives his position an administrative cast rather than one which is purely consultative.

The standards are broad guidelines which the State offices have established to develop and insure quality service at the local level. These standards apply to such matters as academic qualifications of the school social worker and recommendations regarding methods of referral, office space and equipment, secretarial help, salaries, travel allowance, methods of scheduling, ratio of coverage of pupil population per worker, size and nature of caseloads, case records, reports, and others. The intent of these standards is to set a sound base under the content and practice of the local programs.

Administrative Place of the Consultant

The position of the consultant in the administrative structure of the State office is different in each State. In Illinois, it is part of the division of special education; in Connecticut, part of the bureau of pupil personnel and special education services, division of instruction. Michigan includes it as one of the special services in the division of curriculum service; New Jersey places the social work consultant in the department of special education services, division of curriculum instruction. In Georgia, the coordinator is under the director of school administration, but the training consultant is under the director of instruction. In Massachusetts the State supervisor is in the division of youth service of the State department of education. The program of school adjustment counseling is the joint responsibility of the commissioner of education and the director of this division, who also has other responsi-

bilities as head of the State agency for delinquency prevention and control. Only one consultant is responsibile for a program (school psychology) in addition to school social work. Of interest is the tendency in the various States for the administrative pattern of the State department office to be reflected in the administrative pattern of the local district.

Common Practices

There have developed within the six States various similarities in practice. For instance, the inauguration of the service at the local level is accomplished by an application to the State office for approval. This recognition of a grass-roots approach is sound because the district must be interested in and stimulated by its need to create the programs necessary to the solution of its own problems. The State consultants are being used in an advisory capacity to clarify and focus this interest prior to the beginning of the program. Better planned programs are a consequence.

In all States, personnel practices for school social workers are a local responsibility and are, in general, the same as personnel practices for teachers. These include salary schedules, although in some States there is a differential paid by the local district. The differential salary is based on the premise that school social workers usually work a longer school day than do teachers, due to their late afternoon and evening interviews with parents. In general, salary schedules recognize that a master's degree in social work requires 2 years, as compared to 1 year for a master's degree in education. The length of the school year is generally the same for teachers and school social workers, although there are exceptions. School social workers are employed for a longer term in some States.

In all but one State, Georgia, the wording of the legislation regarding the duties of the school social worker is broad and general, subsuming them under the rules and regulations prescribed by the State department of education. This delegation of control has resulted in the preparation of materials by the various States to implement their responsibility. Central planning has resulted in a flexible uniformity of programs.

In all six of the States studied, there has been a transition from the original function assigned to school social work programs to one of greater breadth and depth. In four of the States—Connecticut, Georgia, Michigan, and New Jersey—the

impetus for the service came from a concern about attendance, and resulted in the extension of the visiting teacher movement. The other two States, Illinois and Massachusetts, had the prevention of juvenile delinquency as their focal point. In 1962, all States had a broader casework service available for all socially and emotionally handicapped children than was available at the inception of the programs, although they still include truancy and juvenile delinquency problems as part of their overall responsibility.

State Reimbursement to Local Districts

Patterns of reimbursement vary among the States; however, in all cases, the principle of State-local contribution is observed. The following tabulation presents the reimbursements by the six States to local districts for school social work in 1962.

State	*Reimbursement*
Connecticut	$3,000 for each social worker (40 percent).
Georgia	Salary, one social worker per 75 teachers.
Illinois	$3,000 for each social worker.
Massachusetts	$4,500 for the first social worker and $2,250 for each subsequent worker.
Michigan	75 percent of costs up to $5,125 for each school population unit of 2,500.
New Jersey	One-half of the costs—not to exceed $2 per average daily enrollment.

Certification

Certification is a means of maintaining minimum standards of professional qualification for teachers and other professional employees in the public schools. These certification requirements are designed by State departments of education in collaboration with representatives from local districts, professional schools, and professional associations.

All six States have requirements for certification. Three States—Connecticut, Georgia, and Illinois—issue a provisional certificate carrying a reduced level of qualifications acceptable

for a limited period of time, after which full requirements must be met. While there are variations in the requirements for certification, all except one State, Massachusetts, require some graduate training in social work for full approval. Massachusetts will accept the master's degree in social work as well as the master's degree in an allied field. All States except two, Illinois and New Jersey, require some experience in social work and/or teaching for full certification. One of these States, New Jersey, provides an alternative between (1) the master's degree in social work and (2) 3 years of school social work experience plus 12 graduate semester hours in social work education. Three of the six States—Connecticut, Illinois, and New Jersey—do not require teacher training and/or experience, and grant approval on the basis of social work education alone.

Of interest, however, are the responses to a questionnaire completed in 1962 with regard to trends in certification. All six States responded that the trend was toward requiring the master's degree in social work, and only one State, Georgia, foresaw an extended retention of the requirement of teacher training.

Consultants' Activities and Responsibilities

The activities and responsibilities as reported by the consultants from their experience are outlined in table 1. This table was constructed from the answers to a questionnaire that was completed by the State consultants for the school year 1961-62. It reflects the consultants' estimates of their own work activities. The table presents the percentage of time devoted to various professional activities. These are broad, generalized functions which can readily be broken down into more specific activities. It is assumed that the amount of time spent on the various activities will vary from year to year, depending on the stage of development of the State's program and the changing needs of its local school districts. As local programs become better established, consultants tend to devote more time to newly created and less well-established services. These include consultative services to districts on specific problems.

The activities and responsibilities of State department of education consultants can be divided into two categories, regulatory and leadership (see table 1). The recognition of the consultant's responsibility for upgrading the performance of

TABLE 1.—*Percent of time devoted by State school social work consultants to professional activities, by type of responsibility: Selected States, 1962*

Activity	Responsibility		Percent of time by State							
	Leadership	Regulatory	Conn.	Georgia		Illinois		Mass.	Mich.	N.J.
				Worker A	Worker B	Worker A	Worker B			
1. Interpreting school social work and coordinating with the State superintendent of public instruction and staff	X		5	5	5	2	1	0	5	5
2. Interpreting and coordinating activities with other State departments	X		5	15	5	10	1	5	5	5
3. Preparing State directives, regulations, and instructions for programs		X	7	5	0	5	1	10	15	20
4. Evaluating local programs and activities		X	15	5	0	40	30	10	30	15
5. Selecting and evaluating school social work personnel		X	5	15	5	10	1	10	10	20
6. Reviewing social worker reports and preparing State reports		X	3	10	0	3	5	5	10	0
7. Promoting activities with non-State department agencies	X		30	40	5	5	5	5	10	5
8. Supervising and inservice training of workers, and developing programs at local level	X	X	25	0	75	5	50	40	10	0
9. Conducting institutes and workshops for group inservice training	X	X	5	5	5	5	5	15	5	5
10. Other			0	0	0	15	1	0	0	25

school social workers in the local school districts is reflected in the amount of time devoted to evaluation and supervision. These activities, items 4 and 8 of table 1, represent time spent by the consultant working in the local districts. Two States, Georgia and Illinois, employ a second consultant whose primary responsibilities lie in these areas. Relatedly, the addition of supervisors of school social work in expanding programs on the local level has been occurring in many places and has resulted in improved service. A total of the items that fall under the broad term of "staff development" (items 3, 4, 6, 8, and 9 of table 1) shows that consultants spend a total of approximately 60 percent of their time in this area.

All the State plans provided for a staff investment in group inservice training on a statewide or regional basis. An apparent discrepancy in the table concerning the amount of time

which the consultants devote to this area (item 9) can be explained by the fact that much of this group inservice training is done in conjunction with a State visiting teacher association, a school social work section of the National Association of Social Workers, or a university.

It is interesting to note that a relatively large part of the consultant's time is spent in selection and evaluative functions in spite of the fact that the major responsibility for selection and employment of the workers rests with the local district. Local districts evaluate the personal qualifications and references of school social work applicants, and a contract is signed with the local district. Approval of the academic background of applicants is the only employment responsibility assumed by the State.

Problems

In 1963, there were several common problems confronting the State consultants for school social work:

1. The employment of a sufficient staff of consultants in the State department office to maintain an adequate program of inservice training and consultative service to the local districts.
2. The provision of adequate social work supervision at the local level. This problem relates to both the preceding problem and the one following. Although State supervision can never give the service which should be provided through local supervision, there is a need for State consultation even in districts with local supervision. Also to be considered as an area for further interpretation is the lack of recognition by some educators of the value of local supervision. Local supervision is particularly pertinent for the newly graduated worker.
3. A perennial problem is the recruitment of staff at the local level to provide uniform coverage and increasingly improved quality of social work services. In some of the States, there have been positions created by the local districts which have remained unfilled for several years. Staff recruitment is particularly difficult in the more rural areas.

However, in spite of these problems there are more and more local communities and states across the country which are interested in the establishment of school social work services. This is evidenced by the volume of mail which is received by the National Association of Social Workers, the specialist for school social work in the U.S. Office of Education, and the offices of the consultants in the six States.

GOALS, RECRUITMENT, TRAINING, AND STAFFING

ELSIE NESBIT

Common Goals of Social Work and Education

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL WORK share many of the same goals, and significant contributions to both accrue from their combined efforts. Each is dedicated to the worth of the individual and the ideal of helping people reach their highest potential socially, emotionally, spiritually, physically, and intellectually. To assure a well-rounded intellectual, physical, and social adjustment is a mutual objective consistent with the schools' broad educational responsibility. Social agencies' efforts are designed to prevent or relieve human suffering and to assist individuals, families, groups, and communities achieve more satisfying and productive levels of social functioning. Thus, when broadly conceived, their services constitute a reinforcement of the goals of the schools. Specifically, however, the justification for social work in the schools is to enhance the pupils' learning and to take advantage of the favorable opportunities for improving students' functioning that are afforded by school experiences.

The schools have a major role in the total maturation—educational, vocational, cultural, and social—of each succeeding generation. To this end, the history of education reveals an increasing awareness of the individuality of children. Out of this awareness, the schools have called upon the services of allied professions, such as medicine, nursing, psychiatry, psychology, and social work. Schools reach virtually all children during a large part of their formative years. Because of the fundamental and encompassing nature of this responsibility, both social agencies and schools have recognized the advantage of close and cooperative collaboration between social and educational institutions.

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Furthermore, this recognition has been reflected in evaluative and adjustment services in the schools, services that are designed to help children make maximum use of their educational experiences. Social work in the schools contributes to these ends by providing casework to pupils and their families that is related to the child's school work; consultative and collaborative work with other staff; referral and interpretative information to the community with regard to the problems of certain children; and activities supporting the development of other community resources and programs.

The justification for an individualized, conjunctive program supplemental to instruction is manifest in education by nonattendance, continued failure to learn commensurate with ability, ill health, and other evidences of poor social, emotional, or school adjustment. To this end school administrators in increasing numbers have for more than 50 years employed social workers, along with other pupil personnel workers, on the school staff.

Conversely, social agencies are putting greater reliance on cooperation from the schools in their treatment and planning for children and their families. These considerations have seemed to justify every effort to identify and clarify common objectives leading to greater mutual understanding and cooperation between the two professions. Thus, social work in the schools has become a recognized field of social work practice.

School Contributions to Social Work Education

The field instruction courses (field work) are an integral part of professional education for social work, and they are frequently based in the public schools. These courses generally parallel the classroom studies, and, with research, they constitute the three major segments of professional social work education. Field instruction provides the student an experience in practice within the milieu of a social work program. Functioning as a professional person, a student has an opportunity to develop competence and skill in social work through his own responsible participation in social work activities. Thus, under the supervision of a capable field instructor in the agency, he tests the theoretical knowledge gained in the classroom.

Elementary and secondary schools have some distinct advantages as field work placements in professional social work

education inasmuch as education is their fundamental purpose. Philosophically and practically, they are well suited to offer social work field instruction. Their capacity to provide a sound practice setting for social work students has been augmented by their experience with the education of cadet teachers, school counselors, and school psychologists. The elementary and secondary schools afford an unexcelled opportunity for sustained experience with, and observation of, a complete cross section of American youth. There is present in the school a full range of intellectual, social, and cultural differences as the community's economic, cultural, and emotional characteristics are mirrored in its pupils. Furthermore, there is potentially available within the public schools an almost unlimited field work resource. Its full development would have the double advantage of contributing to social work education, while at the same time strengthening the public school program.

Social Work Influence on Education

Field instruction as an educational method has been a valuable contribution of social work to professional education.[1] Its central elements are an educational experience with individualized supervision of the student's professional practice by the field instructor. Field instruction is usually carried concurrently with the acquisition of related theoretical information in the classroom.

The Council on Social Work Education

In purpose and by its organizational structure and membership, the Council on Social Work Education provides an opportunity for the blending and synthesis of the insights and experiences gained from both professional education and practice. It provides through its program a means of bringing about curricular changes that reflect these experiences from education and professional practice, as they are modified and enriched by joint study, testing, and planned research.

The major purpose of the Council on Social Work Education is to promote the development of sound programs of social work education in the United

[1] For a description of the educational practices employed by various professions, see William J. McGlothin, *Patterns of Professional Education*, New York: Putnum, 1960.

> States, its territories and possessions, and in Canada. In accordance with this purpose, the council represents social work in all educational matters of common concern to the profession.[2]

Accreditation is the means whereby the profession can safeguard the standards of practice by assuring the adequacy of the professional education of its new members. The Council on Social Work Education, as the official body responsible for the accreditation of graduate schools of social work, carries out this most important function.

Professional Education for Social Work

As in medical and psychiatric facilities, social work is not the primary purpose of the schools. To work in the schools the social worker, therefore, must have or acquire a considerable knowledge of a second field of professional practice. Beyond the specifics of social work knowledge and skill, an understanding of public education is important for the social worker to be able to function effectively within the school milieu. This does not lessen his responsibility for effectiveness in the use of social work methods, social services, and the knowledge of human growth and development. Their full realization and maximum utilization in school practice is, however, enhanced by a clear understanding of the characteristics of the setting, enabling the social worker to draw upon all the school and community resources for the benefit of the child and his family.

In general, there have been two points of view reflected in school social work practice: (1) The workers have first been teachers by education and experience and then have acquired a varied amount of social work education; and (2) with social work education, entry has been made into the schools either with or without social work experience in other settings. The latter point of view is emerging as the standard, although varying qualifications have been established from State to State. In 1960, the School Social Work Section of the National Association of Social Workers adopted the following statement on professional qualifications for school social workers:

> The basic standard for a school social worker is graduation from an accredited school of social work [a two-year course of study].[3]

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[1] Council on Social Work Education, "Legislation and Social Action Policy for the Council on Social Work Education, Adopted by the Board of Directors." New York: The Council, May 1962.

[3] National Association of Social Workers, *Professional Qualifications for School Social Workers.* New York: The Association. (Mimeo.)

This statement acknowledges:

> . . . the necessity for an orientation to and knowledge of the school as a social institution. This understanding . . . may be obtained in various ways:
>
> 1. Orientation and inservice training provided through employing school system.
> 2. Field work placement in a school setting.
> 3. Relevant courses in education.[4]

The reasoning behind the NASW position is that the school should utilize the expertness of each profession to help fulfill its educational objectives. Far too few can or will become experts in social work and teaching. Confronted with this choice, it is less important that the school social worker be trained in teaching than in social work since he does not perform teaching functions. In school social work the practitioner is a social worker by training and skill, and an educator by empathy and support. In other words, the primary requirement is considered to be professional social work education.

The practice of employing school social work staff with graduate social work qualifications has only recently appeared to receive more favorable consideration in some States which formerly relied primarily on teacher education. Some of these States have certified school social workers based on social work education or a combination of social work education and experience. Under these circumstances the concomitant need for greater attention to the orientation of the social worker to the public school setting has also been recognized.

This question of the basic professional preparation, then, has been of considerable concern to a large proportion of the schools who have been providing this kind of professional nonclassroom service. A number of State departments of education, as well as the professional organization, have been giving attention to school social work staffing in an effort to determine the minimum experience necessary for practice.

In retrospect, from the earliest beginnings of social work practice in the schools, both teachers and social workers have been recruited to give a casework type service in the schools. As early as 1923, 45 of 58 visiting teachers in New York had social work training or experience; and in 1939, at least half of the members of the American Association of Visiting Teachers (predecessor to the School Social Work Section of the National

[4] Ibid.

Association of Social Workers) were graduates of schools of social work.[5]

For these programs, in 1964 some States require teacher training and experience, with some basic course requirements in social work. On the other hand, several States accept or require the master of social work degree as the central and necessary preparation for school social work practice.

To achieve their primary objective of improved human functioning, social workers are employed by many kinds of service organizations. Examples of these sites of social work practice include hospitals, children's institutions, and juvenile courts as well as schools. The knowledge and skills which the social worker brings to these settings are different from and supplemental to that of the other professionals who are also employed, such as nurses, doctors, and lawyers. School social workers, as do the members of other disciplines, practice their own profession within the purposes, policies, and procedures of the particular institution. Nevertheless, as professionals they must assume responsibility for the integrity of their practice if they are to participate smoothly and effectively in schools. They must, also, have sufficient knowledge of the school and its organization, purposes, and philosophy to assure skillful collaboration.

Inservice Training and Education for Existing Programs

The education required for the practice of school social work varies greatly within individual States and from State to State. The quality of practice has apparently been influenced by the way these services were inaugurated. At least four statewide programs began with compulsory school attendance as their focus, and at least two began as a measure to prevent juvenile delinquency. Most State-supported programs which were begun to meet a specific need, such as attendance, have changed rapidly in content and practice. These modifications have resulted in a broader basis for the service to provide assistance for the wide variety of problems which may interfere with pupils' successful participation in the school program. As the need for greater depth of professional skill became apparent, the States which did not require full social work competence

[5] Edith Everett, *Visiting Teacher Service Today*, Buffalo, New York: American Association of Visiting Teachers, 1940, p. 19. (Out of print)

have evolved training programs to meet their changing staff requirements. To fulfill this demand for professional education and to upgrade existing service, schools of education in some instances have developed specialized courses. In other instances, schools of social work have offered courses to fully train or to augment the educational background required for employment. A third procedure, in conjunction with the State's certification, has been for the two schools, education and social work, in the same university to work out a joint program of study.

With varied levels of professional preparation among social workers employed in the schools, there has frequently appeared a justification within a State for the inauguration of planned staff development activities. These are designed to assist workers in the attainment of a recognized level of competence while maintaining job security and status. Concurrent with inservice training, there has developed a more favorable opportunity for raising the level of staff competence by the adoption of higher standards for those who enter the program.

When New Legislation Is Considered

It is very important for States to consider both training and personnel needs when new legislation to establish social work services in the schools is being proposed. States not yet having supportive legislation designed to promote statewide coverage in school social work could profitably weigh the merits of these alternatives: To inaugurate relatively complete social work coverage in the schools carries the concomitant likelihood, due to a shortage of qualified personnel, of being forced to employ a large proportion of untrained workers. An alternative to this risk is the comparatively more gradual extension of coverage as qualified staff can be recruited. If a State begins with the less-than-ideal alternative of initially lowering professional employment requirements, its program should include, as a minimum, a key group of professionally qualified social workers and should have well-accepted, specific plans for the necessary inservice training that will be required to protect professional certification and assure quality practice. The merits of including these safeguards are attested to by the "hindsight" experiences of States which have been confronted by the dilemma of a large staff and inadequate training facilities. These States have been faced with the difficult and

simultaneous tasks of gaining acceptance for and implementing a revised inservice training program when this has been necessary to acquire a more adequate level of social work practice.

The minimum standards or qualifications for all school personnel should be high enough to protect the children and families being served. With the present shortage of qualified school social workers, many school systems will have to wait for years to begin the service if they require fully qualified social workers for all of their positions. In spite of these shortages, however, State departments of education can inaugurate or assist in the expansion of sound social work programs in their schools. Standards can be safeguarded by established State regulations or legislative provisions, and through the leadership of well-qualified school social workers at the State level.

Orientation of the Social Worker to the School Setting

For school employment, some definite plan of orientation of the social worker to the school is necessary. This is applicable for both the inexperienced recent social work graduate and the experienced social worker changing to the school from another agency. This orientation may be accomplished in seminars, internships, group discussions, faculty meetings, and educational conferences. In some cases certain courses in education may be required. The present policy of schools of social work to include more in their curriculums on understanding the school as a social institution will do much to prepare social workers to function effectively in the schools.

Incentives for Professional Education

Since the problem of recruiting and educating for school social work is so acute, planning should be implemented on several fronts. School administrators could develop policies to provide educational leave for present staff for full-time graduate study. In support of this, stipends from the National Institute of Mental Health are available through schools of social work. Stimulus to enter training also is being provided through the recruitment programs of schools of social work, the National Association of Social Workers, many State and local

organizations, and a number of school systems. State departments of education should investigate the possibility of including in their State plans requests for funds for scholarship incentives. When the large number of workers with limited graduate education in the fields of attendance, child welfare, and school social work is considered, the situation offers many parallels to that found in guidance when the National Defense Education Act's program of institutes was inaugurated (Title V, Part B, NDEA, 1958).

State organizations of school social workers can, through a united effort, be a source of information and increase the incentive for individual improvement. They can raise standards, strengthen public relations, and develop philosophy and goals, while identifying and interpreting educational standards and employment opportunities.

Recruitment and Staffing

Shortage of qualified personnel.—Social work in the schools is expanding rapidly. There were, in 1961–62, approximately 37,000 school districts in the United States. If each school district recruited social workers, the demand would be impossible to fill. Accurate information was not available in 1963 on the number of school districts employing social workers, the number having vacancies for such workers, or the number of positions filled by persons without professional qualifications. That there is a shortage of social workers in general, as well as of school social workers, is shown graphically in a 1960 survey of social welfare manpower.[6] Based on this survey, in addition to its own statistics, the Council on Social Work Education released the following information:

> In June 1961, 2,162 students . . . received their master's degree in the United States in social work. . . . The best estimates (based on sample studies) indicate that there are at least 10,000 current social work vacancies for which funds are available but for which qualified staff cannot be found. The most careful estimates (based on sample studies) indicate that upwards of 15,000 persons would have to be recruited annually to replace those leaving the field, to staff necessary expansion of existing services, and to man newly developing services.[7]

[6] Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960*. New York: The Bureau, 1961. A survey conducted in cooperation with the National Social Welfare Assembly.

[7] Council on Social Work Education, Inc. *Social Work Education*, Bimonthly News Publication. New York: The Council, 345 E. 46th Street, February 1962, p. 27.

Securing qualified staff in all professions is a nationwide problem. There is a great need for increased effort to alleviate this condition. Ways must be found to create an awareness of this shortage in areas of potential supply among university students, educational groups, and social workers. Also, with more intensive recruitment, a larger proportion of social work graduates would likely seek employment in the schools and attract others to the profession.

Social work in the schools is challenging because it offers many professional incentives: Work with an almost complete cross section of American youth, opportunities for preventive work, and a natural, informal contact with children in an environment that is familiar to them. A strong and expanding professional service in the schools, with an increased State and national leadership, will surely attract a greater number of qualified people.

Standards of performance.—School administrators are concerned not only with the availability of workers but also with the criteria for determining adequate performance. Just as classes can be too large for effective teaching, caseloads can be too large for effective casework. There are a number of ways to control caseloads when staff is limited, and thus protect the quality of service to secure greater returns from the investment. Some of these are: Definite referral policies, screening of referrals, greater reliance on instructional staff with social work consultation in the handling of selected cases, a decision to assign a limited staff only to certain areas or schools rather than attempt to serve the whole school population, efficient use of case conferences, and a thorough understanding on the part of other school personnel of the duties and competencies of the school social worker. The provision of stenographic help and a freedom from routine chores are aids to a further extension of school social work services to more children.

The number of social workers needed for a given school population is an important consideration. The 1930 White House Conference on Children recommended one worker for every 500 pupils. The school budget, the availability of other school and community services, the social conditions in the school districts, and the availability of staff should all be weighed in determining the pupil-worker ratios. The variability in staffing levels is illustrated by the experience in Illinois. In 1962 it reported that in about two-thirds of its programs the pupil-worker ratio was within the range of one worker per 1,000

to 2,500 children. The range within the school districts of the State, however, was from one worker per 500 to 1,000 children to one worker per 5,000 to 5,500 children.*

Certification.—Certification is an administrative procedure performed by the State to insure a professionally competent staff in the public schools. It is a means of regulating and improving the quality of professional personnel. The professional qualifications for school social workers are frequently prescribed through certification, as they are for other school personnel. Such recognized standards are also said to contribute to stability in staff tenure and to aid in recruitment, as official recognition justifies an equal opportunity for teaching personnel to participate in retirement plans, educational associations, and other professional benefits. Certification, as official evidence of competence, helps in this respect by its recognition that the school social worker has attained the specified qualifications for his part in the school program.

Some other aids to recruitment and staff development are: Salaries comparable to other positions with similar rank and educational requirements, adequate car allowances, an understanding administration, and conducive working conditions, including adequate office space. A better understanding of the vital role of social work in education and the assurance drawn from being recognized as a service with a professional future are essential ingredients contributing to high staff morale and a competitive recruitment position.

Supervision.—Supervision has both educational and administrative components. It is an especially important aspect of school social work practice, since the workers come to their positions with widely varying amounts of professional education and experience. It is through supervision that they can be given individualized assistance to improve their practice as well as the quality of the entire program. Supervision is not universal, however, in school social work. In many schools or districts with only one school social worker on the staff there is no possibility for regular supervision. In larger systems with more staff members, supervision is more readily possible. More extensive use of supervision would improve school social work knowledge, continue the development of staff members' skills, and support their participation in research.

*John C. Nebo, *Pupil Enrollment Coverage by School Social Workers in Illinois, 1962-63*, Park Ridge, Ill.: Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, December 1962.

The Challenge

Education and social work have the joint challenge of furthering social work's contribution to public education. Realistic, but imaginative, short- and long-range planning, with mutual confidence and understanding, should improve social work's integration and effectiveness in the schools.

School social work, along with other pupil personnel services, is needed to assist with the heavy responsibilities society has assigned to education. Recruiting, training, and staffing are vital elements in the future development of social work in the schools.

A LOOK AHEAD

HORACE W. LUNDBERG

THE FUTURE can be foreseen only dimly, its reality being overshadowed and unpredictable. In almost every other time and place, a man could be reasonably certain that essentially the same technologies, social institutions, outlooks on life, and types of people would surround his children in their maturity as surrounded him during his life. Today our chief certainty about the life situation of our descendants is that it will be drastically and unpredictably different from our own.

This unpredictability alters the relationship between generations as the past grows increasingly distant from the future.[1] Predicated on this uncertainty, the training and education of the coming generation should be broadly conceived, designed to build a tolerance of the unknown, and assure those qualities of flexibility and creativity which would support the successful management of new and difficult demands. In addition, education and training must establish a sound bond of confidence and mutual understanding to provide the bridge across which the best of existing competence and skill may be communicated to the new generation.

Community-Related Education

School programs.—The developing number of general and specialized programs offered by the public schools have been largely accepted by the general public. These include remedial teaching, courses of study ranging from terminal education to preparation for college, as well as the more recent work-study courses which combine formal education with supervised "on-the-job training." Special education programs are now com-

[1] Kenneth Keniston, "Social Change and Youth in American Society," *Daedalus*, Winter 1962, as quoted by Roy Sorenson in "Youth's Need for Challenge and Place in American Society: Its Implications for Adults and Adult Institutions," Washington, D.C.: Joint Conference on Children and Youth, April 1962.

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monly accepted as providing greater curriculum flexibility. In special education, small group and individual teaching becomes possible where highly trained teachers and a fuller use of helpful procedures are employed. These added resources include the services of allied professions and adaptations of the physical plant.

Pupil personnel services.—Professional noninstructional services are a part of the school program which has not always been well understood. With increasing frequency, however, they have made a material contribution to the effectiveness of the school. They strengthen the efforts of the school in at least four principal ways that are basic to better education. They support pupil appraisal and evaluation, give direct service to pupils and parents, offer consultive and interpretive assistance to faculty and school administration, and provide the professional link between the school and other community agencies. Through this coordinated effort the school has sought the fullest use of all school and other community resources, and thus has been able to strengthen the educational program for its pupils and their families.

There is a need of financial support to strengthen pupil personnel services. These programs involve additional costs and frequently are the first to be curtailed during periods of economic retrenchment. Conversely, in most States during 1962, they have been effectively developed in only a few well-financed and forward-looking urban communities.

An expanding basis for practice.—"To understand any individual, we need to know what he thinks he is, what values he holds, what his goals are, as well as how his basic [psychological] biological and social needs are met and what abilities he has." [2]

Dr. William G. Hollister of the National Institute of Mental Health has postulated two basic trends that evolve from newer assumptions related to mental health planning for the schools:

1. In the mental health field the past acceptance of the relevance of the face-to-face or one-to-one relationship in treating emotional illness is giving way to an awareness of the potential for prevention and improvement for individuals through the social interactions in group experiences.

2. Our attempts to educate all children—the handicapped, uninterested, and mentally slow—are modifying our school programs. To accomplish the expectancy that schools reach and serve both normal and exceptional children, there is a greater effort toward individualization in classroom practices. The attempts to accomplish this have resulted in an increased use of psychological diagnostic tools, increased numbers of various pro-

[2] Jane Franseth, *Supervision and Leadership*. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson & Company, 1961.

fessional personnel in noninstructional capacities, as well as a widespread development of special education.[3]

There is also a growing ". . . expectancy that all teachers will be sensitive to the psychological and social forces affecting the child."[4]

Educators and social workers in the schools are giving more attention to sociocultural factors and their influence on the educationally disadvantaged. Challenging the concept that mental illness is caused by forces that are primarily within the individual, Dr. Hollister wrote, "At present, the trend is to give more equal weight to the operational premise that some healing will take place through social interaction in group settings. This approach rests on the basic assumption that many of the significant etiological forces to consider are exogenous to the person."[5]

The validity of this assumption of etiological forces that are outside the person seems vital to any educational planning designed to deal with the factors affecting mental health. There is a growing awareness that attention should be directed to social class (cultural) determinants that: (1) Condition the educational goals and achievement of a large number of pupils, and (2) predispose certain social class memberships to the phenomenon of mental illness.[6] Research reports tend to confirm the validity of education's present concern with the sociocultural influences on educational accomplishment. Greater attention is now being given to the culturally deprived, the pupils in lower socioeconomic classes. A high degree of association has been found between low socioeconomic conditions and poor educational motivation, underachievement, and the collapse of educational advancement after the primary grades.

Marie Jahoda, summarizing this concept, wrote:

> Psychiatrists and psychologists are more and more aware of the fact that certain regularities of behavior can be understood not only in terms of individual dynamics but also in terms of group memberships and identifications. Such regularities, the result of similar social conditions, lead them to be concerned with the wider human environment of a person as well as with his intimate human relations.[7]

Few would question that the causes for breakdowns in social function are multiple, or that programs of schools that are

[3] William G. Hollister, "Current Trends in Mental Health Programming in the Classroom", *The Journal of Social Issues* 15:51-52, No. 1, 1959.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

[6] August B. Hollingshead and Frederick C. Redlich, *Social Class and Mental Illness: A Community Study*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958.

[7] Marie Jahoda, *Current Concepts of Positive Mental Health*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1958, p. 106.

based upon a simplified conceptualization of human interaction with its multiplicity of variables must surely risk failure. Man's life force or ego energy appears subject to dissipation from many sorts of exigencies that produce stress. Depending upon the individual's susceptibility and the intensity and duration of the adverse influence, there develops a lowered energy level or capacity to cope with the situation. Characteristically, the adaptation process may, sooner or later, produce recognizable symptoms. In case study or diagnosis, and even in research, the purpose is to "get behind" the symptoms to the most fundamental causal elements. When the cause of stress has been determined, a start can be made on its removal. Of like concern to education and the behavioral sciences are the detection and strengthening of those factors in human development and relationship that will shield against such stress or immunize the individual to it. Seemingly, they offer an avenue for renewed resistance to the erosion of the individual's vital capacity by the debilitating factors in life.

For education and its specialized services, Dr. Paul Bowman has outlined some central elements. His summary and observations are:

> The characteristics that distinguish the underachievers are not superficial ones; they involve the deepest roots of personality. One could generalize that most of the characteristics of the underachiever can be accounted for by either an intellectually sterile background in the home and early grades or an emotionally frustrating background arising from interpersonal tensions at home and at school.[8]

Prevention of educational ineffectiveness.—Dr. Charles Frankel has observed that the social worker

> . . . is tinkering with broken products that are brought to the repair shop, but he is not asking himself why so many of these broken products are brought in. Adjustment to urban life is a problem [similar in character to] . . . the problem of education, [and] not like the problem of crime. In dealing with the . . . shock of transition . . . we [unfortunately] do relatively little in an organized way. We take a therapeutic and remedial rather than a preventive approach.[9]

It seems that for reasonable effectiveness our effort must build on, or reinforce, any existing spark of motivation and hope. At the same time, it is necessary to capitalize upon the strengths within the person and maintain or restore that crucial element, self-respect.

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[8] Paul H. Bowman, "Personality and Scholastic Underachievement," *Freeing Capacity To Learn*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1960, No. 12, p. 52.

[9] Charles Frankel, "Obstacles to Action for Human Welfare," *The Social Welfare Forum, 1961*, New York: National Conference on Social Welfare, Columbia University Press, 1961, p. 272.

Perhaps the social services within and without education need to find newer ways to deal with the full impact of the social situation in our complex and increasingly impersonal society. For many, gone are the lifelong ties to close-knit neighborhoods and the strengths of an extended family unit wherein grandparents, uncles, and aunts contributed strength and resiliency.

What is the full significance for *prevention* in the deteriorating areas of our cities, in the concept that the individual's social functioning "is not permanently fixed," that to a considerable extent it is conditioned for better or worse by the nature of the circumstances which surround him?

In our rapidly changing society there appears to be a growing need for a conscious and thoughtful cooperation of the schools with other community services. Certain children and their families must be reached in ways that enable them to make a fuller use of educational and community welfare resources. The school in isolation can only expect to fail to accommodate fully the special needs of the culturally and economically deprived, the overburdened, problem-ridden families which produce a disproportionate number of pupils who are nonacademic and potential dropouts. Neither can the school assist them to a renewed purpose without recognizing their strengths and building upon them.

Dr. Frank Riessman has challenged those responsible for programs in these difficult areas to a more positive and optimistic posture, one that accords the "culturally deprived" their deserved credit for in-group loyalty, informality and equalitarianism, and the strength of humor in face of adversity.[10]

> If the school reinforces the sense of personal insignificance and inadequacy that life may already have imposed on a disadvantaged child, he is likely to benefit little from schooling. If the school insists on programs or standards that he regards as unrelated to his life or that doom him to an unending succession of failures, he is likely to leave at the first opportunity.[11]

Education, from its failures, is well aware of the complexities of this educational challenge and the marginal success that can be realized if it is limited to its traditional curriculums and methods. The problem is one of total human adjustment. It seems wise to seek the means for some full community involvement through which the school would benefit from a greater

[10] Frank Riessman, *The Culturally Deprived Child.* New York: Harper and Row, 1962.

[11] Frank Riessman, "Education and the Disadvantaged American," *NEA Journal*, April 1962, p. 9.

reliance on professions that are based on the behavioral sciences. It is likely that no single program is fully adequate, but Riessman's emphasis on the need to reinforce the full potentials of family and culture seems to offer a sound point of departure. Furthermore, our judgment of the potential of any new program should be tempered by a recognition that, in Hadley Cantril's words, "A tool must be evaluated not against an absolute standard of efficiency, but against the efficiency of alternative tools that are available." [12]

Educational Programing

The U.S. Children's Bureau has used the expression, ". . . children are all treated alike only when each is treated in accordance with his needs." [13] Similarly, equal educational opportunity does not mean the same course of study for every child, regardless of native endowment, previous life experiences, and motivation. Dr. Paulsen refutes a unitary educational program based on a static body of "necessary knowledge." He notes that, "It is assumed by many persons that a certain body of correct knowledge and/or truth exists which can and should be learned by all persons." [14]

In our society the schools have acquired and exercised broad responsibilities for the education and development of social effectiveness of nearly all children. These responsibilities encompass guidance to assure student placement in appropriate courses of study and learning activities.

The school supervises and directs each child during a substantial period of his developmental years. It sets objectives and standards not only for his knowledge and skills but also for his effective functioning as a member of society.

It is thus incumbent on educators to recognize that the kind of formal education and its optimum duration vary, to an extent, with each individual. Also, educators should recognize that to set a single chronological age or level of academic attainment for all as a condition for discontinuance of formal education is unfeasible.

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[12] Hadley Cantril as quoted by Stewart Chase, "What Americans Believe," *Saturday Review*, June 1962, p. 10.

[13] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. *Your Children's Bureau – Its Current Program.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1956, p. 8.

[14] F. Robert Paulsen, "Trapped Concepts Impede American Education," *Proceedings of the Utah Academy of Sciences, Arts and Letters*, Ernest L. Olson, ed., Salt Lake City, Utah: The Academy, 1960–61, Vol. 38.

> There is a very good chance [and one that education and social work should strengthen] that the children of the very poor will come to maturity without grave disadvantages . . . [if] they have first-rate schools and are required to attend, if the undernourished are fed in school, if the community has sound health services, and if there is a usable opportunity for advanced education.
>
> Poverty is self-perpetuating, because the poorest communities are poorest in the services [that would help eliminate poverty].[15]

Our schools should take steps, within their resources, to provide for the needs of each student both through education and, where indicated, through a flexible program of transition from school into the world of work.

In summation of his thoughts on the means for human assessment, Gordon W. Allport wrote:

> . . . at the higher levels of organization where the psychologist works, the units you seek are not uniform at all. A baby, once started on the road of life, will fashion, out of his unique inheritance and special environment, nodes of accretion, foci of learning, directions of growth, that become increasingly unique as the years roll along.[16]

In search for a solution to the problem of finding constant "units of man's nature," Allport thinks, ". . . we will do well to turn to the fresher possibilities that lie in improved idiographic analysis." [17] Under the demand for program and decisions, education and social work must act with the tools at hand to forge the solutions for which they have immediate responsibility. Research in human assessment may eventually provide some relatively stable units that are basic in man's nature from ". . . the thousands of dimensions proposed to guide our analysis of motivation and personality . . . ." [18] In the interim, social work and education are dependent upon a careful consideration of each individual, as he reveals himself through observation and study, utilizing the most rational means of measurements and understanding at hand.

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[15] John K. Galbraith, *The Affluent Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1958, p. 330–331.

[16] Gordon W. Allport, "What Units Shall We Employ," *Assessment of Human Motives*, Gardner Lindzey, ed., New York: Rinehart Company, 1958, p. 257.

[17] Ibid. p. 258.

[18] Ibid. p. 252.

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