McGILL UNIVERSITY

SOCIAL WORK CURRICULUM FOR RURAL AREAS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Undergraduate Social Work Educational Model for Eastern Africa

A Research Report submitted to

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by

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ABSTRACT

In response to an interest in reviewing problems of undergraduate social work education in Eastern Africa, an attempt has been made in this study to develop a social work training programme appropriate to the socio-economic needs of the Eastern African countries in general, and Tanzania in particular. This effort has been seen as an initial step towards developing a social work educational policy and philosophical model that does not only address itself to issues relating to national goals, but specifically to the process of rural modernization or rural transformation - viewed here as an essential means to the economic development of all nations of Eastern Africa.

The study sets out to demonstrate how current or existing undergraduate social work programmes in Eastern African Schools of Social Work, augmented with knowledge of similar programmes and strategies from Schools of Social Work, Universities of Manitoba and Regina, could be utilized in developing an undergraduate social work model whose educational as well as professional objectives and content are "universal" in scope and at the same time "relevant" to Tanzania's past, present, and anticipated future experiences.

The study further includes a proposal of an undergraduate curriculum content. Again, as a curriculum "model", it is not meant to be pure and perfect. It has been developed in this study to serve as a point of departure for Schools of Social Work in Eastern Africa in appraising their existing programmes; as well as an inital possible guide to course content and subject-matter for the proposed programme in Tanzania.

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INTRODUCTION

1. Background to and Rationale for the Study

In the coming decades African governments will be devoting increasingly larger shares of their resources to transforming the rural sector of their economies. The current phrase "rural transformation" is, perhaps, more than anything else a form of shorthand having a much wider significance than merely the technical modernization of peasant agriculture. It involves in varying degrees for different countries a wide range of governmental functions and services, from purely technical, advisory function of the agricultural department to the relationship between and the different levels of local government. It encompasses community development efforts on the part of governments, adult education and education within the formal structure of the school. But above all, rural transformation concerns the art of persuasion - persuading the peasant farmer not only to give up the old-age habits of subsistence farming, but also persuading him to change the very foundation of his society by giving up the adherence to tribal organization which has meant security for him in the past. Rural transformation, then, is as much a transformation of society as it is a transformation of agricultural technique.

However difficult this process may be, African governments are becoming aware that for the sake of continual political stability, if

for no other reason, the demand for modernization of the rural sector must be met. Two decades or more of community development programmes, the increasing emphasis on rural primary education,[1] and the failure to provide an entry into an industrial society for the product of an educational system have meant that the mass of rural Africans are today much better able than ever before to formulate its demands for a fair share of the fruits of independence. No longer is it possible to ignore the demands of the school-leavers who have to return to the farms after their period of exposure to modern education in the primary school.[2]

This study is an attempt to work towards a social work educational/

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[1] For a discussion of "primary education" in Africa, see:

1. James R. Sheffield, (ed.), Education, Employment and Rural Development, in an article by V.L. Griffiths; "The Education of the Young in Rural Areas," pp. 307-321. (East African Publishing House, Nairobi, 1967).
2. Resnick, Jane & Adrian, "Tanzania Educates for a New Society," in Africa Report, January, 1971, Vol. 16, No. 1, pp. 26-29.
3. Damachi, Ukandi D., "Education is out of step with Needs," in Africa Report, May, 1972, Vol. 17, No. 5, pp. 12-16.
4. Nyerere, J.K., Education for Self-Reliance. (Government Printer, Dar-es-Salaam, 1967).
5. Tanganyika Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development : 1964-1969. (Government Printer, Dar-es-Salaam, 1964), Vol. I, p. viii.
6. Rene Dumont, "African Agriculture and Its Educational Requirements." International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris, May, 1966 (Mimeograph).

[2] For further discussion of "unemployment rate" in Eastern Africa, see:

1. The People of Tanzania, An IPPF Africa Factbook, 1972, p. 21. Only about 5 % of Tanzania's 12.2 million (1967) are employed in the sense that they are paid wages or salaries. The rest, 95 % live on the land, largely in family groups engaged in subsistence agriculture.
2. James R. Sheffield,(ed.), Education, Employment and Rural Development in an article entitled "Education and Employment: Perspectives of Kenya Primary School Pupils," by David R. Koff, pp. 390-430. Koff points out that in Kenya in 1964, of 103,400 primary school-leavers, 11.5 % went to Secondary Schools, 3.5 % found some form of training courses, 19.5 % entered wage employment, leaving 65 % with no prospect of wage employment or further education.

training approach relevant to the needs of African societies. Specifically, it aims at developing an educational or training model for a three-year Bachelor of Social Work programme in Tanzania.

The stimulus for making this study arose from the writer's two years (September 1973 to August 1975) of active participation in helping formulate an undergraduate, three-year social work programme in Tanzania. During the same period, the writer participated in several seminars and conferences in Africa organized and sponsored by the Association for Social Work Education in Africa (ASWEA) and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), respectively. All the meetings addressed themselves, in particular, to social work education/training in the light of national goals. The major subjects of discussion at the seminars, therefore, were : the essential function of social workers; the knowledge and skills they required to fulfil their functions; and the curriculum content and construction which this necessitated.

While the demand for improved living conditions in rural areas rises, it becomes increasingly clear that social work education in Africa today has not yet reached the level where it can produce social work practitioners who could meet the needs of the masses of the people in terms of improving the general standard of living. As pointed out in a report of the United Nations Expert Group, there is an increasing emphasis upon the developmental contribution of social welfare/work programmes, particularly in the part of rural modernization[1] (while protecting and strengthening

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[1] ST/SOA/97, Report of the International Meeting of Experts on Training of Social Welfare Personnel for Participation in Developing Countries. (United Nations Publications, Geneva, August, 1969.) p. 8.

therapeutic and rehabilitative work). Because of the importance of agriculture in rural transformation, the point of entry for this study is through the farming and village community. If it is possible to make some sense of the process of change there, in all its dimensions, it will go far to make sense of society as a whole.

2. Purpose and Scope of Study

The purpose of the study is to review problems of social work training and to set out in some detail for the use of schools of social work and other training institutions in Eastern Africa[1] the range of subject-matter and the training/educational method considered desirable and appropriate at the present stage of the Region's[2] socio-economic development; that is, a social work training programme that accords "the highest priority to those social programmes which facilitate the modernization process and which serve as essential means to economic development."[3]

In accordance with the expressed concerns regarding social work education/training in Eastern Africa (pp. 2-3), the writer does not intend to make this study a factual or descriptive survey of recent developments in training for social work in the Region. Its concern is with

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[1] For the purpose of this study, the following countries are referred to here : Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, and Zambia.

[2] Wherever the term "Region" is used in this study, it refers to these same countries.

[3] Economic Commission for Africa, A Venture In Self-Reliance, Document Number E/CN.14/424. p. 135.

the content of social work education as this is beginning to emerge and with the various problems connected with improvements in training. The primary focus in the study is thus subject-matter rather than a description of the existing situation. At the same time, actual issues in the employment and training of social workers in Eastern Africa are included insofar as they are relevant in order to clarify the nature of social work and the functions which social workers are being prepared to fulfil.

The study does not assume that university-level education is, or ought to be, the only or the best form of social work training. Quite to the contrary, a wide variety of different types of social work and related social work programmes, as singly and collectively relating to the national planning processes of the various countries in the Region are being implemented. The many kinds of social work training programmes would include : in Kenya, for example, a two-year social work training programme involving Secondary (High School) level students specializing in social work and community development skills; a wide variety of governmental and private in-service training programmes in Tanzania; and a wide variety and general educational programmes which include a social development component in Zambia. Although in the major part of the study the writer refers to the University setting, this, in no way, is intended to imply that other programmes are less valuable, but rather he is most familiar with the specific ways in which programmes are consciously developed in the light of identified national needs.

3. Methodology

In carrying out the study, the writer was faced with two basic, but inter-related research issues :

a) the form (methodology) the study should take, and

b) the material (data) to be included in it.

A word of caution to the reader is appropriate here. The selection of the material and the form chosen to present the content of the study reveal beliefs and convictions of the writer although extensive use is made of data and information from other sources (see below). Studies that cover social work education in Eastern Africa have been peripheral. "Western" contributions to theories of social work practice still remain the most outstanding. The result of this limited interest has not only retarded the growth of the profession but also made writing on social work education in Africa become, as Francis Manis describes it, "more a function of the elephant's appendage the reporter has got to handle on and knows best."[1]

Among the various research methodologies[2] examined, this study carries, in most part, components of "the historical and case study research."[3] It is historical in approach because it is, in part, dependent upon field-observational visits for data collection (see below); and it is case-study research in that it does not only investigate con-

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[1] Francis Manis, Field Practice in Social Work Education. (Sultana Press, California, U.S.A., 1972). p.11.

[2] For documentation, see G.C. Hemstadter, Research Concepts In Human Behaviour : Education, Psychology, Sociology.(Meridith Corporation, N.Y., 1970). pp. 41-121.

[3] Ibid., pp. 41-53.

ditions in Eastern Africa as a specific geographical area (see Chapter I, Part 1), but also the study's flexibility offered general freedom to the writer with respect to the type and amount of data gathered, the sources of information, and the procedures used to gather the information. The rationale for this approach is perhaps best described in the following statement : "It seems almost an absolute essential technique when exploring completely new fields. That is, when we have no idea of the communalities, the category of variables which play a part in a situation, and where we are trying to formulate new concepts or new framework within which to carry out controlled experiments later . . . ."[1]

Like most studies, lack of accurate and up-todate data and information is a serious limitation in this study. The only consolation is that the data and information used were the best available. A major problem with data collection in developing countries is that their agrarian systems are still basically traditional hence economic and social variables and constraints are not easily separable. Barber, for example, warns that although we need to know much more about the operation of agrarian systems, our knowledge at least justifies caution in the transfer of concepts appropriate to industrial environment to the circumstances of these quite different societies.[2]

The data and information used in this study were obtained from

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[1] Op. cit., p. 52.

[2] W. Barber, "Some Questions about Labour Force Analysis in Agrarian Economies with particular Reference to Kenya." East African Economic Review, Vol. II (June, 1966), pp. 23-27.

Government documents of the Region; the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa documents; "literature search" of published and unpublished material in social work education and general socio-economic development in Africa; and personal communication with many social work educators in Africa. In addition, extensive use was made of field observation of social work training programmes of Schools of Social Work in the Provinces of Manitoba and Saskatchewan (University of Manitoba and University of Regina, respectively). Furthermore, information was made available by use of consultation with the teaching staff of the two schools. Below a degree level social work training programme, information was made available through communication with the faculty of Dawson College, Social Service Department, Montreal where the writer spent three months as a participant-observer in the class-rooms, the lab sessions, and faculty meetings.

As indicated earlier, the research tools[1] used in this study have certain limitations. United Nations documents,[2] for example, have two disadvantages : one could sometimes wish that the figures were more recent; and they call for a certain amount of caution in making comparisons or grouping them together as they are not always calculated by identical methods or on an identical basis. But given this reservation, United Nations figures can be accepted as orders of magnitude sufficiently

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[1] For further discussion on "tools of research", see: G.C. Hemstadter, Research Concepts in Human Behaviour : Education, Psychology, Sociology. pp. 131-389.

[2] In particular, United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, A Venture for Self Reliance, has been used extensively.

significant for the particular purpose of making general comparisons, usually between groups of countries. The use of consultation sessions and personal communications with social work training personnel in the institutions the writer observed, renders itself to the dependency upon the recall of others as to what has happened. Anyone who is aware of the fallibility of memory can easily imagine the extent to which this characteristic of case studies limits their effectiveness.[1] Again, this limitation, the "tools" used seem to be an absolute essential when exploring social work education/training in Eastern Africa - a completely new field in the Region.

4. Arrangement and Content of Study

A study of the content of social work training must necessarily refer to the function and employment of social workers as a prelude to considering available knowledge in the social and behavioural sciences and social work methodology to be incorporated in training, and the educational methods to be used in order to achieve the objectives of training. These aspects of the total subject under consideration are reflected in the structure of the study. Inevitably, a wide range of subject-matter must be included, so far as curriculum content is concerned (see Chapter II). Even so, there is likely to be a number of omissions in the study. And, in general much work still remains to be done in order to relate universal principles to local cultural and other conditions.

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[1] G.C. Hemstadter, Research Concepts in Human Behaviour : Education Psychology, Sociology. p. 53.

Chapter I begins with the general situations in the Eastern African countries at the present day. It then deals with the nature of social work as this is beginning to emerge; with differing though expanding range of responsibilities which social workers are called upon to assume after graduation.

Chapter II presents a brief account of the content and forms of training for social work in Eastern Africa Schools of Social Work (with particular reference to Zambia University School of Social Work); Schools of Social Work in Manitoba and Saskatchewan; and to some extent Department of Social Service, Dawson College. This part of the study is hoped to provide the basis for formation of "social work training model" relevant to the particular needs of the agrarian societies of Eastern African countries (with a particular focus on Tanzania.

Chapter III is concerned with the actual formation of a social work educational/training model appropriate to the socio-economic-political conditions, needs, and aspirations of the Eastern African societies (with particular focus on Tanzania).

Chapter IV consists of a discussion of curriculum planning : objectives of the programme; the educational content leading to the achievement of the objectives; and the structural organization of the curriculum.

Chapter V examines and discusses the subject of field instruction or field training.

CHAPTER I

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS IN EASTERN AFRICA AND THE NATURE OF SOCIAL WORK

A. Socio-Economic Conditions

Eastern African countries, each with over 90 % of the population in rural areas, are all poor countries in the sense that their national income per capita is at a subsistence level. Available information[1] suggests that between 1960 and 1966, 22 countries in Africa had levels of product per capita below US-$ 100.oo; and that in some 20 countries product per capita fell between $ 100.oo and $ 400.oo (with product per capita in most of these countries being less than $ 200.oo). These countries are also underdeveloped in the sense that they possess resources - natural and human - which could yield much more and create much more income if modern technical knowledge was fully applied. All the countries in the Region suffer from widespread unemployment and under-employment.

In terms of structure, the economies of these countries, as in most African countries, are heavily oriented to agricultural production. Agriculture accounts for a very large proportion of the existing total product. Figure 1 (p.12), for example, shows gross domestic product and employment figures for Eastern Africa as a whole and for Kenya, in particular.

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[1] Economic Commission for Africa : A Venture In Self-Reliance. (Document Number E/CN.14/424), p. 10.

FIGURE 1

ECONOMIC STRUCTURE 1964

	Gross Domestic Product			
	East Africa		Kenya	
	£ Mill.	%	£ Mill.	%
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY				
Livestock: Monetary	191.4	26.3	48.01	17.1
Non-Monetary	195.5	26.9	68.53	24.3
Total	386.9	53.2	116.54	41.4
Mining and Quarrying	12.1	1.7	0.75	0.3
Manufacturing and Construction	64.8	8.9	37.23	13.2
Trade and Transport	124.6	17.1	60.36	21.5
Services	47.9	6.6	22.79	8.1
Rent	24.4	3.4	9.54	3.4
General Government	66.6	9.1	34.11	12.1
Total	726.9	100.0	281.32	100.0
PRIVATE SECTOR				
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	407.2	34.9	209.6	35.6
Mining and Quarrying	15.0	1.3	2.3	0.4
Manufactures and Repairs	117.4	10.1	59.5	10.1
Electr. Power, Light and Water Supply	4.3	0.4	2.5	0.4
Building and Construction	27.7	2.4	8.8	1.5
Commerce	87.4	7.5	57.3	9.7
Transport and Communication	30.6	2.6	18.1	3.1
Other Services	104.3	8.9	57.9	9.8
Private Sector Total	793.9	68.1	415.9	70.5
Public Sector	371.6	31.9	173.7	29.5
Grand Total	1165.5	100.0	589.6	100.0

Note : In the Kenya Development Plan, 1966-1970, it is estimated that in 1964 there were in addition 174.0 thousand self-employed and unreported employment of whom 120.5 thousand were involved in agriculture, forestry and fishing. This left an estimated 1,1970 thousand members of the male adult unaccounted for, most of whom must be mainly engaged in producing small quantities of cash crops and in subsistence agriculture.

Source : Brian R. Van Arkadie, "The Role of Agriculture In the Strategy of the Plan," in Education, Employment and Rural Development : Report of a Conference at Kericho (Kenya), 1966. Ed. J.R. Sheffield. (East African Publishing House, Nairobi, 1967), p. 112.

Moreover, because many services are directly dependent upon agriculture, the performance of agriculture is the major determinant of an even greater proportion of total product than is suggested by these figures. Further, the great mass of people who are not included in the employment statistics are in the rural sector.

Consideration of rural development, therefore, must start as Van Arkadie[1] puts it, from a simple point of arithmetic; the existing heavy dependence on agriculture means that the overall rate of growth will be inescapably related to development within agriculture. For example, if agriculture and those industries dependent upon agriculture were to grow over the 5 years of a development plan at a rate of only 3 % per year, that is, at about the same rate as population growth,[2] then with as much as 80 % of the total product derived from such activities, an overall rate of growth of 6 % could only be achieved with a 15 % rate of growth in other sectors. Such a rate of growth would be extremely difficult to sustain over 5 years; even with an economy which in total is only growing at 6 % per year.

Because of the heavy preponderance of population in the rural sector, and a high rate of growth of population, absorption of additional population must be, in the short term at least, mainly in rural activities.

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[1] James R. Sheffield, (ed.), Education, Employment and Rural Development. An article entitled "The Role of Agriculture In the Strategy of the Plan.", by Brian R. Van Arkadie, pp. 110-140.

[2] For details on population studies of the Region, see AFRICA 69/70, (Africana Publishing Corporation, New York, 1969).

In an earlier study of the Region, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa[1] noted that between 1960 - 1966 agriculture accounted for almost 40 % of total output; commerce and other services accounted for almost 27 %; manufacturing industry just over 11 %; public administration about 8 %; transport almost 6 %; and mining and construction each for just more than 4 %. Prospects for economic growth and development in the Region depend critically on agriculture. Measured by volume added, agriculture output increased at a real average annual rate of 1.3 % per annum over the period in question; and the question as to why Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per head grew so slowly in the Region can to a large extent be converted to the question as to why agricultural output grew so slowly. Far short of an exhaustive answer to the latter question, it may be pointed out that subsistence production (as stated earlier) still accounts for as much as 50 % of total agricultural output. In addition, much agricultural produce destined for the market is still produced by the same non-modern methods as are used in the subsistence sector, that is, without the use of modern agricultural inputs such as fertilizers, pesticides, machinery and irrigation. This means that the level of output is still largely determined by the weather and that output per head is likely to fall as population increases and the possiblities for more extensive cultivation decline.

Stated differently and in fairly simple outline, Guy Hunter[2] summarises the main existing conditions/problems in the Region thus : looked

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[1] Ibid., p. 14.

[2] James R. Sheffield, (ed.), Education, Employment, and Rural Development, an article by Guy Hunter, "The Problem In East Africa," pp. 35-53.

at in terms of employment, this situation means that the large majority of the labour force must be self-employed in the rural community; looked at in terms of education, a more subtle relationship emerges. The increased expectations generated by wide-spread education in school, combined with the high differential in the modern sector, creates a demand for wage-paid employment, especially in towns and peri-urban areas, thus manifesting as "unemployed" fast growing labour force previously living unproductively (but also in a sense, invisibly) in the rural economy. Looked at in terms of agriculture, low productivity limits the surplus on which by internal or international trade, greater diversification could be built; in turn the lack of diversification limits the food market; where 80 % of families are farming, the market for food is only 0.25 of a family per farmer. Looked at in terms of technology, the technology available in the developed countries, reflecting their wage level, demand pattern, skills and institutions, is difficult to adapt to a quite different economic and social ecology; in particular it tends to be capital-intensive, with minimum direct effects on employment, and to need managerial skills and a commercial, and an industrial and scientific environment which is difficult to create quickly in Africa. Looked at in terms of population, the high rate of growth is released by welfare expenditure which preceeds the rapid development of economic opportunity. While eventually higher density and concentration of population, if productivity is increased, should help to neutralize the disadvantages of large land area and high transport costs, and itself tends to intensify agricultural methods,

for the next decade or more the high rates of growth add a heavy additional strain.

Thus the basic problems of the Region are characterized not only by low per capita income but also by high degree of unemployment, prevalence of mass poverty and institutional backwardness which requires urgent reformation. Since the masses of the people live and work on the land, there is now more than ever before a general consensus on the usefulness of social work education/training in the rural transformation of peasant communities. Demands are being made that social work educators and practitioners[1] determine their educational training and practice policies according to actual prevailing conditions. Critics[2] of all sorts

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[1] See, for example:

1. Proceedings of the Third Symposium, The International Federation of Social Workers, 1974. (Kenya Association of Social Workers, Nairobi, Kenya.
2. Dr. Andargatchew Tesfaye's paper on "Social Work Education in Africa : Trends and Prospects in relation to National Development," submitted to ASWEA Conference, held in Lome, Togo in December 1973 (Mimeograph).
3. The 4th International Social Welfare Seminar held in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania in 1971; The 5th International Social Welfare Seminar held in Lusaka, Zambia in 1972; The ASWEA Conference on the Relationship between Social Work, Education and National Development Planning, held in Lagos, Nigeria in 1973. [All these stressed the need for social work education in Africa to relate to the prevailing socio-economic conditions of the continent.]
4. Proceedings of the International Conference of Social Work, South East Asia Regional Office, Bombay, 1958. "Mobilizing Resources For Social Needs", pp. 201-205.

[2] Among the most articulate critics are, for example:

1. Guy Hunter, Modernizing Peasant Societies, (Oxford University Press, London, 1969), pp. 81-106.
2. Irving L. Horowitz, The Three Words of Development, (Oxford University Press, New York, 1966), pp. 195-224.
3. Thomas Balogh, "Misconceived Educational Programmes in Africa," University Quarterly, Vol. 16, No. 3, (June 1962), p. 247.
4. Ibid., "Land Tenure, Education and Development in Latin America," in Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning : Lesson from Latin America. (Paris, UESCO - IIEP, 1965).

have been quick to recognize that the wealth of Africa - past, present, and future - is based on agriculture and then to relate "progress" or rural modernization to agricultural improvement. This logic has led to a condemnation of present social work training programmes in Africa as unrelated to the needs of the masses of people.

The second part of this chapter is devoted to an examination of the nature of social work and the range of tasks and responsibilities graduates of African Schools of Social Work are entrusted with, often by their national governments, after graduation.

B. The Nature of Social Work

General Discussion

Before considering the content of education for social work, it is desirable to clarify both the field of operation of social work and its nature. The nature of social work can, to some extent, be realized once it is operationalized in the field.

No single, widely recognized, or generally accepted statement exists of the aims and purposes of the professional practice of social work in the Region. The core activities of social work, as distinct from the activities of other helping professions, like Medicine, Public Health, Education, Law, have not yet been authoritatively stated and differentiated.

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5. James R. Sheffield, (ed.), Education, Employment and Rural Development, "Report of a Conference at Kericho (Kenya)", 1966.
6. David W. Brown, "Rural Development from a Decision-Making Perspective" in International Development Review. 1975/2, (The French-Bray Printing Co., Baltimore, Maryland, 1975), pp. 12-16.

This is understandable in view of the historic development of the practice of the profession in Africa in segments (casework, groupwork, and community development/organization) and the absence, until recently (1970) of an overall professional organization (ASWEA). As yet there exists only fragments of practice theory intermingled with incomplete knowledge of the nature of man within the prevailing socio-economic variables (particularly in the rural communities), the nature of society, and their relationship.

In the past, definitions of social work and statements about the aims have characteristically focussed upon the following concerns : the social basis of social work profession and the values, goals, functions, and methods of social work. This statement recognizes the validity of these concerns and they will be dealt with, in brief, in relation to Eastern African conditions.

An effort has been made in developing this statement to underscore the evolving character of social work profession and the changing nature of its practice as it has tried to respond to changing needs of the African communities. While attentive to the past and present functions of social work in the Region, the statement essays a projection of future functions in the light of identifiable social trends and changes in the emphasis of rural modernization in the socio-economic development plans of these countries in Africa.

It may be helpful to distinguish, at this stage, the terms "goals, functions, and method," before a discussion on the nature of social work

is made. There is general consensus among the helping professions in the Region that they all have approximately the same ultimate goal, that is, economic and social well-being; effective opportunities for their clientele to develop all their potential resources; and a provision to, particularly, the rural population of a life free from want and fear.[1] However, the functions through which each may seek to attain it may vary; and the methods by which each profession's functions are discharged are relatively characteristic for each profession and therefore best reveal a profession's distinctive attributes. Hence, the methods of social work are conceived as the means whereby the functions of social work are discharged, and the functions of social work are conceived as the means whereby the ultimate goal of social work is attained.

The term goal here signifies ultimate goal, or ultimately desired outcome. It is the desired result of professional activities which affect the life situation of individuals, who are seen as the ultimate beneficiaries of social work activities even though the immediate recipient of professional services may be a group or a community. The term function is used here to indicate specific categories of socially sanctioned aims that social work seeks to achieve. The term method is used here to denote a systematic ordering of certain characteristics professional activities grouped according to their appropriateness for use in given types of situations which require professional service.

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[1] For a detailed discussion on "ultimate goals," see : Denis Goulet, The Cruel Choice : A New Concept in the Theory of Development. (Atheneum, New York, 1973), pp. 60-95. [It is important to note that these goals are well documented in the national socio-economic development plans of most developing countries.]

Social Work Assumptions, Values, Goals, and Functions

A review of the literature indicates that a lot has been written about the assumptions, values, goals, and functions of social work.[1] Although different theories and principals of social work are not necessary for different countries of the world, it is important, in recognizing the universal value of social work, that its various theories, principles, and methods have to undergo necessary modifications in different conditions of life.

It is the nature of social work, for example, to participate in the identification and elimination of the gap that hampers individual self-fulfilment. In the United States and Canada it can be assumed that it is primarily the complexity of social life and/or the co-existence of conflicting systems which makes it difficult for social institutions to keep pace with meeting existing as well as emerging social needs. In other cultural contexts, such as technologically underdeveloped Eastern Africa, social needs are the result of primarily deficient resources.

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[1]For further discussion, see, for example :

1. Compton and Calaway, Social Work Processes, (The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 1975), p. 8, pp. 102-136.
2. Allan Pincus and Anne Minahon, Social Work Practice : Model and Method, (F. E. Peacock, Itaska, Illinois, 1973), pp. 3-36.
3. Max Siporin, Introduction to Social Work Practice, (Collier MacMillan Publishers, Toronto, 1975), pp. 3-61.
4. Werner W. Boehm, The Plan for Social Work Curriculum Study (Council on Social Work Education : Curriculum Study, New York, August 1956), p. 36.
5. Felix Biestek, The Casework Relationship, (Loyola University Press, Chicago, 1957), pp. 1-137.
6. Robert W. Klenk and Robert M. Ryan, The Practice of Social Work, (Wadsworth Publishing Co. Inc., Belmont, California, 1970), pp. 5-41.

This lack of material resources in the Region is well illustrated elsewhere in the study (pp. 11-15).

These values constitute a minimum commitment for the social worker. They imply definition of human freedom as conditioned by exigencies of modern living. In all periods and cultures, members of society are required to perform multiple social roles. Characteristic of industrialized societies such as North America, is increased difficulty for its members in perceiving the nature of their various and multiplying social roles. For instance, basic economic needs once met directly by individual production of food, building of shelter, and making of clothing are now met indirectly by most people through the medium of money. Thus some essential relationships between man and nature have been eliminated, thereby probably increasing man's thirst for demands from relationships with fellow humans by adding social roles as earner, consumer, et cetera. While this discussion is valid for the cultures of North America, for example, it is only an application of a more general view which presents a rationale for the need of social work in any culture. However, as pointed out earlier, since the economy of Eastern Africa is still that of scarcity for the majority of the people, economic needs still persist. Inadequate food, inadequate housing and living conditions, and inadequate health care continue to claim the attention of social workers in the Region.

In summary, part of the problem of clarifying the nature of social work in Eastern Africa arises in its concentration on the individual in his social relationship. Social Work seems to claim for itself a field

in which most people practice for most of their lives not only by virtue of their human nature, but also because, traditionally, Africans are integrated, non-segmentalized, and governed by norms deeply internalized. Within the peasant communities of the Region, for example, everyone is deeply concerned about himself (and his family), with others, and with his social milieu.[1] He thus stakes claims (of varying validity) to know something about all three. The ordinary man in the village feels at points in his life that he knows a little about sickness, education, or the laws of his native land, but if any of these is to become a means to gain his living he will recognize that, as a layman, his knowledge and skill is elementary and must be subjected to the discipline of professional training. But it is otherwise with that part of the totality of living to which social work lays claim. This means that social work in the Region is struggling to discover and secure recognition for its professional identity in a realm in which everyone is more or less gifted amateur.

Another difficulty lies in the fact that there is a universality in, for example, bodily functioning (as opposed to social functioning), which makes it possible to standardize knowledge and skill that these can be effectively exercised in any part of the world; but the position is not the same for social work because of its cultural component. Understanding of and ability to work within a people's culture, or indeed a

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[1] For detailed discussion about "Social Life" of peasant societies see: Guy Hunter, Modernizing Peasant Societies, (Oxford University Press, London, 1969), pp. 39-42.

sub-culture within a given society is intrinsic to the effective practice of social work. Antony Forder points out, for example, that the cultural situation in Zambia calls for a "radical adaptation of the value of client self-determination."[1] He discusses situations where a decision affecting an unwed mother and the baby, for instance, will be made by parents and/or relatives and they will seek a solution which would result in minimum injury to the pride and name of the family as a whole.

And Lawrence Fuchs[2] (who undoubtedly had other things on his mind than social work educational programmes and policies in Eastern Africa) offers a note of caution when he connects conditions in developing countries with the need of their people to value lasting human relationships and group achievements. He notes that the two qualities exist whenever poverty is pervasive. He further observes that those who are primarily concerned with meeting survival needs within tradition-laden societies tend to move toward security of mutual dependency and harmony within the in-group while rejecting the satisfactions that others might gain through personal achievement and independence.

The implications of Fuch's observations are serious. Measured in by societies supporting the cult of personal initiative and individualism (as proclaimed in the socio-economic values of the West), personal achievement motivation is then regarded as abnormal. Similar observations

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[1] Antony Forder, Social Casework and Administration, (Faber and Faber, London, England, 1968), pp. 217-228

[2] Lawrence H. Fuchs, Those Peculiar Americans, (Meridith Press, New York, 1967), pp. 8-9, 84-85.

have been made by others.[1] These observations serve to illustrate that assumptions about behaviour which are valid in one culture are not necessarily valid in another. Accordingly, social work to be functional in Eastern Africa, it has to acquire new insights and perspectives.

Direction of Change in Social Work Practice

Nowhere is the lack of consensus on the functional role/tasks of the social work practitioner more apparent than, perhaps, in rural development/modernization programmes in the Third World countries as documented in the deliberations of the "Third Symposium of the International Federation of Social Workers"[2] held in Nairobi, Kenya in 1974. There is general agreement, however, that besides its traditional roles, social work in Africa must assume expanding roles. These roles, although inter-related, include the following:

(a) The advocacy role. It is suggested that the social worker in African socio-economic situations has to be an advocate for justice and a leader for change in rural communities; his primary competences should be in analyzing and utilizing strategies for social change; his basic solidarity

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[1] See, for example:

1. Manning Nash, Primitive and Peasant Economic Systems, (Chandler Publishing Company, U.S.A., 1966), pp. 19-40.
2. Everet E. Hagen, On the Theory of Social Change, (The Dorsey Press Inc. Homewood, Illinois, 1962), pp. 83-84.

[2] Kenya Association of Social Workers : The Changing Role of Social Workers in a Changing Society : Proceedings of the Third Symposium, The International Federation of Social Workers, July 8 - 13, 1974.

should be with the rural communities since it is from these communities that he derives both his credibility in practice and his accountability for practice.

(b) Social worker as a consultant. In this particular role, the social worker would be required to make social work information and expertise available to persons and groups in the community who need help.

(c) Social worker as problem-finder and researcher. This role would include identifying problems stemming from the structural characteristics of existing systems; researching the social aspects and unintended consequences of present and proposed "development" programmes in order to provide hard data for planners and policy makers.

(d) Social worker as an educator. This is a multi-faceted role. It would include educating individual clients, groups, or communities regarding issues of national concern; educating politicians and government technical personnel about communities' concerns regarding modernization projects, hopefully to influence decisions.

(e) The other factor engaging social work is "developmental provision;"[1] the design and implementation of social utilities directed towards giving all citizens equal access to optimal development of individual, group and community potential.

There is no doubt that this rapid widening of the boundaries of social work in Eastern Africa in the past five years, has created professional dilemmas and considerable indigestion for social work educators

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[1] Alfred J. Khan, Shaping the New Social Work, (Columbia University Press, New York, 1973), Chapter 1.

and practitioners in the Region. Alfred Khan in "Shaping the New Social Work"[1] succinctly states the dilemma predicament. The issue for a socially-oriented profession, he points out, for social work concerned as it always has been with person-in-situation, with the person-institutional interaction are :

- whether one profession can encompass all those components; and
- whether it can find a way to achieve balance and set priorities at a given moment.

Whatever the response to these issues may be, the Association for Social Work Education in Africa, the administrators of social work/welfare agencies, and more so the educational/training institutions of social work have a responsibility to the citizen groups and communities they serve to grapple with the issue within the curriculum context. The following chapter (Chapter II) will examine in some length the existing programmes of social work education, specifically in the Region and elsewhere (see page 8) in the struggle towards a creation of a curriculum relevant to and pragmatic for the socio-economic realities of Eastern Africa.

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[1] Ibid., p. 20

CHAPTER II

CURRENT TRENDS AND THE CONTENT OF TRAINING IN SOCIAL WORK IN EASTERN AFRICA

The present chapter will consist of, in the main, a review of the existing forms and content of training for social work in Eastern Africa Schools of Social Work. For the most part, illustrations will be drawn from the Zambian experience although, for purposes of analogy, the types and content of social work education in the Universities of Manitoba and Regina (Schools of Social Work), will also be used.

Social work as an occupation or profession is of very recent growth in Eastern Africa, though the impulse to give social service to succour those in need, is both older and more universal. Systematic training for social work is also a recent phenomenon.[1] In Zambia, for example, the first diploma programme, lasting three years, was developed by the Oppenheimer College of Social Service (now Oppenheimer Department of Social Work, University of Zambia) and first offered in 1961. Five years later, in 1966, a four-year degree programme was introduced drawing its candidates from the diploma students. Likewise, in Uganda, at Makerere University, the Department of Social Work and Social Administration was established in 1963 - first offering a two-year diploma programme and as from 1968 it began offering a three-year profes-

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[1] International Association of Schools of Social Work; World Guide To Social Work Education. (IASSW, New York, 1974). pp. 262-265, 226-227.

sional degree. In Tanzania and Kenya, formal social work education has up to now taken the form of in-service training under the auspices of Government Departments responsible for social welfare/community development services. Both countries, however, have for sometime contemplated establishing their own "schools of social work." In Tanzania, a two year social work diploma programme has been in operation since July 1974. Plans are, however, under way to have the programme extended to a three-year social work professional degree in the near future.[1]

A study of the ways in which social work as a profession is beginning to evolve in Eastern Africa and of the preparation which is thought necessary for it, helps to cast light on its nature as this is beginning to emerge. No thoughtful person could consider the path it had trodden so far in its brief life, the claims made for it and the various interpretations of its purpose without concluding that its journey has as yet barely began. This is indeed a profession still in its infancy in the Region, whose potentialities and tasks stretch beyond the bounds of present possibilities, whether in work with individuals, groups, or rural communities. A study of the essential content of training for social work in the Region is thus bound to include not only solidly based knowledge and its application, but also tentative hypotheses and empirical experiences not yet validated nor made part of consistent

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[1] The need for establishing an undergraduate social work educational/training programme in Tanzania has been voiced as far back as 1972. See, for example: Diploma Course in Social Welfare : Purposes - General and Specific. Dar-es-Salaam, August 26, 1972. (Mimeographed).

theories of personality and social functioning. These theories themselves exist fragmentarily at present,[1] but they feed into and are added to the theory and practice of social work.

It seems worthwhile before considering future trends in Eastern Africa to look at the present attempts at training for social work in order to see what was thought relevant to include in the curriculum. Inevitably, such a review will mainly be illustrative although some analysis will be appropriate in the (review) process.

A. Current Trends : Theoretical Perspectives

Socio-economic conditions in most countries of the Third World point to the need for Government intervention in the provision of social (welfare) services. In Eastern Africa this fact was well recognized soon after these countries gained their independence from the British in the early 1960s. In all the countries in the Region there has been enormous expansion of governmental activity in public welfare as essentially to represent a new development towards the consolidation of nationalist governments. This move has contributed greatly toward making social services - health, education, welfare, - available to the whole nation and toward lessening the inequality of their application to various sections of the country.

As for Tanzania in particular, the universalization of social programmes came about in 1967. These were no longer allowed to identify with a submerged or elite group. They were to apply to everybody. The

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[1] Guy Hunter, Modernizing Peasant Societies, (Oxford University Press, London, 1969), pp. 27-29.

medical services, for example, became a right of every Tanzanian citizen irrespective of level of income. The national pension plan as well as the national provident fund (these are types of social insurance systems) were among the first to cover persons of high as well as low income status; and the demands of the peasant communities to be included in the system signifies a major challenge to the government's "universalization" policy of social programmes in Tanzania. They are seeing that the government can serve them as a social utility.

Correspondingly, these programmes are making increased demands upon social work training programmes in the Region. It would, therefore, seem that social work education in Eastern Africa must concern itself with the relations between the practice of social work, the need for fundamental changes in the socio-economic structure of the society, and the steps being taken or contemplated to bring about the changes.

It would also seem that due to an acute shortage of trained social workers in Eastern Africa, social work education must concern itself with relating the profession's special competence to those groups with whom social work practitioners have interdependent relationships. Among these, one would mention rural community groups, and members of other professions such as economists, agricultural experts, and community/rural health personnel with whom social workers in Eastern Africa are often associated and have to work with in the process of rural modernization. In other words, social work training/education in the Region should provide learning experiences in the area of teamwork that makes maximum use

of the contribution of each member of the team.

The relationship of the social worker to the many colleagues in Eastern Africa who fill most of the positions in social agencies without professional education is another aspect of the problem of teamwork. Because of the heavy responsibility that rests upon those who have had the benefit of professional education (most of these are employed as social welfare/development officers responsible for social work administration, consultation, and supervision), more attention needs to be given by the schools of social work to the sharing and imparting of what the social worker does as well as to an interpretation of his knowledge.

Although present trends in Eastern Africa indicate a move from individualized to universalized services, there is still a recognition of the individual and his personal initiative. This is so for two main reasons : It is the individual who is the object of the service; he is the one who forms the many, but never ceases to be the one; and it is the realization that the respect one feels for another person influences his feelings of respect for himself, and that his sense of self-respect influences his capacity to do and act[1] in the process of rural transformation for the common good.

An examination of the implications of this trend from individualized to universalized social services emphasizes the need for development

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[1]Karl de Schweinitz, "The Development of Government Responsibility for Human Welfare," in Social Work as Human Relations (Columbia University Press, N.Y., 1949), pp. 19-35.

of the art and practice of social administration. While social science knowledge can help to improve administration of the social services in the Region, what is needed urgently, however, is not only fundamental knowledge of systems organization, communication, small group theory, and modern developments in personality theory, but widespread and professional study, in which every branch of social science is involved, to analyze the real situation of peasant societies, and to propound and test solutions.[1] As Karl de Schweinitz has put it, a provision of a social service (as is now evident in Eastern Africa), that while reaching the many must have meaning for one, requires an unusual combination of qualities.[2] The social worker who undertakes this work (as most have to in Eastern Africa) must be able to master a field of substantative knowledge; that is, he must be competent to operate with specific factual subject matter or in relation to it. The subject matter may be in the area of, for example, public health, nutrition, or child care. Whatever its nature he must be adjusted to its facts. He must be able to translate this field of substantive knowledge into social programmes as expressed in the national policy.

In summary, there is at present a discernible recognition by the schools of social work in Eastern Africa of the critical links social work has with the groups mentioned above. This recognition has led to,

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[1] Guy Hunter, Modernizing Peasant Societies, (Oxford University Press, London, 1969), p. 27.

[2] Karl de Schweinitz, "The Development of Government Responsibility for Human Welfare," in Social Work as Human Relations (Columbia University Press, N.Y., 1949), p. 32.

besides the "multi-disciplinary/integrated approach"[1] in the training of social workers in the Region, an emphasis on the concept of the social work practitioner as "a systems person."[2]

B. Training Programmes and Curriculum Content

General Remarks

As mentioned earlier (see page 5), a wide variety of different types of social work and related educational programmes as singly and collectively relating to the national planning policies of Eastern African countries have been implemented.

A fundamental fact must be recognized, however, before one proceeds to discuss the content for professional training for social work. The profession has developed broadly, and it attempts to cover a wide range of services and functions. The services of a social worker are needed and find their way into widespread public and private programmes (in the case of Eastern Africa, most social workers are employed in public institutions). The whole gamut of human needs, from the more simple but important ones of food, shelter, and clothing to the more complicated emotional needs, is accepted as within the province of

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[1]For further discussion, see, for example:
1. Proceedings of the Fourth United Nations Seminar on Training for Rural Development. (Rural Development College, Holte, Denmark, 1973).
2. Integrated Rural Development in Africa. (United Nations, N.Y., 1971).

[2]A. Spencer Colliver, "Implementation of Social Policy at Different Levels," in Proceedings of the Third Symposion : The International Federation of Social Workers, (Kenya Association of Social Workers, Nairobi, 1974), p. 97.

the profession. The graduates of social work schools in Eastern Africa, deal with individuals and with groups and communities, and are expected to be quite as much at home in approaching broad, preventive measures in the public forum as in giving "treatment" to an individual. It is not surprising, then, that any attempt to provide a curriculum content for social work training for this ever enlarging scope and function becomes increasingly difficult. However, a review of the existing training programmes and their course content is appropriate at this stage.

Training and Curriculum Content

Review of curriculum content for undergraduate social work education, indicates that there are essentially three major components or areas: Social work practice, human behaviour and social environment, and social welfare policy and services.[1]

For the purposes of this study, however, and in the opinion of the writer and that of others,[2] field instruction is also viewed as part of the undergraduate social work curriculum. This view is based on the

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[1] see, for example:

1. Compton and Galaway, Social Work Processes (The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 1975), p. 84.
2. Donald Feldstein, Undergraduate Social Work Education : Today and Tomorrow, (Council on Social Work Education Inc., N.Y., 1972), pp. 36-37, 54-70.
3. Armaity S. Desai, "Curriculum Development," in New Themes in Social Work Education : Proceedings of XVIth. ICSSW, The Hague, 1972, (IASSW Inc., N.Y., 1972).

[2] For detailed discussion, see, for example: Kristen Wenzel, (ed.), Undergraduate Field Instruction Programmes : Current Issues and Predictions, (Council on Social Work Education, Inc., N.Y., 1972), an article by Serapio R. Zalba, "The Pros and Cons of Using a Curriculum in Undergraduate Field Instruction," pp. 29-49. Also an article by Bernice K. Simon, "Field Instruction as Eduaction for Practice : Purpose and Goals," pp. 63-79.

assumption that practice experience is of the essence of professional education. It is the ability to intervene selectively and constructively in specific problem-situations with individuals, groups, or communities which distinguishes the social work graduate from the liberal arts graduate.

A more detailed discussion about field instruction[1] or field training and what it involves will be covered in chapter V. The following portion of this chapter is primarily concerned with the theoretical content of social work principles and methods related on one hand to knowledge of the background subjects, and on the other to the actual world to which undergraduate student social workers return to after graduation. Inescapably, this section will also deal with the goals or aims of professional education for social work at an undergraduate level, first in a broad way, and second as spelled our by the training institutions under review.[2]

Most schools of social work have first of all rather general aims to guide their programmes. For instance, it is an agreed aim at the School of Social Work in the University of Zambia that the student who completes his degree should be ready not only for direct service to people (this involves delivery of material assistance, utilization of community resources or development of indigenous resources), but also

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[1]Francis Manis, Field Instruction in Social Work Education, (Sultana Press, Fullerton, Calif., 1972).

[2]University of Manitoba, School of Social Work, Self Study Report Prepared for the Board of Accreditation, Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work, May, 1973, pp. 73-92. University of Regina, School of Social Work, An Application for Candidacy to CASSW, May, 1974, pp. 34-38.

to fill career responsibilities in social work involving administration, consultation, and supervision.[1] At Makerere University (Uganda), the Department of Social Work and Social Administration states that its programme's objective is "to train professional social workers for all branches of social work, including university development, in East Africa and other African countries."[2] Universities of Manitoba and Regina (Schools of Social Work),[3] on the other hand, spell out their overall objectives in the Bachelor of Social Work programmes in statements like :

(a) to produce a broadly educated graduate who has the basic knowledge, commitment and competence required for entry into social work practice;

(b) to prepare the student for the effective and successful pursuit of more specialized and advanced study at the graduate level; and

(c) to produce graduates who would feel "at home" to work in the unique characteristics of the province of Saskatchewan, and other areas with similar social problems.

Although the training/educational objectives of the schools reviewed above reflect, to a larger extent, the prevailing needs of their respective localities, there is a general universal pattern regarding the basic content of their programmes.

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[1] International Association of Schools of Social Work, World Guide to Social Work Education, (IASSW, New York, 1974), p. 262.

[2] Ibid., p. 226.

[3] University of Manitoba, School of Social Work, Self Study Report Prepared for the Board of Accreditation, Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work, May, 1973. University of Regina, School of Social Work, An Application for Candidacy to CASSW, May, 1974, pp. 5-9.

C. Social Work Practice Sequence

In the social work practice or methods courses, for example, the starting point in terms of content has been, besides "the knowledge of social work practice in accordance with the values and ethics of the profession,"[1] an analysis of the essential process of working with people, whether individuals, groups, or communities. The inclusion in the social work practice course of the analytical processes of working with people in problem-situations is an important means of helping students understand the meaning of, identify, clarify, and partialize problems or stress-creating situations which beset people in social, economic, and personal circumstances. In doing so, students are also helped to appreciate the activity of social work practice. Diverse social work roles, tasks and their sequence within a variety of social situations can be identified.

For an undergraduate social work student to have a clear understanding of the social work practice course as presented above, he is expected "to use knowledge from the foundation courses (HBSE and Social Welfare Policy and Services) in his analysis of modes of intervention at both micro and macro levels which would range from prevention to restoration, provision and change."[2]

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[1] Compton and Galaway, Social Work Processes, (The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 1975), p. 87.

[2] University of Manitoba, School of Social Work, Self Study Report Prepared for the Board of Accreditation, Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work, May, 1973, p.88.

D. Human Behaviour and Social Environment Sequence

There is, of course, a large cultural component in the study of man in his environment which must be integrated with the teaching about psycho-physical development. For example, the teaching about child development and family life at the University of Zambia is taught in relation to the African/Zambian culture.[1] This kind of knowledge applied to particular people and situations is necessary in order to develop criteria for deciding whether any given response or behaviour is within or outside the range of the normal, according to the person's degree of psycho-physical maturity in relation to his age, his social circumstances, and his cultural milieu, considered specifically from the angle of the stress-creating situation in which he finds himself at the point of social work intervention. A glance at the curricula of schools of social work at the Universities of Manitoba and Regina, also reveals that considerable weight is given in the course content to local socio-cultural conditions.[2]

So far as the physical nature, development and functioning of man is concerned, there is little agreement among the schools of social work in Eastern Africa about the ground which should be covered, either in depth or range, or about how the material should be presented. This is because of the inherent difficulty of the subject matter, the fact that

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[1]This is well documented in Course Outline : Human Behaviour and Social Environment, (University of Zambia, School of Social Work, November 1970). (Mimeographed.)

[2]University of Manitoba, School of Social Work, Self Study Report Prepared for the Board of Accreditation, Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work, May, 1973, pp. 112-129. University of Regina, School of Social Work, An Application for Candidacy to CASSW, May 1974, pp. 5-9.

students will be using this knowledge indirectly, and the need to remember that they are not training to become doctors or nurses. However, with the prevalence of conditions of poor health and diseases in the Region, it may be helpful to look at this material from another angle and to ask what the social worker needs to know in relation to disease, defect and injury in order to function as a social worker in Eastern Africa. It must be apparent that this is the focus and that the students must be enabled continuously to make this connection. No wonder a course with medical implications forms one of the "basic" subject matter in the curricula of social work education in schools of social work in Eastern Africa.[1]

Between the natural environment and the individual there is always interposed a human environment which is vastly more significant. This human environment consists of an organized group of other individuals, that is a society, and of a particular way of life which is characteristic of this group, that is a culture. It is the individual's interaction with these which is responsible for the formation

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[1] For documentation see in particular:

1. International Association of Schools of Social Work, World Guide to Social Work Education, (IASSW, New York, 1974), p.226.
2. Henry Maas in Canadian Journal of Social Work Education, Vol. I, 3, Summer 1975, an article "Human Behaviour/Social Environment Courses : Penumbra from the Past, Projections into the Future," pp. 24-27, [argues that the rationale for inclusion of what is to be taught in the Human Behaviour and Social Environment classes is the concern about specific social problems or populations at risk so that these problems can be understood in such ways as will illuminate a whole range of social work interventions addressed to preventing and/or remedying such conditions].

of most of his behaviour patterns, even his deep-seated emotional responses.[1]

This indicates that in order to comprehend individual personality formation it is essential to take into account the processes of interaction between the individual's social relations and background and the social, cultural and economic elements in a community. And also the physical environment, natural resources and historical background which in their various ways affect the pattern and aspirations of community life.

For these reasons students need to be intelligently aware of social processes in order that they may be able to think in terms of the wholeness of man as composed both of his psychological nature and also of the effect of social relationships on his attitudes and behaviour. This will of course include not only socio-cultural influences on behaviour but also the historical background and governmental and legal institutions of a country, and the provision of services, whether public or voluntary, to meet individual, group, and/or community need(s).

E. Social Welfare Policy and Services Sequence

Social work students must also be "concerned with the identification, description and analysis of certain human needs and their satisfaction, with the study of the processes of policy formation by and through a variety of social institutions; with the execution of these policies; with the ways and means by which choice and policy are translated

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[1]Ralph Linton, The Cultural Background of Personality, (Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1967), p. 8.

into goods and services to meet these particular needs; and with the assessment of the extent to which the aims of policy are in practice achieved."[1]

The importance to social workers in Eastern Africa about a clear understanding of social welfare policy and services is well documented.[2] What is less apparent is how this enormous range of subject matter can be reduced to manageable compass without being taught so superficially as to be valueless, or else so that it overwhelms the students and overloads the curriculum.

The guiding principle in selection and focus should be what social workers need to know in order, as Compton and Galaway have put it, "to act as informed and competent practitioners in providing services and as participants or leaders in efforts to achieve desirable change."[3] The same authors,[4] as well as Longres,[5] have offered some

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[1]Richard M. Titmus, The Role of Research in Social Welfare, (United Nations, UN/TAA/SEM/14/L.4), p. 2. [Paper prepared for the European Seminar on the Relationship between Research, Planning, and Social Welfare Policy. The Hague, 1957.]

[2]For documentation see for example:
1. International Association of Schools of Social Work, World Guide To Social Work Education, (IASSW, New York, 1974), pp. 226-227, 262-265.
2. Kenya Association of Social Workers, Nairobi, The Changing Role of Social Workers in a Changing Society : Proceedings of the Third Symposium. International Federation of Social Workers, 1974.

[3]Compton and Galaway, Social Work Processes, (The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 1975), p. 85

[4]Ibid., pp. 85-86.

[5]John Longres, Perspectives from the Puerto Rican Faculty Training Project, (Council on Social Work Education, Inc., New York, 1973), p. 53.

useful insights in what to include in this component of social work curriculum without making the course too big and complicated to fit together in a single course sequence.

F. Summary

Within the framework outlined in this chapter, undergraduate social work curriculum content in Eastern Africa Schools of Social Work (within the three major components), indicate some element of universality with their counterpart institutions in Manitoba[1] and Regina.[2] Social work practice courses do form, in all the schools under review, a core component of the undergraduate programmes for it is from this area of the curriculum that the student is helped to learn and apply the knowledge and principles of social work practice in accordance with the values and ethics of the profession.[3] Similarly, there is equally an important emphasis upon the content pertaining to social welfare policy and services. Opportunity is offered to all students to acquire knowledge of the general policies, conditions, legislative bases, institutions, programmes, and broad range of services relevant to social welfare in contemporary society.[4]

What is apparently significantly different among the schools

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[1]University of Manitoba, School of Social Work, Self Study Report Prepared for the Board of Accreditation, Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work, May, 1973, pp. 112-126.

[2]University of Regina, School of Social Work, An Application for Candidacy to CASSW, May, 1974, p. 52.

[3]Compton and Galaway, Social Work Processes, (The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 1975), p. 87.

[4]Ibid, p. 85.

under review, however, is the course content covering the Human Behaviour and Social Environment sequence. This is understandable since what to include and what to leave out in this area of study is influenced by primarily as Maas puts it : "For what should come first are the social problems we decide to include among the high priorities in our total school programme and thus in our HBSE classes."[1]

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[1]Henry Maas "Human Behaviour/Social Environment Courses : Penumbra from the Past, Projections into the Future." Canadian Journal of Social Work Education. Vol. I, 3, 1975, pp. 24-27.

CHAPTER III

TOWARD A MODEL FOR UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME IN EASTERN AFRICA

Having reviewed existing social work educational programmes and their course content in the Eastern African Schools of Social Work (and the Universities of Manitoba and Regina), the present chapter sets to demonstrate how current social work practice theory augmented with knowledge and strategies from other fields could be utilized in developing a social work educational/training model that enhances not only the functioning of the social work graduates in meeting the social welfare needs of the Eastern African society, but also an educational model that reflects the socio-economic needs and conditions of the rural communities of Eastern Africa. Since the writer's primary responsibility is for social work education in Tanzania, the proposed model will particularly focus on Tanzania's social work educational programme.

A. Stresses and Strains Affecting Social Work Education in Eastern Africa Today

If social work educational/training programme in Eastern Africa are to survive, they must reflect that such programmes are rational and planful means to achieve national goals. In the case of Tanzania, particularly as they relate to rural socio-economic development,[1] may be

[1] The essence of this approach is that development is a single process involving the transformation of a whole rural social system, of which economic activities and relations are a part, for the achievement of specified national goals. For more detailed discussion of the term "socio-economic development," see Social Policy and Planning in National Development,

found in the Tanganyika Five Year Plan for Economic and Social Development : 1964-1969,[1] and later re-emphasized by President Nyerere in 1973.[2] As such, the proposed school of social work in Tanzania viewed as an organization, is conceived as internally organized, having a distinctive structure with interdependent components and functioning in a social environment.[3] Not only is this system internally complex, but it also interacts with external systems which are themselves complex. The school cannot be isolated from the intricate components of the world immediately surrounding it, such as community attitudes, and the public and private social welfare systems. Other impinging forces upon the model, level, and quality of social work education in Tanzania are the social and economic systems of the nation at large. It is imperative to the survival of social work educational programmes that their linkages with those outside systems be adequate so that the school can set goals that reflect the meaning of needs of, in the first place, the rural population.

Report of the Meeting of Experts on Social Policy and Planning, Stockholm, Sweden, September 1-10, 1969, International Social Development Review, No. 3; Unified Socio-Economic Development Planning : Some New Horizons (United Nations Publication, No. E.71.IV.9), pp. 4-5.

[1] Ministry of Development Planning, Tanganyika Five Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, 1964-1969 (Government Printer, Dar-es-Salaam, 1964).

[2] Julius K. Nyerere, "Progress Comes with Production" in The African Review : A Journal of African Politics, Development and International Affairs, Vol. III, 4, 1973 (East African Literature Bureau, Nairobi, Kenya), pp. 519-539.

[3] Robert Vinter, "The Social Structure of Service," in Alfred J. Kahn, ed., Issues in American Social Work, (Columbia University Press, N.Y., 1959), pp. 242-269.

Another stress felt, aside from the rapid changes in size and programmes and the functioning of professional social worker within social welfare agencies in the Region, has been caused by the advent of personnel with different training backgrounds (see page 5).

A recent publication entitled Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare, states that "societal demands for increased services have resulted in the introduction of additional kinds of workers to the social welfare manpower pool.[1] This has sometimes been referred to in the literature as the "New Careers"[2] involving a wide spectrum of new workers from former recipients of service who possess a minimum of academic education,[3] as well as technical workers from the field of rural development,[4] all of who may get into professional social work training.

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[1]R. J. Teare and H. L. McPheeters, Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare, (Social Rehabilitation Services, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1970), p. 3.

[2]The following references are illustrative of the "New Career" literature:

1. Patricia Elston, New Careers in Welfare for Professionals and Non-Professionals, (New York University, New Career and Development Centre, New York, 1967).
2. R. Reiff and F. Reissman, The Indigenous Non-Professional and Strategy of Change in Community Action and Community Mental Health Programmes, (National Institute of Labour Education, New York, November 1964).

[3]See World Guide to Social Work Education, for requirements for admission at Makerere University and Zambia University Schools of Social Work, (IASSW, New York), pp. 226 and 263 respectively.

[4]This is particularly true of the recently established two-year Social Work Diploma programme in Tanzania.

B. The Need for a "New Social Work Educational Model"

Traditional approaches to social work educational/training in social work literature, with particular reference to Africa, are conspicous by their absences. Those approaches that do exist appear to be inadequate for the pressing socio-economic-cultural problems of the Eastern African countries, cited earlier. This inadequacy may be a consequence of the fact that social work education in the Region has been an indiscriminate application of so called modern development theories, values, concepts, and strategies of the former metropolitan powers than those of the indigenous African communities.[1]

For many years the schools of social work in Eastern Africa have been operating according to one principle : the "ideal" social work practitioner should be universalist in scope and generalist in practice methods,[2] that is, he should have the ability to practice in any community, in any stratum of society. Conspicously absent from the training curriculum for the "ideal" social worker has been the systematic appraisal of socio-economic variables[3] in individual and social functioning of the rural communities.

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[1] Economic Commission for Africa, A Venture in Self-Reliance, (United Nations, No. E/CN.14/424), pp. 132-134.

[2] For further discussion about the "generalist social worker," as used here, see: University of Manitoba, School of Social Work, Self Study Report Prepared for the Board of Accreditation, CASSW, May 1973, pp. 4-7.

[3] For detailed discussion about "socio-economic variables" see:

1. Economic Commission for Africa, A Venture in Self-Reliance, (Document No.E/CN.14/424), pp. 134-147.
2. Denis Goulet, The Cruel Choice : A New Concept in the Theory of Development, especially Part II "Ethical Strategies for Development," (Atheneum, New York, 1973), pp. 111-169.

It has become increasingly clear that the "ideal" social worker today knows enough about the social and economic factors involved in rural transformation to offer more than the most general guidelines for comprehensive rural improvement programmes. Ecological and social variables strongly affect the views that rural people hold towards themselves and others, and influence many of the behavioural choices that they make as family members, producers, citizens, clients, and village community leaders. Social workers in the Region have not been equipped to assess and interpret these variables, and in the prevalence of this deficiency, the schools of social work in Eastern Africa bear a major responsibility.

The universalist, generalist modality of social work practice is a Platonic abstraction that bears little relationship to the exigencies of the Eastern African experience. In most cases, the typical "ideal" social work practitioner has been neither a universalist nor generalist. He has been "Western" value-oriented and oriented toward psycho-analytic methods in practice; and who is often caught up in failure responses when it would be better to be involved in preventing failure responses. He has been often perceived by the rural communities as an agent for social control who speaks repeatedly of gradual absorption of the rural people into the mosaic of an urban and semi-urban society.

It should be clear now what kind of social worker the masses of Eastern Africa communities need. Yet, for the purposes of authentic social work training programme, it is imperative to understand that a

new model for social work education/training the writer is developing, is more than a negation of the past, but rather a transcendence over the past and a positive response to contemporary conditions in the Region.

It should be noted, however, that in an attempt to develop "a new conceptual model" for social work education in Eastern Africa, the writer makes use of bits and pieces and draws on many existing formations.[1] It can be considered new only in the sense of consolidating segmented efforts and fitting them together in a different way.

The writer also recognizes that no model can pretend to adequately convey the complexity of social work education. A model is merely an analytical tool. As a tool it cannot be considered as right or wrong but must be judged in the light of its utility in serving its purpose[2] (in this case, providing a theoretical framework upon which a three year undergraduate social work educational programme in Tanzania can be operationalized). The complexity does come through as the teaching

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[1]It will be evident later in the study that the writer makes extensive use of various sources to arrive at "a new conceptual model." Among them are the following:

1. John Longres, Perspective from the Puerto Rican Faculty Training Project, (Council on Social Work Education, Inc., New York, 1973).
2. D. J. Curren, (ed.), The Chicago Faculty Development Programme : A Report, (Council on Social Work Education, Inc., New York, 1973.)
3. Harvey Stalwick, Janus and Semantics : Some Notes On Educational Policy and Philosophy, (Univesity of Regina, School of Social Work, January, 1976). (Mimeographed.)

[2]Arnuf M. Pins and John B. Turner, Innovations in Teaching Social Work Practice, (Council on Social Work Education, Inc., New York, 1969), p. 38.

staff (and most probably also the students) experiment in applying the model in practice and discuss their experiences.

C. Towards Developing a New Model

As a basis for developing a social work educational/training model, the writer makes the following assumptions : Social Work education/training in Eastern Africa should be developed around the needs of a "polyvalent social worker"[1] - one who is seen as a professional working and living in or near the community being served, fulfilling, for the most part, village community needs broadly defined rather than individual needs narrowly defined. As a member of the community, the polyvalent social worker would be closer to the people, and, therefore, would understand the needs of the people and work for them in the fulfilment of these needs. The tasks that may be required of such a worker are many and sometimes complex (see pp. 24-25; and 29-32).

The polyvalent social worker differs in a primary way from the "ideal" one prevalent in social welfare agencies in Eastern Africa in that the polyvalent social worker stresses community needs and community/rural development while at the same time acknowledging the necessity of working with individuals within a community. The ideal social work practitioner, on the other hand, is essentially, as pointed out earlier, a caseworker who, on behalf of a particular client, might get involved in

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[1] The term "polyvalent social worker" has been borrowed from Virgen Pura Vazquez de Baco of the University of Puerto Rico School of Social Work as set out in John Longres, (ed.), Perspectives from the Puerto Rican Faculty Training Project, (Council on Social Work Education, Inc., New York, 1973), pp. 31-32.

group or community activities.

While recognizing the substantive distinctions that are sometimes made between "training" and "education"[1] the reader might have noticed so far that the writer's adoption of equating "training" with "education" has, for the purposes of this study, practical value. Lynton and Pareek have illustrated two concepts of training (see Figure 2, page 52)[2] stating the assumptions underlying each. Through comparing these two differing concepts of training one can more easily appreciate the ineptness of many of the past and current social work educational programmes in Eastern Africa schools of social work.

In adopting part of what they describe as the "New Concept" of training, it appears that a lot more time, resources, and planning is necessary to accomplish more adequate outcomes from the existing or new social work educational policies and programmes in Eastern Africa. For the purposes of Tanzania, one can distinguish two possible theoretical approaches or models in the development of a social work educational policy and programme emerging from the "New Concepts" of training. These models may be labelled the Creative Structural Model and the Professional Acculturation Model.[3] As seems to be true with every other topic in the

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[1]For a distinction between the term "education" and the term "training" in terms of their objectives, see: Rolf P. Lynton and Udia Pareek, Training for Development, (Richard D. Irwin, The Dorsey Press, Chicago, 1967), pp. 6-7.

[2]Ibid., p. 6.

[3]The writer is greatly indebted to Dr. Harvey Stalwick, School of Social Work, University of Regina, for introducing to him these models during a lengthy discussion, first on January 21, 1976 and later on January 29, 1976.

FIGURE 2

ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING TWO CONCEPTS OF TRAINING

The Prevailing Concept	The New Concept
1. The acquisition of subject matter knowledge by a participant leads to action.	2. Motivations and skills lead to action. Skills are acquired through practice.
2. The participant learns what the trainer teaches. Learning is a simple function of the capacity of the participant to learn and the ability of the trainer to teach.	2. Learning is a complex function of the motivation and capacity of the individual participant, the norms of the training group, the training methods and the behaviour of the trainers, and the general climate of the institution. The participant's motivation is influenced by the climate of his work organization.
3. Individual action leads to improvement on the job.	3. Improvement on the job is a complex function of individual learning, the norms of the working group, and the general climate of the organization. Individual learning, unused, leads to frustration.
4. Training is the responsibility of the training institution. It begins and ends with the course.	4. Training is the responsibility of three partners : the participant's organization, the participant, and the training institution. It has a preparatory, pre-training, and a subsequent, post training, phase. All are of key importance to the success of training.

social sciences, these categories are neither mutually exclusive nor totally exhaustive. However, within each is a body of data sufficiently unique to justify the classification scheme. The following discussion suggest the latter model seems more operational within the socio-economic-political constraints of Tanzania.

The Creative Structural Model is concerned primarily with tailoring social work educational policies and programmes within the context of the community to be served. It seeks to promote a model based on the belief that "institutions must adjust to the people rather than the other way round,"[1] and is therefore open to the possibility of engaging a student body which changes over time in terms of age, expectations, educational needs and geographical location. The climate in which relevant educational policies are developed may be referred to as being "convivial"[2] and aided by a proactive eclectic gathering of the "best" from social work and any other social science or educational experts which seems to have a bearing as a response to the social context.

Professional practice and status is viewed as flowing from demonstrated worth. That is, the welfare of the client as a value commitment

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[1]Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, Equal Educational Opportunity : A Statement of the Problem With Special Reference to Education, (OECP, Paris, 1973), p.24.

[2]W. L. Griffin and J. D. Marciano, (ed.), Education for a Culture and Crisis, (MSS Information Corporation, New York, 1972). Article by Herbert Gintis, "Towards a Political Economy of Education : A Radical Critique of Ivan Illich's DeSchooling Society," p. 50. [Convivial institutions are defined as being opposite to manipulative institutions and are characterized by "organizational forms which allow for the free development of individuals."]

central to this model[1] aids in expressing discontent with the status quo and supports the creation of new structures. This is not to be done at the expense of either social work tradition or early altruistic features found within the profession of social work.

While accepting, in principle, part of what this model stands for, the question arises as to whether the Tanzania government, the sole financier of the social work educational programme in the country, will tolerate the philosophical stance in favour of a specific view of human rights and needs; for it seems, for the creative structural model to be functional, the idealogical stance necessary for a meaningful social work curriculum is "radical" rather than "liberal" in orientation. The liberal position emphasizes individual deficiencies and sub-cultural pathologies as the basis of socio-economic problems. When structural problems are noted, social reforms of particular organizations and institutions are requested. The radical position that is being advanced here, on the other hand, is on the assumption that socio-economic problems of Tanzania's rural population, for example, is a result of economic exploitation of the rural areas by the more enterprising small

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[1] T. H. Marshall, The Recent History of Professionalsm in Relation to Social Structure and Social Policy," Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, Vol. V, 3, August, 1939. [Emphasis in this article is on the value of the profession providing a service to the community - stressing the altruistic nature of the service and selfless dedication of professionals to the needs of others. The essence of professionalism is the welfare of the client rather than professional self-interest.] For a review of some related aspects, see : T. G. Cooke, (ed.), Education and the Professions, (Methuen, London, 1973), also : Richard Titmuss, Gift Relationship, (Allen Unwin, London, 1970).

sector from urban and semi-urban centres of the country.

There is evidence, however, upon review of Tanzania's socio-economic-political development since the Arusha Declaration[1] in 1967, that major structural changes in the social, economic, and political spheres have been implemented. One very relevant political aim, already mentioned, has been the attainment of social justice, both as between rich and poor and as between rural and urban living. Another has been a rejection of the competitive individualistic ideology; and instead a growing emphasis on co-operative production and marketing to prevent the growth of inequalities under private enterprise.

Doubtless, the adoption in Tanzania of a "radical" social work educational approach as implied in the creative structural model would be unacceptable by the Party and the Tanzania government. The radical element suggested in the model involves, most importantly, the ability to constantly challenge the legitimate order when that order works against the interests and needs of the village communities. Tanzania's socio-economic strategies, on the other hand, are based on the "collaborative approach"[2] in that the tasks involved in rural modernization/

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[1] The Arusha Declaration refers to the policy document issued in 1967 by TANU (the political party) plotting the socialist path for the country. For a detailed discussion about some of the major structural changes implemented since this policy was adopted. See : TANU, The Arusha Declaration and TANU's Policy On Socialism and Self-Reliance, (The Government Printer, Dar-es-Salaam, 1967).

[2] The inter-professional collaborative approach, as used here, has been borrowed from Arlene Johnson, School Social Work, (N.A.S.W., New York, 1962), p. 128. [She defines collaboration as the process of interaction that takes place when two or more persons work and share responsibility for the results.]

transformation require the joint attention of professionals like economists, agriculturalists, rural sociologists, rural technologist, and social workers.[1]

The Professional Acculturation Model places emphasis on a largely pre-defined, inflexible curriculum by one group (the faculty) during a confined period of study for a relatively homogenous second group (the student body). Variables such as faculty characteristics in terms of "social work professionalism," carefully selected supervised learning opportunities and over-emphasis on the technologies of social work practice are central to this model and more important than such variables as student readiness and experience, the needs of the consumers of social services or the social context of the community in which the educational programm is located. A process of controlled acculturation is encouraged largely due to the desire to preserve professional self-interest.[2] It

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[1]For a discussion of Tanzania's application of the inter-professional collaborative approach in socio-economic development programmes, see : Julius K. Nyerere, Socialism and Rural Development, (The Government Printer, Dar-es-Salaam, 1967), and Julius K. Nyerere, Decentralisation, (The Government Printer, Dar-es-Salaam, 1972).

[2]The concept flows mainly from its usage in Anthropology. A 1936 Sub-Committee Report of the U.S. Social Service Research Council, the principal authors being R. Redfield, R. Linton, and M.J. Herskovitz, stated "acculturation comprehends those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures, come into continuous first hand contact with subsequent changes in the original culture patterns for either or both groups." Restated, too long of a period of acculturation within the training institution could leave social work students with the view they have an abundance of answers or techniques. Martin Carnoy's observations in Education as Cultural Imperialism, have also left their imprint in this model (David McKay Company, Inc., New York, 1974).

also promotes what has been described as the "front-end-model"[1] in that social work practitioners are often prepared on a once-and-for-all time basis. This model could also be called the optimistic model.

D. The Applicability of the Professional Acculturation Model

The above account of possible social work educational model for Eastern Africa (with particular reference to Tanzania) is not intended as a "pure" approach (models never are) and is simply discussed at this time to suggest a way of not only analyzing the proposed undergraduate Social Work educational programme in Tanzania, but also as a basis for deducing needs from this. The past three years have included a struggle to come to grips with the central aspects and implications of what could be identified as the above model. This thinking and development has been often guided by the maxim that the "teacher has his own particular responsibility in relation to the curriculum,"[2] and that the professional culture demands technical nature of the professional tasks and the service ideal.[3] In adopting the professional acculturation model, the

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[1]H.J. Walberg and A.T. Kophn, (ed.), Rethinking Urban Education, (Jossey Bass, 1972), an article by Bruno Stein and S. M. Miller, "Recurrent Education : An Alternative System," p. 186. [While the front-end-load model is used in this article primarily in the context of traditional educational policies and priorities the view seems to apply to social work edicational policies and priorities as well. That is, time limited periods of preparation are set out prior to practitioners assuming professional roles.

[2]Howard J. Pallard and Roger R. Miller, (ed.), Ego Oriented Casework : Problems and Perspectives, an article by Virginia S. Bellesmith, "New Frontiers in the Teaching of Social Casework," (FSA of America, New York 10, 1963), pp. 259-271.

[3]For further discussion about the "professional culture" see: G. Benneniste and W.F. Ilchman, Professionals in Developing Countries, (University of California, Berkeley, 1968).

School of Social Work in Tanzania (as in any other Eastern African country) would be responding to the need to evolve a social work curriculum which serves not only internally-derived professional norms but also externally-derived norms relating to national goals. Having the training/educational goals established and the specifications set, it is the task of the faculty to organize the various educational/training inputs for the maximum effectiveness and economy.

CHAPTER IV

CURRICULUM PLANNING IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

A. Theoretical Perspectives

Introduction

The curriculum of an institution has to be related to its purpose, and when that purpose is a dual one, that is, on one hand, to provide all the planned learning outcomes for which the school is responsible,[1] and on the other, to serve externally derived norms relating to national goals,[2] as is the case with schools of social work in Eastern Africa, there is likely to be some tension between the vocational or professional needs of the social workers in training and the education they are likely to be seeking as young people, who have, usually completed Form VI, or Form IV with at least two years background experience on work in a human service area.[3] It has been assumed up to now, however, that

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[1]For detailed discussion about certain "oughtness" associated with curriculum questions, see:

1. W. James Popham and Eva L. Baker, Systematic Instruction, (Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1970), p. 48.
2. Arthur M. Cohen, Objectives for College Courses, (Glencoe Press, Beverly Hills, California, 1970), pp. 6-7.
3. William McGlothlin, "The Aims of Professional Education," The Professional Schools, (The Centre for Applied Research Education, Inc., New York, 1964), pp. 21-34.

[2]J. R. Anders, Social Work Training As a Means of Achieving National Goals, (Oppenheimer Department of Social Work, University of Zambia, Lusaka, 1973. Mimeographed), p.1.

[3]For the purposes of Tanzania, work within the human service area include, for example, work in the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare; Ministry of Home Affairs; Ministry of Health; Ministry of Agriculture; Ministry of Rural Development; Ministry of National Education; and Voluntary Social Welfare Agencies.

there is some positive merit in pursuing the two objectives side by side in a concurrent programme as distinct from arguments from expediency.[1] This view is upheld by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa,[2] Association for Social Work Education in Africa,[3] and the respective national governments of the Region as stipulated in their national plans for social and economic development.[4]

The educational background and attainments of those for whom the curriculum is intended is also bound to affect the studies offered. It is necessary, therefore, to diagnose the needs of the educational and age-levels in terms of objectives. Thus in Tanzania (this is equally true with other countries in the Region), the undergraduate is a young adult (21 - 24 years old) who is ready to shoulder, besides basic responsibilities for service delivery in the rural communities when he terminates his learning, he is ready to undertake middle-level policy-making and administrative, educational and remedial roles. Thus, the curriculum must be geared to

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[1] See, for example: Rolf P. Lynton and Udia Pareek, Training for Development, (Richard D. Irwin, Inc. and The Dorsey Press, Chicago, 1967) pp. 3-13. Also: Guy Hunter, Modernizing Peasant Societies, (Oxford University Press, London, 1969), pp. 240-250.

[2] United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, A Venture in Self-Reliance, (Document No. E/CN.14/424), pp. 148-160.

[3] Association for Social Work Education in Africa.
Journal for Social Work Education in Africa, Vol. I, 1, June 1974.

[4] See, for example: Tanganyika Five Year Plan for Economics and Social Development, 1964 - 1969, (Government Printer, Dar-es-Salaam, 1964). "The Second National Development Plan of the Republic of the Government of Zambia," cited by J. R. Anders in Social Work Training As a Means of Achieving National Goals, (University of Zambia, School of Social Work, Lusaka, December, 1973. Mimeographed.)

meet these roles.

Schools of Social Work in Eastern Africa do not exist in a vacuum; they are affected by other institutions:[1] the society[2] from which the student population is recruited and to which it must return for professional practice.[3] The concerns of each society are different, and these concerns naturally point to the type of content as well as the philosophy within which that content will be taught. For instance, Tanzania is preoccupied with problems of rural transformation and thus the focus of concern in the content must deal with these issues, including the social, economic, and political factors related to development (planned development), and promoting social change in the rural communities.

This chapter will show how these influences have an effect upon the curriculum the writer is attempting to develop for a three-year undergraduate social work educational programme in Tanzania. It will go on to outline the objectives of the programme; the educational content; and the

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[1]This is well illustrated by L. F. Dubbeldam, The Teacher and the Teaching Situation in Tanzania, (Africa-Studiecentrum-Leiden, The Hague, 1970), pp. 16-18. [Also, Lynton and Pareek seem to substantiate Dubbeldam's findings. They argue, with specific reference to India, that in establishing training objectives or goals, the training institution does not set the goals; national and organizational policies set the goals.]

[2]It is suggested, for the purpose of this discussion "society" be looked at from two spheres: the society/community as a whole, and the politicians or Political Party in power. As will be clear later in the chapter, in Tanzania it is the politician who, objectively or not, assesses rightly or wrongly the needs of the country.

[3]Armaity S. Desai, "Curriculum Development," in New Themes in Social Work Education : Proceedings of the XVIth. International Congress of Schools of Social Work, The Hague, 1972 (IASSW, Inc., New York, 1972), p. 93.

structural organization of the curriculum itself. It is important to note that in an attempt to develop a curriculum for the undergraduate programme in Tanzania, the writer assumes that the programme's educational goals are those which require of each graduate the achievement of a general, basic competence in work with a wide range of client-systems, but with particular emphasis on the rural communities. Unavoidably, most of what is proposed below has a general rather than specific bias or orientation.

External Influences upon Curriculum-Building

The educational philosophy of the proposed undergraduate social work programme in Tanzania must attempt, in the opinion of the writer, to combine curriculum standards common to other Schools of Social Work in Eastern Africa, and other programmes accredited by ASWEA, with what appear to be the unique characteristics of Tanzania. The constraints on personnel in social work in Tanzania (and elsewhere in Eastern Africa) already suggested (pp. 24-26) represent but one unique characteristic. The socio-economic conditions discussed in Chapter I; and the country's political ideology; and a bias for assumption of social welfare[1] responsibilities by the State, add to the interplay of forces that have an influence upon the curriculum.

Pragmatically, the design of objectives will have a tendency to pivot on the essential question of needs within the socio-economic-political framework of Tanzania. As emphasized throughout the study, highest in the list of needs in Tanzania is rural development or transformation.

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[1]The term "social welfare" is used here in a broad sense and is meant to include all activities, policies, programmes, and services aimed at the betterment of social well-being of the total population.

Equally important, according to Nyerere, in trying to develop, "we are determined to do this on the basis of human equality."[1]

Overall Principal Objectives for Higher/Professional Education

The overall principal objectives or goals for higher or professional education/training in Tanzania have been well documented[2] and identified.[3] Among the goals clearly identified in the Five Year Plan for Economic and Social Development both generally and as they relate to rural modernization or transformation, and in terms of educational objectives, are such items as the following:

1. Self-sufficiency of the people.

Increasingly, Tanzania hopes to fulfil the aspirations of its people toward self-sufficiency not only economically but also educationally.[4] Indeed, the founding of the University of Dar es Salaam in 1970 was a major step forward in developing a structure permitting of educational self-sufficiency. Self-sufficiency implies de-colonization of attitudes and requirements and the development of an indigenous capacity to identify and solve problems.

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[1] Julius K. Nyerere, "Relevance and Dar es Salaam University", Freedom and Development, (Oxford University Press, Dar es Salaam, 1973), p. 199.

[2] op. cit., pp. 192-203, and Education for Self-Reliance (The Government Printer, Dar es Salaam, 1967).

[3] Ibid.
Ministry of Development Planning, Tanganyika Five Year Plan for Economic and Social Development : 1964-1969, (The Government Printer, Dar es Salaam, 1964).

[4] Julius K. Nyerere, "Progress Comes with Production," The African Review : A Journal of African Politics, Development, and International Affairs, Vol. III, 4, 1973 , pp. 519-539.

2. Decentralization.

While the Development Plan cited earlier was published before the government machinery was decentralized,[1] the Plan does exemplify notions of decentralization and participatory involvement of all Tanzanians to achieve common goals in the area of rural transformation in a single political party structure. Education (adult education) is a means towards increasing the effectiveness of this participatory involvement.

3. Popular Involvement.

The means to achieve popular involvement include, particularly in the village communities, "Village Productivity Committees."[2] These structures are required and are intended to assure participation in planning the workability and efficiency of rural modernization projects and mechanisms.

4. Detribalization.

Detribalization is conceived as a step forward towards national unity. Increasingly loyalties should focus on national concerns, and a priority of loyalties may exist in which, while respecting loyalty areas as family, kinship, and tribal obligations, a higher loyalty to national goals is set as an objective and implemented, particularly in educational programmes for youth.

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[1] Ibid., Decentralization, (The Government Printer, Dar es Salaam, 1972).

[2] Village Productivity Committees are usually groups of elected members of the village who, with the help and guidance of the rural development personnel (and other technical staff from the technical ministries of government, and sometimes voluntary organizations), at the village-level are responsible for the planning and the implementation of rural development projects.

5. Extensive government concern with and involvement regarding :

   a) crucial self-sustaining activities, especially as regards agriculture;

   b) housing and particularly to the evolution of suitable housing and related amenities in the rural areas where more than 90 % of the population lives. A national programme of brick production and house construction has been formulated for the nation as a whole, in order that housing of a permanent nature is available for all citizens. Programmes of village regrouping, resettlement, and "ujamaa villages"[1] are closely connected to these goals.

6. Unemployment.

The problem of unemployment and of school-leavers are very closely related. Jobs may not grow at the same rate that school-leavers are produced by the rapidly expanding educational system, and it is sociologically most dangerous to have a large social group of educated but unemployed workers.[2]

Social Work is, of course, only one instrumentality for the achievement of the above goals, but all the above goals are, in the opinion of the writer, of particular interest to social workers in Tanzania. Below, an attempt will be made to describe the professional educational objectives

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[1] Ujamaa Villages are viewed in Tanzania as a corner stone of the country's socio-economic development within the socialistic path the nation has embarked upon as from 1967. The villages are founded on the political ideals that insist on co-operative living, production, and marketing in the rural areas to prevent the growth of inequalities under private enterprise.

[2] For documentation about unemployment situation in Tanzania, read: The People of Tanzania : An IPPF Africa Factbook, (Autolitho Ltd., Nairobi, Kenya, 1972), p. 21.

that are, in the writer's view, congruous with the national goals stated above.[1]

Objectives of Undergraduate Social Work Programme

The general objectives of the undergraduate social work programme in Tanzania is to provide a "second" professional education/training at the Bachelor of Social Work level[2] that will prepare a carefully selected group of students for a variety of career responsibilities in the human service area involving direct practice particularly in rural communities, as well as administration, consultation, and supervision.[3]

By focusing primarily on social work career preparation, the programme assumes an increasing training function. This is not necessarily, as Richard Broeker has suggested, a draw-back if the only purpose of

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[1]The writer intends to rely heavily on the writings of others in discussing the subject of professional educational objectives. See, among others:

1. Julius K. Nyerere, Freedom and Development, (Oxford University Press, Dar es Salaam, 1973), pp. 192-203.
2. Compton and Galaway, Social Work Processes, (The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 1975).
3. University of Manitoba, School of Social Work, Self Study Report Prepared for the Board of Accreditation Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work, May, 1973.
4. University of Regina, School of Social Work, An Application for Candidacy to CASSW, May, 1974.
5. Minnesota Resource Centre for Social Work Education, Directions for Undergraduate Social Work Education, (Mimeographed).

[2]In Eastern Africa, and according to Association of Social Work Education in Africa (ASWEA), a post-secondary (High School) Diploma in Social Work or Social Welfare is recognized as a first level professional education in social work.

[3]These general objectives have been formulated, with some modification, from the existing social work educational programmes in Eastern Africa Schools of Social Work. See : International Association of Schools of Social Work, World Guide To Social Work Education, (IASSW, Inc. New York, 1974), pp.226-228, 262-265.

baccalaureate social work education is to prepare students at current levels for social work jobs or graduate education in social work.[1] A review of accepted objectives as summarized from the Council on Social Work Education's Guide, indicates that educators define the purposes of undergraduate social work education in more broad terms.[2]

The writer of this study believes that the graduate of the Bachelor of Social Work programme in Eastern Africa - more particularly in Tanzania - will engage in social work practice towards the following goals or objectives:

1. the prevention of impairment to, and the enrichment of the capabilities and opportunities for human and social well-being (of in particular, the rural population);

2. the alleviation of already existing socio-economic problems that individuals, families, and particularly groups and rural communities are experiencing; and

3. anticipation of human and national needs in a rapidly changing socialist-oriented society; and participation in the progressive changes in policy and programmes in the welfare system.

More specifically, and in terms of professional social work education, these objectives would include:

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[1]Richard Broeker, "The Blossoming of Undergraduate Social Work Education," Directions for Undergraduate Social Work Education, (Minnesota Resource Centre for Social Work Education. Mimeographed), pp. 1-3.

[2]Ibid., pp. 1-8.

Knowledge [1]

a) about man, the total environment and their interrelationship. This would include insight into human behaviour, an understanding of human experience from a historical and philosophical perspective, an exploration of the bio-social-cultural, political environment.[2] It would mean an understanding of man in his interaction with others, as well as knowledge and understanding of the effects of total environment on human well-being.

b) about the relationship of the above phenomena to the concept of change as pervasive and permanent.

c) about the nature of the profession of social work : its purpose, role, practice and activities, particularly in Eastern Africa and specifically in Tanzania.

d) about the organization and operation of the social welfare system in Tanzania, and the connection between social welfare policy and broader national social policy.

e) about the socio-economic-political context and content of planned development.

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[1]For detailed discussion about "knowledge in social work practice," see:

1. Beulah R. Compton and Burt Galaway, Social Work Processes, (The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 1975), especially pp. 50-100.
2. Council on Social Work Education, Undergraduate Programmes in Social Welfare : A Guide to Objectives, Content, Field Experience and Organization, (Council on Social Work Education, Inc. New York, 1967).

[2]Kurt Reichert, "Current Developments and Trends in Social Work Education in the United States," Journal of Education for Social Work, Fall, 1970.

Values [1]

a) understanding of the nature and derivation of social work values.

b) understanding that value stances are an implicit part of all societal arrangements and human behaviour, and that ones' perception of reality stems from a particular value orientation that may be similar or different to others.

c) the internalization of the general value orientation of the profession of social work (with particular reference to Tanzania). This includes, among other things, a respect for each and all men, and a belief in the right of all men to self-realization and fulfilment in concert with their fellowmen, and the total environment.

d) this in turn implies a commitment to the ideals of social justice through the improvement of socio-economic conditions and social welfare provisions (particularly in the rural areas).

e) it also implies a commitment to standards of practice that will demonstrate integrity, honesty and professional ethics.

Abilities and Skills

a) ability to take a comprehensive approach to the phenomena of practice.

b) skill in the use of knowledge and values in the analysis of social systems including a recognition of their interconnectedness, interdependence and the linkages within and between systems.

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[1] For a discussion on "values," read:

1. Beulah R. Compton and Burt Galaway, Social Work Processes, (The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 1975), pp. 74-84, 102-136.
2. Derek Jehu, Learning Theory and Social Work, (Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., London, 1967), pp. 112-117.

c) ability to understand the wide range of possible interventive activities of practice, and to identify the most effective interventions or combination of interventions.

d) skill in the use of professional self and particularly in relation to specific situations identified for change in the rural areas.

e) skill in evaluating various interventions that may be taken in the process of "bringing change."

f) ability to carry out social work activities in accordance with the demands of Tanzania's needs and ethical practice.

g) capacity to tolerate uncertainty, change and ambiguity in the process of "bringing change," and a responsibility to test theories and approaches empirically.

h) ability to communicate well verbally (with client and other systems), and in writing (for supervisory and administrative purposes).

i) skills for use in developmental roles and functions of social workers.

Summary

While generally the graduate of the programme will be particularly within already established structures in the social welfare system in Tanzania, he will have a real appreciation of the significance of the country's changing socio-economic-political conditions and situations. The writer assumes that the social work graduate will be able to be flexible and innovative enough in the use of his professional knowledge and skills in relation to the current value system and available resources in Tanzania.

B. The Curriculum

Various definitions exist for the curriculum. According to Kerr, for example, the curriculum is defined as ". . . All the learning which is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually inside or outside the school."[1] Hirst adds : ". . . A programme of activities designed so that pupils will attain, as far as possible, certain educational ends or objectives."[2]

It is well to remember that the two definitions above are consistent with the social work educational policy and philosophy discussed earlier in the study (The Professional Acculturation Model, pp. 56-58). In considering the actual curriculum for undergraduate social work education in Tanzania, the writer's motives are of two orders :

1. Educational : From an educational standpoint, the proposed curriculum will constitute a coherent "second" academic level in a specialized educational continuum.

2. Social and professional : From a social and professional standpoint, the proposed curriculum is conceived as to serve not only as a sound foundation for advanced professional studies (at a M.S.W. level or specialized training in one or another area of the human services), but also as a terminal course for most of the students who will be required to enter professional practice at this level. The extreme shortage of "appropriately"

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[1] John F. Kerr, "The Problem of Curriculum Reform," Changing the Curriculum, (University of London Press, London, 1968), p. 16.

[2] Paul H. Hirst, "The Contribution of Philosophy to the Study of the Curriculum," Changing the Curriculum, (University of London Press, London, 1968), p. 40.

educated manpower in the social welfare field (particularly in rural development), and the Economic Commission for Africa's, ASWEA's, and Eastern African governments' urgent appeal for personnel with undergraduate social work education, constitute a significant argument in favour of the proposed curriculum.

Course Sequences

The course sequences described below should be read in conjunction with what has been discussed earlier (pp. 33-42). Most of the courses offered in the undergraduate social work programme in Eastern Africa may be grouped in five broad areas:

1. Social Work Practice
2. Human Behaviour and Social Environment
3. Social Welfare Policy and Services
4. Social (Work) Research[1]
5. Field Instruction[2]

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[1] Unlike the first three, this is not a three-year course sequence. Usually it is offered during the last two years of study. It is included here to emphasize the importance of social (work) research in the curriculum of undergraduate social work education in Eastern Africa. For details, read:

1. World Guide to Social Work Education, (IASSW, Inc., New York, 1974), pp. 226-228, 262-265.
2. Yohannes Wolde Gerima, "Social Planning : Challenge to Social Work Education," New Themes in Social Work Education, (IASSW, Inc., New York, 1972); [provides the rationale for inclusion of social (work) research in the curriculum for undergraduate programmes in Africa. His major argument rests on the vital positive contribution the social worker in Africa can make to social research that should precede any development planning.
3. Julius K. Nyerere, "Relevance and Dar es Salaam University," in Freedom and Development; (Oxford University Press, Dar es Salaam, 1973), pp. 192-203. [He stresses the need for "research" appropriate to the socio-economic problems of Tanzania.

[2] This, as pointed out earlier, will be discussed in Chapter V.

1. Social Work Practice Sequence (SWP)

(a) First Year (SWP I)

The course is designed to introduce students to change-strategies involving direct intervention. Building upon the study of social tasks and problems introduced in Social Welfare Policy and Services (SWPS I), the course will cover the following topics.

(1) Human problems and tasks as experienced by the people involved : individuals; families and other small groups; rural communities.

(2) Indigenous patterns of problem-solving with particular reference to Tanzania : mutual aid and cooperation; leadership functions; patterns of organization; resolution of conflict; value applying to ends and means.

(3) The intervention of a change-agent : examples of change-agents from other helping professions, with some analysis of values, assumptions, and strategies that characterize their work.

(4) The social work change-agent : professional values and assumptions and their relevance and/or interpretation to the African cultural values; typical processes of encounter between the social worker and the client system(s).

(5) A typology of change strategies : detailed study of ilustrative change efforts, for example, establishment of objectives, techniques of influence, techniques of interviewing, the "contract" between change-agent and client system(s), stages of the change effort.

(b) Second Year (SWP II)

The objectives of this course, which is a continuation from SWP I, is to help students acquire some knowledge in the analysis of social work change strategies in practice, that is, analysis of intervention patterns and their uses as related to the priority social problems in Tanzania. Students will be assisted to draw general principles from the fieldwork and at the same time, identify variations in, and uniqueness of social work situations. The course will also emphasize on the relationships between change objectives and strategies on one hand, and the wider social, political, and economic context, on the other. Course content will include :

(1) Analysis and comparisons of case material from students' field work.

(2) Comparison of the social work methods in industrialized and developing countries; social development tasks and problems; identification of major variables having implications for the design of change efforts in rural communities.

(3) Evaluation of change efforts : problems and potentials.

(4) "Ujamaa Village" as a model of community-based problem solving socio-economic institution.

(5) The social worker in an inter-disciplinary team of rural development personnel.

(6) Methods of social work intervention as related to the problems of, among others :

Rural development/modernization :

rural housing
agriculture
rural infrastructure
detribalization

Community Health

Malnutrition

Adult education/literacy

(7) Sub-professional functions in socio-economic development : definitions of tasks; supervision and staff development.

(c) Third Year (SWP III)

It is within the objectives of this course to introduce students to the philosophy, principles, and techniques of Social Group Work, Community Organization and Development, and Social Case Work, as basic methods in social work practice.

(1) Social Group Work

The scope of course/subject will encompass an exposition of Social Group Work as a field of practice. Based on the recognition of the group factor as a reality in human growth, the components of the professional social work responsibility in relation to groups are developed. The course also focusses on the advancement of social group work skill as it can be developed through increased understanding of the dynamics of group life.

(2) Community Organization and Development

The course analyses the problem-solving process in community organization and development by which a community identifies its needs and

objectives, finds the resources to deal with them, takes action to implement them and in so doing develops and deepens co-operative and collaborative attitudes and practices in the community. The greatest emphasis is placed on the skills used by the community organization/development worker in this process and their basis in the social work constellation of values, purposes, sanctions, and knowledge.

(3) Social Case Work

This course offers an orientation to the philosophy, principles and concepts of Social Case Work. Emphasis is placed on understanding the individual and the social problems and the consideration of agency services and community resources available for "treatment." Case records are utilized as the media for acquiring an understanding of the knowledge and skills necessary in the casework process. An examination of the casework process in the African/Tanzania context : its implication to some cultural norms, values, and behaviour patterns.

2. Human Behaviour and Social Environment Sequence (HBSE)

The objectives stated herein are intended to guide the selection of knowledge required for a "polyvalent social worker" in Tanzania, and refer to an area of the curriculum content designed to provide the social and behavioural science base. The central premise which guides the selection and development of course content in the three-year study of the HBSE sequence is the need for students to gain an understanding of and skill in assessment concerning "social problems" or "populations at risk."[1]

[1] Henry Maas, "Human Behaviour/Social Environment Courses : Penumbra from the Past, Projections into the Future." Canadian Journal of Social Work Education. Vol. I, 3, 1975, pp. 24-27

This is not to negate the "core" or "foundation subjects" in the area of HBSE - subjects like "Psychology," and "Sociology" which are available from other University Departments. Similarly, students will be required during the last two years of study, to take one of the following courses ($\frac{1}{2}$ course). This is in recognition of the need for the social workers in Tanzania to understand and be able to analyze social problems that are of utmost concern and urgency in the socio-economic development process of the country. These electives would include :

Agricultural Land Reform
Health Education
Principles of Government
(National, Regional, District, Decentralization)
Personnel Management and Human Relations
Labour, Management, and Government in Tanzania

(a) First Year (HBSE I) [1]

This course directs itself to providing knowledge first year students will need to understand and assess the broad and complex factors implicit in social work value orientation which is concerned with the rights of people to satisfaction of their basic needs, to opportunities for achievement of their aspirations and for coping effectively, to fulfiling human interactions, and to a healthy environment.

In this course, a "systems" frame of reference provides the focus for the study of human behaviour and social environment. Several social units or systems are considered : the individual, the family, the kinship group, the village community. These are examined in terms of the structure, function and development of each and the interactions amongst

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[1] The content outlined here is taken with modification from : University of Manitoba, School of Social Work, Self Study Report Prepared for the Board of Accreditation Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work, May, 1973. pp. 112-113.

them. Theories and concepts used to provide an understanding of the social units include : general systems theory, interactional communication theory, concepts concerning stress, coping devices, social functioning with an emphasis on "perception" and "expectations," culture and values.

(b) Second Year (HBSE II) : Sociology for Social Workers [1]

Essential to the understanding of the material developed in this course, is the basic premise that social work to be functional in Tanzania, has to incorporate a working knowledge from particularly tribal and rural sociology. Course content will include :

(1) Sociology and related social Sciences

Social Work
Social Anthropology
Economics
Political Science

(2) A basic Concept in Sociology

The Concept of Social Structure

Forms of Social Structure

Groups
Networks
Social Categories

(3) The concept of family, household, kinship

Empirical studies of family systems in Tanzania/Eastern Africa

Functions of family in Tanzania/Eastern Africa

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[1] This and the following course outline on "sociology for social workers" and "social welfare services and policy," were originally devised for the social work undergraduate programme in Zambia. They have been modified here to reflect particular needs of Tanzania. See, Course Outline : "Sociology for Social Workers," University of Zambia, School of Social Work, November, 1970; and "Courses on Social Welfare Services and Policy," Ibid., (Revised, June, 1972). (Mimegraphed.)

Family and social change in Tanzania/Eastern Africa

(4) Kinship and marriage

Introduction : terms and concepts
Empirical studies of Kinship systems in Tanzania/ Eastern Africa
Comparative study of Kinship
Role of Kinship in the field of economic, political, and social welfare activities

(5) Social stratification

Concept of class, status, and caste
Open and closed societies
Social mobility
Traditional and industrialized societies : a comparative study

(6) Social Change

Contrast between village and town :
family organization
religion
economy
political institutions
Reasons for migration of primary school-leavers from rural to urban and semi-urban areas
Stresses of urban society, with a note on deviant behaviour

(c) Third Year (HBSE III) : Sociology for Social Workers

This course is based on the knowledge of HBSE II. Its objective is to provide the students with a more in-depth study of sociology as it is relevant to social work practice. The core content of the course will include :

(1) Theories of Social Change : Cohesion and Conflict

(2) Social Control and Deviant Behaviour in rural and urban Communities

(3) Applications of Sociology to Social Problems in Tanzania/Eastern Africa

3. Social Welfare Services and Policy Sequence (SWSP)

(a) First Year (SWSP I)

It is within the objectives of this course to provide a social work focus for the understanding of the other courses in the first year, as well as an understanding of the social problems facing modern Tanzania/ Eastern Africa and some of the measures to meet them. The course content will include :

(1) Definition of need and problems

(2) Ways of identifying such needs and problems

(3) Patterns of response in Tanzania/Eastern African society

Diagnosis : Dimensions
Causes
Interrelatedness of the problem elements and to other problems

Design : Determine objectives
Design a response
Advantages and disadvantages of various settings, for example, government versus voluntary

Operation : The existing services of Tanzania to meet the problems
Statuses related to these
Questions to be asked of such services
Structure of services

Evaluation: Relevance of the services to modern Tanzania
How to assess a programme

(4) History of Welfare and Social Work

United Kingdom's influence upon social welfare services, programmes, and policy to Tanzania/Eastern Africa

History of social welfare in Tanzania (traditional and modern)

(5) Purpose of social work in Tanzania

(b) Second Year (SWSP II)

This course is a continuation of SWSP I, and it focuses upon policy analysis. The objectives include :

(1) To present to students typical strategies of policy development and methods of analyzing alternative policy options.

(2) To develop skills in analyzing the social factors which lead to policy development and in examination of the social consequences of policy.

(3) To study methods and techniques of influencing policy developments, with special emphasis upon democratic and consensual approaches to policy making in Tanzania.

The content of this course will mainly follow this outline :

(1) Social pressures at the group, community and national level and their effect upon the engenderment of social policy.

(2) Stages in social policy formulation : social policy as a problem-solving process.

(3) The role of the professional social worker in policy analysis and innovation.

(4) Consensual studies and democratic processes of policy development.

(5) The impact of industrialization and urbanization upon policy formulation in Tanzania/Eastern Africa.

(6) Development of long range policy goals and of long range implementation procedures; Tanzania's socialism as a social philosophy and its relationship to the Five Year Plan for Social and Economic Development.

(c) Third Year (SWSP III)

The objectives of this course include, among others the following:

(1) To explore the relationships between the process of policy formulation and social welfare administration; to learn how policy and administrative necessity mutually influence each other.

(2) To examine and develop assessment technique permitting of evaluation the administrative consequence of a policy decision.

(3) To develop skill and gain experience in administrative problem-solving and in evaluating formal and informal group consequences of administrative decision-making.

(4) To gain familiarity with methods of staff evaluation.

The content of the course will cover :

(1) Formal and informal organization patterns in social agencies.

(2) Role formation and role interrelationships within an organization.

(3) Interorganizational linkage and the effects of social pressures upon formal organizations.

(4) Policy formulation within an administrative context.

(5) Technique of social agency budgeting and fiscal management.

(6) Personnel and performance assessment methods.
Potentiating staff capabilities as an administrative and policy agenda.

(7) Programme analysis and the utilization of limited manpower and fiscal resources.

(8) Special problems in rural agency policy formation and administration.

4. Social (Work) Research Sequence (SWR)

It would be expected that in the second year of the programme, aspects of social (work) research would be introduced so that students become familiar with the appropriate use of statistical material, with specific pieces of social (work) research bearing on the subjects they are studying and have studied in the first year of the programme, and with ways in which in the social field scientific hypotheses are formulated, tested, validated or disproved. In their social work practice courses and in their field work they will have constantly to bear in mind possibilities of multiple causation, differential diagnosis and the principle of "economy of hypothesis."[1] The aim will be that they shall come to regard scientific enquiry and research as necessary to the clarification of social problems, to identification and study of causes and their effects, to discovery of means to alleviation, to what is involved in applying such measures and to evaluating the results.

(a) Social Work Research : Introduction

Students will examine the history, concept, principles, methods and skills in social research.

The scientific method and the scientific attitudes; social surveys.

The experimental design and its application in social diagnosis.

Academic oriented research versus action oriented research : Illustration of both.

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[1] For a discussion about the principle of "economy of hypothesis," see Egbert de Vries, Essays on the Economic Development of Africa, (Mouton & Co. N.V., Publishers, The Hague, 1968), pp. 11-45.

(b) Social Work Research : Methods

This is essentially a continuation of the second year research course. It will focus on the practical application of theories on scientific social research methods. Emphasis will be put on acquiring practical skills both in class and in the field. Individual or group practice in developing "viable research" proposals, analyzing specific problems in social work and carrying through library and/or field research projects.

C. Summary

It is the contention of the writer that the curriculum designed above offers and represents a fair balance between the demands imposed upon the undergraduate social work programme in Tanzania by the Tanzanian society (more specifically the Party) on one hand, and the social work professional culture[1] on the other. The curriculum content has given priority to issues of national concern while at the same time emphasizing the technical nature of social work tasks and a devotion to client(s)' interests and well-being.

In developing this curriculum, the writer has been guided by, among other things, the following factors : Social workers in Eastern Africa - Tanzania in particular - are going to prescribe on major policy issues, under conditions of uncertainty, handicapped by inadequate data

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[1] For a discussion about "professional culture," see:
G. Benveniste and W. F. Ilchman, Professionals in Developing Countries, (University of California, Berkley, 1968).

and resources, and forced to deal with complex, interrelated issues of socio-economic development of, particularly, the rural sector of the population which, in most cases is oblivious of its own under-development and apathetic towards the transformation of its life styles and setting.

CHAPTER V

FIELD INSTRUCTION

1. Introduction

It is difficult to distinguish the subject matter outlined in the preceding chapter on background and methods subjects from that which should be studied and applied in the field work. Ideally the whole teaching is one process with two aspects. In the school or classroom the primary emphasis is on knowledge and ways of thinking, and in the field work agency on development of skill and ways of doing through applying knowledge and understanding by the orderly working methods learnt in the classroom discussions. It is important in saying this not to create a false dichotomy, when in fact some knowledge is more readily absorbed in the field work, and ways of thinking certainly become more vivid there; while at the same time in the school skill and operational methods will be discussed for application in practice.

It is because knowledge about people and the social welfare provision available or necessary to meet their need can be transmuted into skill only through actual practice that systematic field teaching or instruction is essential in social work education. Most of the subject matter already discussed in the preceding chapter must be taught and used by students in concurrent or block field work placements as an indispensable part of the process of developing knowledge, understanding, and the use of

social work skill.

In what follows, the content and planning of field instruction or field work practice will be described in terms of what is desirable, followed by a discussion of problems which face social work educational institutions in the Region and agencies in meeting these demands. It will be assumed all through this chapter that field teaching will include much of the content outlined in the previous chapter.

2. Purposes and Goals of Field Instruction [1]

As pointed out earlier (Chapter II), the goals and purposes of field instruction in the programme under review has grown out of and is related to the goals of the curriculum of which it is a part. It is important to be clear, however, about the specific goals or aims of field instruction in the curriculum discussed in the preceding chapter. These specific goals or aims, according to social work educational programmes in Eastern Africa, are well summarized in the following manner :

(1) to enable students to apply, in real life situations but under the careful guidance of an experienced supervisor and in the controlled setting of a social work agency, some of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired in the classroom;

(2) to enable the school to evaluate the student's ability to perform, grow and develop as a professional person and, at the same time to evaluate the school's educational programme; and

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[1] For a basic, general, descriptive purpose of field instruction, see: Bernice K. Simon, "Field Instruction As Education for Practice : Purposes and Goals," Undergraduate Field Instruction Programme : Current Issues and Predictions, Kristen Wenzel, (ed.), (Council On Social Work Education, Inc., New York, 1972), pp. 64-66.

(3) to serve as a channel of information in feeding back to the school the changing needs of the field which can then be meaningfully incorporated in the social work educational programme. Conversely, new developments in social work theory and practice may fruitfully and meaningfully be transmitted to social welfare agencies through close school-agency cooperation.[1]

These goals are salient in the academic subject matter of field instruction courses in all the three years of the study programme as well as in the actual organization of the field practice itself. It is the writer's proposal that the course outline below which also reflects the organization of field work practice and placements meet the overall objectives of the curriculum designed for the programme in Tanzania.

(a) First Year : Field Instruction (FI I)

Course Objectives

(1) To help beginning social work students gain some understanding of the existence, extent and implications of needs and social (human) problems in Tanzania.

(2) To introduce them to community (society) efforts in meeting these needs and problems.

(3) To help students identify and understand (through field work/personal/direct experience) the role of social work and hence the individual social work practitioner in dealing with and responding to human needs and problems.

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[1] Makerere University College, Department of Social Work and Social Administration, Manual On Supervision in Social Work, (Milton Obote Foundation, Adult Education Centre, Kampala, Uganda, 1969), p. 56.

(4) To help students begin to develop some basic social work skills.

Course Organization

Students will work in groups of six to ten members. Each group will study a selected problem (for example, housing, unemployed primary school leavers in urban areas, malnutrition), the services available in the towns related to the problem, and the methods of social work intervention in the problem.

Course Content

(1) Understanding the selected problem :

Core elements

Incidence
Antecedent and concomitant conditions
Consequences, social and individual

Variations

Generalisations and conceptualization of core elements and Variations.

(2) Understanding the people affected by the problem :

Their perceptions and feelings about the problem.

Their evaluation of community efforts at solving the problem.

The place of the family unit in the problem, and its role in problem-solving.

(3) Intervention :

Patterns of intervention relevant to the problem.

Practice in work with agency and community resources and the people involved, in tackling the selected problem.

(4) Reporting and report writing : Principles, methods and value of report-writing in social work.

Report for group discussions
Summary reports at the end of the term -
directed at pulling together observations
about the problem, and then moving into
the area of formulating questions and ideas
about implications for interventive programmes.

(b) Second Year : Field Instruction (FI II)

Course Objectives

The objectives of the course is to provide a practical experience whereby the students, in small groups, can identify a social problem felt by a group of people and together with the client (the group with the problem) and work out a solution to the problem. The client group should be small enough, and the problem such, that a solution can be expected to be achieved within the academic year.

The students will have an opportunity to apply scientific and professional knowledge to a real situation, and learn from it.

The processes that the students are expected to learn to use are as follows :

(1) Definition of the problem and identify an appropriate task related to a specific group of people.

(2) Development of a plan to carry out the identified task.

(3) Carrying out the plan; and

(4) Establishment of criteria of success, and to evaluate results.

It is worthy to note that considerable emphasis is placed upon work with groups. Many problems which students will face upon graduation will occur in the form of small group contacts, and practice in analyzing problems in group contexts is very important for students. Typically,

these problems involve difficulties in group's identification of the problems, in group coordination and cooperation, in helping the group determine its goals, and in stimulating leadership within the group.

(c) Third Year : Field Instruction (FI III)

This course offers an in-depth experience in providing direct service to clients - individual, group, and community. The purpose of such field work is to :

(1) enable the students to experience the reality of social work practice;

(2) give an opportunity for the application of theory to practice and vice versa;

(3) develop social work skills;

(4) experience the reality of working within existing structures; and

(5) discover students' own strengths and weaknesses as potential social workers.

This course, as is explicit in its organization and content, is offered in conjunction with a block field work placement over a period of months at a time. Where feasible the student will serve to strengthen and/or develop "agencies of national development," such as village productivity committees. This means that the student is involved from the start in achieving the organizational sub-structure described in Tanzania's Five Year Plan for Social and Economic Development. Case records studied in class derive from these committee activities, and behavioural science information which is assimilated at a theoretical level is applied in

the actual work with local level groups.

3. The Organization of Field Practice [1]

In Eastern Africa - particularly in Tanzania - at the present time, it would seem most practicable that field practice be of block nature : between two, three, and four months in length in the first, second and third year, respectively. Further consideration could be given to the comparative advantages of having three placements of three months each yearly.

Because of the work pressure upon agencies as well as the lack of sufficient, well and/or professionally trained and experienced social workers in the country, it is not reasonable to expect the placement office or agency to carry the full "teacher-supervisor" load although the agency supervisor has a very important part to play in teaching the policies and procedures of the agency.

The alternative to the block plan is that of concurrent class instruction and field practice whereby students attend classes part of the week and spend the remainder of the week in field work in an agency.

Such a plan has certain advantages under certain special circumstances. It permits a closer and more early integration of theory and practice. But it places heavy demands on the placement agency and carries as well certain disadvantages for students in that agencies find

[1] Most of what is discussed here is well documented in the following: Diploma Course In Social Welfare : Purposes - General and Specific, (Dar es Salaam, 26th August, 1972). (Mimeographed).
University of Zambia, Oppenheimer Department of Social Service, Guide To the Content of Fieldwork : Working Paper for Workshop in Fieldwork (Lusaka, November 25-27, 1968). (Mimeographed.)

it difficult to find "cases" in which the teaching value can be used because the student may not be present when the client needs service. Moreover, under the concurrent plan, placements at some distance from the teaching centre cannot be used. It is desirable that a variety of types of field experience should be available. Many of these should and must be in rural communities where the social worker's professional help is most needed in bringing about major socio-economic transformation of the lives of the rural population; while others should be in existing "Ujamaa Villages" in which students will work along with village productivity committees (if they are already established), or they will have to serve to develop such sub-structures.

Also, until a group of supervisors can be developed who have themselves had full and formal professional training and who understand the nature and purpose of field teaching or field instruction, and how it differs from regular administrative supervision, they cannot be expected to be able to do it in ways which will produce the optimum educational result.

Therefore, it will be necessary, particularly during the first few years in which the undergraduate programme is given, for the faculty staff members from the school to be directly involved in field teaching. This will require careful planning, and the grouping of several students in a particular geographic area, so that a teacher can work with them in seminar groups, helping them to analyze what they are doing, and relating it to course content.

It is also extremely desirable that all the students be brought back to the school at the end of the year for a period of two or three weeks, so that they can discuss their field experience with each other and with the staff, and identify clearly what they have learned.

4. Summary

Social Work, like other helping professions, has a commitment to informed, disciplined action in the interests of those it serves. Fieldwork has a vital and distinctive contribution to make to the student's development of his capacity for professional action. Thus, the above "fieldwork model" has been developed with two central goals in mind : to provide the student with a range of learning experience that, hopefully, will help him become increasingly able to take responsible action in his work with a wide range of client systems. It is in the attainment of this twin capacity - to take action and to learn from it - the writer believes, that the student will find a base for his professional work in "front-line" situations where there may be little assistance from fieldwork supervisors and/or collegues.

CONCLUSION

This study has constituted an initial attempt at developing an undergraduate social work educational/training programme for Eastern African countries with a particular focus on Tanzania. It is quite possible that the approach taken in the study has endangered balance. Blind spots may have resulted from the inability to study all aspects of undergraduate social work education in the Region. Priority was given to the delineation of socio-economic problems in Eastern Africa and the construction of an experimental social work educational model to deal with such problems.

De Jongh has suggested that the problems in training social workers in developing nations need to be resolved within the national context of each country even though this will require disciplined rethinking of social work educational objectives and methods. He believes that solutions can be found only in the countries concerned and the only help from outside must be built on deeper insights into the basic social philosophies, problems, and trends in those countries.[1]

All of this is consistent with the approach taken in this study. Although not, perhaps, proceeding to the depth and extent wanted by De Jongh, particularly with respect to social philosophies, a start is here made in viewing Eastern African countries as settings in which

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[1]Jan F. De Jongh, "Western Social Work and the Afro-Asian World," Social Service Review, March 1969, March 1969, pp. 50-58.

social welfare and social work education find their roots. The need met first in the study has been to find a way to identify some of the distinguishing influences in the Region (with particular reference to Tanzania) that shape the form of their social welfare service, determine goals in the training of their social workers, and sketch out the educational model that might be used in conformity with the stated national goals.

Implied throughout the study has been the "developmental" component of social work education in the Region and an emphasis on the social work educator's particular responsibility in relation to the curriculum. He cannot address only to the challenge posed by the new. He is bound by the reality that the undergraduate social work student in Eastern Africa has to master enough of the available knowledge during his training in class and field to be able to meet the needs of the society at large and the rural communities in particular. As social work knowledge that has particular value and relevance to the African socio-economic conditions and aspirations increases, the instructor will find it increasingly difficult to cover even the core content in the time allotted (three years in most of the Region's schools of social work). He will have to decide whether the inclusion of new material may crowd out established substantive content necessary for practice competence. But he will also have to recognize that if the undergraduate social work practitioner in the Region is to achieve status in the social work community, as has been insisted upon in this study, social work education must ob-

viously do more than turn out a social work artisan.

One of the ways to ensure the graduation of a professional social worker at the end of the three year period is to expose the student continuously to the impact of the fact that social work philosophy, theory, and method are part of an open system of knowledge subject to continuous artistic and scientific exploration, and that only by exploration of the system are knowledge and skill increased.[1] It is the opinion of the writer that this study has consistently emphasized the importance of an exploratory mind and attitude so as to widen the scope of social work practice in Eastern Africa in order to face the challenge of rural apathy and stagnation.

Also implied throughout the study has been its ultimate aim : to precipitate a discussion and reappraisal of social work training and to set out for the use of schools of social work in Eastern Africa the range of subject-matter and the training or educational model considered desirable and most appropriate at the present stage of the Region's socio-economic and political realities. The writer hopes that social work educators in the Region, administrators, class and field instructors, agency supervisors, practitioners and students will bring to that discussion and appraisal all that they know about existing programmes in the Region - their strengths as well as their weaknesses. For those who accept the premises and "models" set forth in this study, the writer

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[1] Virginia S. Bellesmith, "New Frontiers in the Teaching of Social Casework," in Ego-Oriented Casework : Problems and Perspectives, Howard J. Pallard and Roger R. Miller, (ed.), (FSA of America, New York, 10, 1963), pp. 359-372.

hopes that the study has provided an additional way of looking at undergraduate social work educational programmes in Eastern Africa. This contribution, the writer feels, is of a practical value at the present time of the Region's rapid changing role of the social work profession. It may as well be worthwhile to remember Manis' counsel: Those who choose to reappraise end up with either new questions about their programmes or renewed confirmation of their prevailing practices. Either way they are strengthened.[1]

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[1]Francis Manis, Field Practice In Social Work Education, (Sultana Press, Fullerton, California, 1972.

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