

INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

An exploration and an assessment of the practice of social
work in industry in South Africa

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ABSTRACT

Industries in South Africa have been employing social workers in increasing numbers during the last decade, and in several of the bigger industries social work seem to have succeeded in establishing itself over the course of time.

Certain forces seem to be operating in both industry and social work which could facilitate the introduction and development of industrial social work as a specialised field of practice in South Africa. Very significant variables in this regard are a rapidly changing labour force, and certain socio-political developments in South Africa, that took place especially during the last decade, and in particular during the past two years.

A lack of knowledge about the practice of social work in industry exists in South Africa, mainly as a result of a general lack of empirical research into this field. The main purpose of this research project was to add to the knowledge about the nature of industrial social work practice in South Africa, and to contribute to an understanding of the forces influencing its development.

In order to achieve this overall purpose, an extensive review of the existing literature was done with the aim of identifying and describing the present trends and issues in industrial social work thinking. This was combined with an empirical investigation into the practice of social workers presently employed in industry in South Africa. In addition to this, the attitude of industries not employing social workers was established with a view of

determining factors influencing the further development of industrial social work. A third component of the empirical investigation consisted of a survey of the attitudes and knowledge of community welfare organisations regarding industrial social work practice. This was done in an effort to establish the amount of support for industrial social work from the rest of the profession.

The findings of the empirical investigation indicated an emphasis on the individual employee as far as the practice of industrial social work is concerned - an EAP model thus. Industries not employing social workers still seem to need more education as far as the true nature of social work practice is concerned, and there seem to be a reserved acceptance of industrial social work practice amongst community welfare organisations, as well as a lack of knowledge.

In conclusion it can be stated that the social work fraternity in South Africa should take more serious notice of occupational social work practice in South Africa in general, and of industrial social work practice in particular, mainly because of its importance to the worker.

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SECTION A: INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

To work is one of man's most basic activities. The working person spends an average of 8 hours per day for approximately 40 years of his life in the workplace. Work thus plays a crucial role in his life and in that of his family. It gives meaning to life and satisfies much more than merely financial needs. It can be the cause of great joy, but at the same time it can be the root of many ills. When maladjustment in work occurs, one of the crucial areas of man's social functioning is affected. This is evidenced by the destructive effects of unemployment on the individual and his family.

Industrial social work is acknowledged as one of the areas of specialised social work practice. In spite of this, little cognizance seems to be taken of this field of practice in South Africa by the rest of the profession. Evidence of this is revealed by the dearth of articles on the topic in South African social work journals over the past decade. It is also not a topic of discussion, formally or informally, when social workers meet for professional purposes. Universities, for the most part, do not give much attention to this topic in their training programmes, apart from allocating a few lectures to the topic at the undergraduate level. Only two universities offer courses on industrial social work at the post-graduate level.

The reasons for this can be manifold. Ignorance about this kind of social work cannot be ruled out. Another reason could be that social workers do not identify industrial social work as social work. The root of the problem might be found amongst industrial social workers themselves should they be

responsible for their own isolation. This could be a real problem if not enough is done to link this field of practice with the rest of the profession, in which case fragmentation would become a real danger.

There has been a marked increase in companies appointing social workers over the past decade with the result that this practice area has developed in response to some of the needs of industry. It seems that social work has found its way into the workplace in South Africa and has established itself in a small number of industries alongside other professions. Social work has enjoyed recognition for quite a number of years in well-known companies like ESKOM, SASOL, and ISCOR, to name a few. Other companies introduced social work services some time ago, but the abovementioned three can be regarded as pioneers in the process of development of industrial social work in South Africa. The Chamber of Mines also launched a large Employee Assistance Programme in its member mines. It is multidisciplinary in nature and social work plays a key role in the programme.

Social workers are also employed by industry in other capacities, and they are apparently sought after candidates for positions in the human resource and industrial relations fields. This does not do much for the identity of the profession from an industrial social work point of view. It does, however, provide industry with the opportunity to appraise the skills of the social worker.

In spite of these developments, this field of practice in South Africa has not been researched thoroughly. The first pioneering study was completed in 1968 (Botha, 1968) and one on the same level during 1990 (Killian, 1990). Three further masters degree studies were completed in the past decade (Schoeman, 1975; Alheit, 1970; Lombard, 1977) one of which was not directly

related to industrial social work. It was with social work in a secondary setting, but not in profit-making organisations. Only five overseas theses on the topic, of which three were submitted in the past twelve years, could be traced. These were all American, and the researcher could not locate research done on social work in industry in any other part of the world. A problem in this regard is that quite a lot of literature of European origin will not be in English.

Numerous articles on industrial social work, also mostly of American origin, have been published in the past decade (Akabas and Kurzman, 1982; Akabas and Akabas, 1982; Bakalinsky, 1980; Dane and Simon, 1991; Googins, 1987). These stimulated further interest in this field of social work practice. A major development was the publication of three textbooks on industrial social work since 1982 (Feinstein and Brown, 1982; Googins and Godfrey, 1987; Gould and Smith, 1988), which contributed to the systematisation of knowledge in this field. These books were also all American, which leaves one with the impression that the Americans are leaders in the field.

At the time of Botha's study, industrial social work was relatively unknown in South Africa, but it is better known at present as result of an increased interest in the topic. A research project on Employee Assistance Programmes was completed during the past two years (Terblanche, 1988), and other researchers are presently researching industrial social work. These projects should clarify many of the issues related to this field of practice. A general lack of systematised knowledge on the practice of social work in profit and non-profit-making organisations nevertheless exists in South Africa. This could result in stagnation in the development of this field of practice. It also has implications for the training of social work students for careers in industry, because only competent and well-trained social

workers will be respected there.

It is reasonable to assume that certain developments in both social work and industry must have taken place since the first study by Botha, and that the climate for the practice of human services in industry has changed from what it was 20 years ago. New theoretical developments have taken place in social work and other industry-related disciplines like industrial psychology, industrial sociology, organisational psychology, manpower management and industrial relations. These developments have changed industry's attitude towards the needs of the employee, and helped to create a new climate in which it is possible for social work to play a more active role in the workplace. Data is presently needed to determine the rate and direction of development of social work in industry and the role it can play in this field of practice, as well as the prevailing attitude towards social work in industrial settings. It must furthermore be established what the attitudes towards industrial social work in the rest of the field of social work are. This should assist towards making an assessment of the situation of social work in one of man's most important spheres of life.

The researcher also holds the assumption that there are forces operating in industry and in social work which could facilitate the development of social work in industry, and that these forces should be identified.

From the field of social work the following variables emerge:

(i) Social work is concerned with the meeting of human needs, regardless of the setting. This necessitates social work moving into the workplace to meet the human needs associated with the work role, something which is also echoed by Jorgensen when she states that "... there appears to be a vast opportunity

for social work practice in the world of the employed" (Gilbert and Specht, 1981:337).

(ii) The same author (1981:337) states that the traditional lack of social work to pay attention to the employed client, has deprived many working class families of a wide range of social services. Many referrals to social work agencies are connected to work-related problems affecting whole families and causing social workers to consider the work role of the person affected. The experience of the client in the work place has assessment value in social treatment, it must be regarded as an important tool in assessment. This necessitates that social workers familiarise themselves with the work place. Jorgensen has the following view about this:

"Within the world of work are untold numbers who experience family discord, problems with aged parents - they work and suffer in silence. Within the world of work are others who, because of alcoholism, chronic physical illness, or a nervous disorder, are dangerously close to losing their jobs or who have already tumbled out of the workforce. Many of these could be helped by a social service system more accessible to and suitable for working men and women". (1979:18)

(iii) Another source of support for industrial social work is social work's growing concern with the total life cycle of the individual, which developed as a result of the incorporation of the Life Model (Germain and Gitterman, 1980) of social work. This has resulted in an increased interest of the individual's interaction with various systems in his environment, including the workplace.

(iv) Social work is knowledgeable about the community and its many welfare resources which could be utilized by industry to solve some of the problems of their employees. The social worker has on hand a wealth of information about those resources and referral systems which are available in social

welfare institutions within a given welfare community or the whole nation.

(v) More social work jobs became available in industry over the last decade than ever before. This stimulated the interest of social workers in this new field, to which they are attracted by higher salaries, and opportunities to render service to a kind of client in a kind of setting not provided for by the traditional social welfare agency. It is assumed that industry will attract the kind of person believing that the worker can be served best within the work environment.

Other forces enhancing the development of social work practice in industry operate within industry. Several examples of such forces, identified from the literature, are listed and discussed below.

Feinstein and Brown (1982:3-7) talk of a new partnership between human services, business and industry and identify changes in the workforce, difficulties in work roles, alcoholic job holders, and collective bargaining and government prescriptions as factors leading to such developments.

(i) The changing character of the work force in South Africa and elsewhere has caused changing needs to be reflected in the place of work. Ozawa (1980) mentions the problem of the rapid increase of women in the labour force, which may create stress for families adjusting or struggling to adjust to this new role of women. Such stress may create a situation in which the workers bring their family problems to the workplace, or take home problems arising from work. Shift work for instance may take both parents out of the home at the same time, placing additional strain on the caring resources in the community.

(ii) Another problem affecting the worker as well as the organisation is one of work alienation, and this may cause job dissatisfaction and mental health problems. Through its interpersonal means of help, social work can render an important contribution in combatting these problems.

(iii) Workers' expectations have changed. Workers are no longer satisfied merely to be economic tools in the production of goods and services. They want to be treated as human beings who have hopes, aspirations, anxieties and fears. They also want challenges and growth through work. They want their employers to pay more attention to the emotional aspects of organizational life, and to strive and create an atmosphere at the work place that expresses warmth, encourages openness amongst people, and builds the self-esteem of workers. Feinstein and Brown (1982:3) stress that employees expect personal fulfillment on the job. Work is seen as a source of self-respect, and an increased concern is expressed for individual rights and power associated with employment.

(iv) Developments in the human, social and management sciences brought an improved understanding of human needs in the workplace, and the interaction between man and the organisation. These developments have helped to underscore the importance of human relations in management, making management more responsive to the needs of the worker.

(v) To an increasing extent, management in South Africa will have to support social services in the workplace, because both management and the trade unions want to keep the workforce satisfied. Again, this is echoed by Jorgensen (Gilbert and Specht, 1981:337):

"Today's leaders in business and industry need skilled professionals to guide them in humanizing work for improved efficiency... Management is now coming to realize the problems of humanizing work content, which must be solved in order that social needs as well as industrial needs are met."

The field of organisational behaviour holds much promise as far as the simultaneous meeting of organisational and individual needs are concerned.

(vi) The increasing interest in employee assistance programmes by industry particularly during the past few years also serves as a force making it easier for social work to fulfill a role in industry. The reasons are that the values of EAP's and social work are similar in many respects, and they share the same goals. Social workers can play a significant role as organisers and co-ordinators of employee assistance programmes. Managers have changed their attitudes to employees with personal problems. Desired results are not always achieved through disciplinary action in response to performance problems of employees. It is often simply good business to pay attention to the personal and family problems of employees instead of terminating employment.

Feinstein and Brown (1982:3-7) refer to difficulties in work roles which are as follows:

- Accidents on the job, and job-related illness and disabilities that are on the increase;
- Reduced productivity results from rising absenteeism;
- On the job conflict is more overt and authority is more often challenged;
- Health care costs for the company and individuals are rising;
- Various forms of institutional racism, sexism, and other prejudices are found;
- Updating and retraining is required to meet job specifications.

It is obvious that the above will be a problem to many managers, and that they would rather be without such problems.

(vii) Most of what has been identified above, is also true for South Africa. South African managers would have been affected by what is happening on the management scene in the rest of the world. The new labour legislation, international pressure by means of sanctions and disinvestment, and the action of the trade unions all helped to create a new sense of social responsibility in industry in South Africa. As a result of that, the type of climate in which social work in industry can develop and grow have been created in South Africa. Certain conditions would thus seem to be favourable for the establishment and development of social work practice in industry, and it has become necessary to determine the future of social work in industry, and the potential role it can play. In this regard, there are three main potential auspices for industrial social work. These auspices are management, trade unions and welfare organisations. The majority of social workers are at present employed by management. One trade union, as far as could be established, employs social workers, and some welfare organisations also render services within an EAP framework. The attitudes of these three important institutions towards social work in industry will partly determine the rate of its development.

2. OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH.

- (i) To determine the role social work plays in industry;
- (ii) To identify from the literature, the main trends and tendencies as far as the practice of industrial social work is concerned, with a view of using this to make an appraisal of the nature of the

practice of social workers in industry in South Africa;

- (iii) To describe the nature of industrial social work practice in South Africa;
- (iv) To establish the attitude of industries not employing social workers to industrial social work, in order to determine the potential for further development of practice;
- (v) To ascertain the degree of support industrial social workers are receiving from their peers in the field by establishing the attitude of welfare organisations towards and involvement in industrial social work;
- (vi) To establish the attitude of trade unions towards the rendering of industrial social work services.

3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This research project can be described as exploratory-descriptive, which is an appropriate design, considering the lack of research in industrial social work.

The goals of the research were achieved firstly by doing an extensive literature review of industrial social work and related literature. Valuable insights were gained from a study of literature from related disciplines like industrial and organisational psychology, organisational behaviour, industrial sociology, organisation theory, management and manpower management.

The second part of the study consisted of the empirical study. Three populations were involved, i.e. social workers employed by industry, industries not employing social workers, and registered welfare organisations. Data was collected from these three populations by means of questionnaires. Data on the nature of their practice were gathered from social workers employed by industry. Data on their attitudes and knowledge regarding industrial social work were gathered from registered welfare organisations and industries not employing social workers. The data were processed by computer with the assistance of a statistician. The initial plan was also to include trade unions, but due to a weak response to efforts to secure the relevant data from these bodies, this part of the project had to be abandoned. Information gained from personal interviews with local trade union officials did not elicit sufficient data, and could not be included in this study.

4. PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED WITH THE PROJECT

Literature on industrial social work is not as plentiful as one might expect. Although a considerable amount has been published in the past decade, compared with earlier periods, it does not contribute much to the development of models of industrial social work. A large number of publications report on specific projects, or particular issues, but seldom contribute significantly to the development of an integrated body of industrial social work knowledge. Most of the relevant literature is of American origin. It was almost impossible to trace European or British literature, which forced the researcher to rely on American literature

Another related problem was the fact that it was difficult to obtain some overseas material. The researcher had to do without this material. Most of

the published material is available in South Africa, however.

The particular way in which the samples were drawn, could have affected the data.

Another problem encountered was the reluctance of trade unions to provide data regarded as necessary for the project. The result was that some of the objectives of the research had to be abandoned, which is regarded by the researcher as unfortunate, because trade unions are important role players in industry, especially as far as the interest of the worker is concerned. Several reasons for the reluctance of trade unions to participate in the research could be advanced. One could be that they do not see social work as capable of contributing effectively to their goals, as a result of a lack of understanding of the role social work can play in this regard. Another reason is that they mistrust social workers because they are still regarded as "handmaidens" of management. This state of affairs may be compounded by a negative approach to research in general, especially if they cannot see how they will benefit by participation. Jorgensen (1979:45) makes the interesting point that "some social workers - as union members - have been active in and around the labor movement more as prophets and poets than as practitioners".

5. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Registered welfare organisation

A welfare organisation registered in terms of the National Welfare Act, 1978.

Occupational social work

That field of practice of social work more specifically associated with the person as a worker, or the person in the place of work. It can be regarded as a term wider in application than industrial social work, because it encompasses all employing organisations. For the purposes of this study, the author accepts the following definition of occupational social work:

"Occupational social work is that field of practice in which social workers attend to the human and social needs of employees in the work milieu by designing and executing appropriate interventions to ensure healthier individuals, and environments."
(Googins and Godfrey, 1985:398)

This definition is appropriate for the approach used by the researcher.

Industrial social work

The term industrial social work is often used interchangeably with occupational social work. For the purposes of this study, however, it should be viewed in a narrower, more specific context than occupational social work. Industrial social work is to be understood as occupational social work practiced in employing organisations in the private sector, selling a product or service for profit. It thus excludes social work in state departments like the South African Police or the South African Defence Force.

Industrial social worker

A registered social worker employed in a professional capacity in industrial settings.

Social work unit

That unit or section in the organisation where the social worker is located and that is responsible for the rendering of social work services to the organisation and its members or employees. It can consist of one or more staff members, all of whom do not have to be social workers.

6. ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The dissertation consists of fifteen chapters, divided into four sections. Section A consists only of the present introductory chapter. Section B includes chapter 2, used to contextualise industrial social work practice within its broader, mainly labour environment. Chapter 3 describes the formal organisation as the environment of industrial social work and the nature of work. The first section of this chapter is used to place industrial social work in its organisational context. It also describes work as the activity of central concern to the industrial social worker.

Chapter 4 describes the process of entry of social work into industry. The main objective of this chapter is to point out the crucial processes and tasks involved in introducing and establishing social work in the host setting of industry. The importance of doing this systematically and gradually is stressed.

Chapter 5 describes the development of a referral system in industry in order to bring the troubled employees in contact with industrial social work services.

Chapter 6 looks at industrial social work on the individual and family level.

The conclusion is drawn that the EAP model is appropriate for this purpose, and that the use of time-limited modalities seems to be appropriate for use in industry.

The next chapter is used to explore and describe organisational intervention methods that can be used by the social worker. Organisational development (OD) is explored as an instrument to achieve organisational change goals, as well as organisational services that can be rendered.

This is followed by chapter 8 on social responsibility as a way of achieving community organisation and development goals in the outside community.

Chapter 9 contains a description of the most common issues affecting the development of industrial social work in South Africa.

Section B has a predominant descriptive character as it seeks to describe the main features of the practice of social work in industry as it is found in the literature on the topic.

Section C includes the empirical section. Chapter 10 gives a detailed account of the methodology of the research, and chapters 11, 12 and 13 are used to present and analyse the research data.

Section D includes chapter 14 in which discussion of the findings is found, and chapter 15, used for the conclusions and recommendations. This is followed by the bibliography and the appendices.

SECTION B: LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 2

THE CONTEXT FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE IN SOUTH AFRICA

A description of the organisational environment of industrial social work is given in the next chapter, especially in view of the fact that social work in industry represents the practice of social work in a host setting. The organisational environment is the most immediate environment in which social work must survive, and it is essential for the industrial social worker to understand this milieu.

There is, however, a broader context to be considered. This macro-environment will influence industrial social work in various ways, and will to a large extent determine the role and function of social work in the industrial arena, as well as the industrial social worker's focus.

The first setting to be considered is the industrial and labour field. Any developments affecting these settings will affect all professional activities within it, including that of social work. South Africa, especially over the last four decades, has been characterized by certain socio-political developments which have had far reaching effects on the total population, but in particular on the labour field and industrial relations.

The second aspect to be considered is the general field of social work practice. Social work in industry remains a specialised field of social work practice and cannot be separated from the rest of the profession. Any developments and changes in social work will inevitably affect each field of practice, and prevailing attitudes amongst social work practitioners about the role and function of social work in society will also exert an influence

on social work in industry.

The occupational welfare structure is the third aspect to be considered, because it is a welfare system crucial for the practice of social work in industry.

1. SOCIO-POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

When socio-political developments in South Africa are considered, it is not so much the process that is significant, but the effects of this process. South Africa is presently going through a transitional stage while apartheid is being dismantled. Apartheid as a policy has never been stable, and has been characterised by refinements and adjustments all the time, and reached its peak during the sixties. Erosion, however, started setting in about two decades ago, with all apartheid laws recently having been repealed. The heritage of apartheid, however, will take some time to disappear. This means that it will take the South African community a while to rid itself of the effects of the ideology of apartheid. It must also be accepted that forces are present that would like to keep it alive in spite of the fact that no legal basis for it exists anymore. Bendix (1989:283-284) describes it accurately when she states that South Africa finds itself in a unique position among westernised countries in that it was, and still is marked by historically, politically and legally entrenched racial divisions. This has led to the establishment of two distinct societal groups which, because one group perceives itself as being politically, socially, and economically under-privileged, often have conflicting interests. The most obvious distinctions are to be found between the group which believes in white exclusivity and dominance, and that which subscribes to a policy of black nationalism. The Whites are in general supportive of a capitalistic, free

enterprise system, while many Blacks see their future as secured in a more socialistic, though not necessarily Marxist dispensation. This is a reflection of the fact that black people come from more communitarian societies, while Whites brought to South Africa a strong sense of individualism, a spirit of competition, and a belief in private ownership. The author regards it as appropriate to look at some of these developments and how they influence industry, and labour in particular.

Giliomee and Schlemmer (1989:64) view labour regulation, communal apartheid, and political control as the main elements of the apartheid ideology. Under labour regulation they understand influx control and other forms of regulating labour. With communal apartheid they mean statutory race classification, group areas, separate education, separate amenities, and other residual forms of apartheid, and by political control and privilege they mean an all-white Parliament, separate homelands for Africans and discriminatory spending on social welfare. Industry and labour have been affected by all of these elements to a greater or lesser degree, and it is important for the social worker in industry to understand how the legacy of apartheid is still exerting an influence on industry and labour. Industrial social work is practiced in response to problems experienced by the work force on South Africa, and the industrial social worker should thus take note of developments and realities in this field. Many of the conditions mentioned by Giliomee, Schlemmer and Bendix above do not exist legally anymore, but the effects are still felt.

Statutory race classification must be mentioned as the cornerstone of apartheid. Without it, formal race differentiation would not have been possible, and discrimination a bit more difficult to practice. The conditions affecting especially the Black workforce would have been

different.

1.1 Spacial segregation

An emerging pattern of spacial segregation has been a feature of South African society since the early Dutch Settlement at the Cape. Over time, it became increasingly formalised, and in the end legalised. This process is being reversed politically at the moment, but it will take a while before the social dimensions will be changed. However, the socio-demographic patterns created as a result of this process affect industry directly. In this regard the rural areas and the urban townships are of particular importance as far as the workforce is concerned. Cohen (1986) talks about the ordering of black space that had materialised into the rural reserves, the mine compounds, the urban townships, and servant's quarters.

1.1.1 The rural areas

Certain areas in the country in South Africa were demarcated for occupation by Blacks, and played a crucial role in efforts to control the movement of Blacks from country to town by means of influx control. These areas were established soon after the Act of Union in 1910 to bring some order in the African land situation (Lemon,1976:32). It was done with the passing of the Native Land Act of 1913 according to which Africans were prohibited from buying or renting land except in the limited area which had been set aside for them in the form of reserves (Giliomee and Schlemmer,1989:14). By 1936 more land was added to that of the reserves, and that formed the geographic basis of what is today known as the independant and national states in South Africa. These areas, however, could not support their populations and people started migrating to the industrial centres to find work. The movement of

Blacks to the cities was controlled by influx control measures which, over the course of time became increasingly rigid. The Native Laws Amendment Act of 1937 introduced machinery providing for systematic control over the African influx to the towns. Africans coming to the towns in search for work were allowed a fortnight in which to find work. This was later shortened to 72 hours. They were not allowed to bring their families with them, and redundant workers were threatened with expulsion to the reserves (Giliomee and Schlemmer, 1989; Lemon, 1976).

Migrants were processed by a system of Labour Bureaux. A migrant could only enter into a labour contract through a labour bureau, and had no opportunity to negotiate the terms of the contract. The contract was valid for only a year. The situation in the homelands eventually became so desperate that workseekers bypassed the labour bureaux and squatted in townships, or on the parameters of the cities (Giliomee and Schlemmer, 1989:71). They were also prepared to accept the low wages on offer to illegals. The development of huge squatter camps thus caused employees to live under conditions that can be regarded as undesirable for healthy human existence. Influx control was abolished in 1986. At present, the Government accepts orderly urbanisation of Africans. However, a shortage of proper housing only adds to expanding squatter camps.

1.1.2 The Urban Townships

The urban African townships also came about as a result of control measures which emerged over the course of time. According to Lemon (1976:70) Africans, Indians and Coloureds were living in areas allocated to them by the time of Union. In 1923 the Native Urban Areas Act was promulgated. It separated the "locations" from the white towns through the establishment of a

separate, self-balancing, native revenue account (Guilomee and Schlemmer, 1989:15).

The Bantu Laws Amendment Act of 1952 introduced the concept of certain categories of Africans who were exempted from the blanket prohibition on all Africans to remain in a prescribed area for more than 72 hours. Section 10 of this act permitted the following categories of Africans to be in the cities: (a) persons who had since birth continuously resided in the prescribed area; (b) persons who had worked continuously for one employer for at least ten years, and who had lawfully resided in the area with more than one employer for more than fifteen years; and (c) the wife and children of those people who qualified under the previous two categories (Giliomee and Schlemmer, 1989:67).

The Group Areas Act however, is that outstanding piece of legislation that has had more far-reaching effects than any previous legislation on race segregation. Its operation was mostly in the towns. Now being abolished, it imposed control of interracial property transactions, and interracial changes in occupation of property, which were all made subject to permit. Lemon (1976:75) highlights the fact that the implementation of the Group Areas Act resulted in non-Whites being settled in peripheral areas, further from the city, than Whites. This means that they have to commute a longer distance to get to work. Another problem mentioned by Van der Merwe and Finnemore (1989:34) is that conditions in black townships where housing and services did not keep pace with urbanisation, have resulted in overcrowding in small houses or shacks, boredom amongst unemployed youth, a propensity for youth violence, and rejection by many residents of the black authorities, set up in 1984. A situation has thus developed that black urban townships are often situated far from work, and people have to live under conditions that are far

from desirable. In view of the fact that these are the conditions that the black worker comes from, it must be accepted that they would have been and still are directly affected by the way in which the Group Areas Act influenced their lives. Black townships in White areas have also been neglected in terms of facilities and amenities, and services. The reason for this was the official view that African residential areas should not be made too attractive, because they should not be alienated from their homeland (Lemon, 1976:80).

The operation of the Group Areas Act affected town planning because one of the stipulations was that one race should not be routed through the residential area of another to reach its workplace. The implementation of the Act has also resulted in non-Whites being settled in peripheral areas. The poor thus live in higher densities, further from the cities, than do Whites. This means that they have to travel longer distances, at greater cost, to their places of work.

1.2 The South African labour market

Bendix (1989:413) describes South Africa, in its present stage of development, as a country in transition. Gerber, et al (1987:29) state that we are a Third World country with some characteristics of the First World, and that this at the same time is one of our biggest problems. Both these authors agree that the outstanding feature of the South African labour market is high unemployment among unskilled, mainly black, workers, and an increasing demand for semi-skilled, skilled, and professional labour. There are thus shortages in the professional, clerical, skilled and semi-skilled worker-categories, and an oversupply of unskilled workers, who lack the necessary qualities to be effectively employed in the upper work grades.

Gerber, et al (1987:29) mention the following main problems of the South African labour market:

- Low productivity: South Africa's productivity figures are amongst the lowest for the developing countries. This causes grave problems for manpower managers and companies if they wish to maintain profitability.
- Population explosion: South Africa's increase in population is one of the highest in Africa, and this increase among the Black population in particular is such that job creation has fallen a long way behind. This places a tremendous strain on the country's natural resources.
- Too rapid mechanisation of the S A economy: Many enterprises are intent on mechanising their production and getting rid of labour. There are three reasons for this. First, labour unrests and strikes are forcing enterprises to provide more reliable production systems. Secondly, enterprises are forced to mechanise because of the shortage of skilled manpower, and thirdly, mechanisation has become an attractive option in view of the enormous wage increases during the past few years, particularly among the low-level, semi-skilled and unskilled workers.
- A high level of unemployment: South Africa has high levels of unemployment, especially among Black workers, as a result of the economic recession and the factors already mentioned. That puts the entire country under strain, and the near exhaustion of the unemployment insurance fund means that contributions to the fund must be increased.
- A shortage of skilled workers: South Africa is experiencing an acute shortage of skilled workers as a result of rapid economic growth during the past two decades, and restrictive labour legislation which in the past placed enormous strain on the economy as a whole. The shortage has actually resulted in reduced productivity because there are not enough skilled employees available to cope with management tasks.

Gerber et al (1987) use the 1985 census particulars to analyze the trends in the South African labour market. According to these statistics, only 31,7% of the population is economically active. That means that slightly less than one third must support the rest of the population. Whites represent 22,6%, Coloured 12,8%, Asians 3,3%, and Blacks 61,3% of the economically active population. An analysis of the statistics related to occupations and population groups indicates that skilled and highly skilled positions are mainly filled by Whites, and the lower level and unskilled jobs mainly by Blacks. That means that occupations are unevenly distributed between the various population groups in the economically active population.

Gerber et al (1987:34) feel that this state of affairs may be ascribed to work reservation and restrictive legislation in force in South Africa until the acceptance of the Wiehahn Reports. Bendix (1989:414) points out that the Industrial Colour Bar relegated the majority of Blacks to the category of unskilled worker and prevented any upward mobility from one category to another. This would have had socio-economic implications for the black worker as well. It may also be ascribed to the imbalance in education prevailing in South Africa for decades, which resulted in Whites being trained better than any other population group. This problem is echoed by Guilomee and Schlemmer (1989:81):

"Of all the factors constraining black advancement in the labour market, deficient education stands out. Often legal restrictions were of lesser significance than poor education which did not equip blacks to compete with whites in the labour market, and made employers reluctant to train them"

Another problem mentioned by Bendix (1989:414) is that a large proportion of the unskilled labour force is still comprised of migrant labour, which by its impermanence counteracts the acquisition of any high level of skill and further negates the necessity for the effective training and promotion of workers.

As a result of the above, South Africa did not utilize its pool of black workers effectively, and the black worker could not take advantage of existing opportunities for advancement. The black labour force is thus often not sufficiently skilled or qualified to utilise fully the opportunities for upward mobility which may offer themselves (Bendix,1989:424).

1.2.1 Manpower policy

A variable that will have a direct influence on the population served by the industrial social worker, is manpower policy. This policy is laid down by

the South African government and administered by the Department of Manpower. This department is responsible for the administration of labour legislation and regulation under its jurisdiction, and implements government decisions applicable to manpower in S A within the legal framework. The Department of Manpower is responsible for the implementation and execution of all labour legislation promulgated in South Africa (Gerber et al 1987:47).

Sweeping changes in the S A labour field were introduced since the acceptance of the Wiehahn Reports in 1979, and subsequent legislation after a policy based on racial discrimination was adhered to for the preceding period of 30 years. The government's present manpower objective is that the country's human resources must be developed, utilised and conserved as far as possible, irrespective of race, colour or sex (Gerber et al, 1987:51).

According to the Manpower Commission's Report for 1980, the philosophy and principles underlying South Africa's manpower policy may be interpreted as having the following objectives:

- The creation of sufficient job opportunities and the promotion of higher living standards;
- Anticipation of the country's manpower provisioning;
- The appropriation of provisioning services to improve the synchronising of labour supply and demand;
- The maintenance of industrial peace as far as possible;
- The improved utilisation of manpower and improving the standards of manpower available
- Improving worker's social security as well as providing fair wage and salary levels, pensions, accident cover, medical aid and unemployment insurance. This particular objective will contribute to occupational welfare.
- The fine-tuning of South Africa's manpower policy to its economic policy;

These objectives, broadly interpreted, are similar to many of the general objectives of social welfare and they make provision for the development of

the abilities of the individual, considering the importance of work.

A particular problem mentioned by Gerber et al (1987:55) which came about as a result of legislation and its application to the economy is discriminatory practices. Although the present manpower policy is colour blind, and no discrimination exists from the point of view of legislation, the present problem is discrimination by the employer at the workplace. This is an example of a systemic problem for the social worker.

The industrial sector attempted to end discrimination before the manpower policy and labour legislation were changed. There are at present different codes of conduct, some of which originated from overseas countries, to address the various aspects of discrimination. They have put considerable pressure on South African enterprises, resulting in many disinvesting (Gerber et al, 1987:51).

1.2.2 Industrial relations

Socio-political developments have a direct influence on industrial relations in South Africa, and thus on the relationship between the employer and employee. Far-reaching changes have been made to labour legislation in South Africa since the Wiehahn commission, and industrial relations have also undergone changes as a result. Before the Wiehahn Commission, Blacks were denied the right of legitimately exercising power in the labour relationship. They were regarded as "not sufficiently responsible to engage in collective bargaining" (Bendix, 1989:285), and they had no political power to redress the situation. The Industrial Conciliation Amendment Act of 1979 and its amendments granted all South African employees the right to take part in the labour relations system. This, according to Bendix (1989:185) led to the

rapid growth in trade union membership amongst African workers. The situation then existed that all South Africans had a say in the industrial relations system, but not in the political system.

The fact that Black workers were not represented on the political level, led to the trade unions being used to attain political aims. They are being used to lobby for political change, with stay-aways and consumer boycotts increasingly used to bring political grievances to the attention of the government (Finnemore & Van Der Merwe, 1988:32). Trade unions have furthermore joined hands with community structures which sprung up to give voice to rising discontent. Community issues such as the lack of housing and rent, bus fare increases and detention of local leaders, have served as triggers for the mobilisation of these groups. Unions are increasingly working with community organizations to address these issues.

Black trade unions have thus become politicised as a result of the fact that blacks were excluded from the central decision-making process in South Africa. If the political scene is observed today, it becomes clear that many trade unions also associate themselves closely with some or other political grouping. They have become involved in politics to the extent that many of their original aims may have been neglected, or lost.

Developments in industrial relations also had an effect on trade unions with white membership. Many changes in labour laws, like the abandonment of job reservation and the inclusion of blacks in the industrial relations system, caused threats to mainly white mine workers, and they started supporting rightwing political parties.

2. WELFARE CAPITALISM

2.1 The early welfare movement

This movement, originally referred to as the welfare movement, started mainly as a result of labour problems experienced by businessmen in the late nineteenth century (Popple, 1981:258). This happened as America was transformed from a largely agrarian society to an industrialised nation, as a direct result of the industrial revolution, and the social and other changes it brought about. A new work experience was created, factories were rising, urbanisation of the population took place, and immigrants converged on the new industries. The new work force needed by the industrialists were uneducated and unsocialized to any of the demands of the workplace (Googins and Godfrey, 1987:19). The increasing size of business prevented personal contact between labour and management. A large proportion of the workforce were also women and immigrants, groups whom management did not understand. Problems of labour turnover, malingering, sabotage, and the tendency towards labour organisation indicated the discontent of the workforce. These were seen by a concerned management as threats to the paternalistic, autocratic style that had been their norm (Popple, 1981:258).

Management, in their own interest, had to do something about the above conditions because they were perceived as endangering the goals of industry. They started with what today would be called social investment programmes to protect their interests. A wide variety of facilities were provided for the workers. Houses for employees and their families were provided, schools were established, churches were constructed, medical care was provided, pension funds were introduced, recreation centers were established, magazines were published, and profit sharing and stock ownership were introduced. In the

words of Googins and Godfrey:

"Just about every problem discussed under today's social welfare programs was addressed by industrialists in the early form of welfare capitalism" (1987:19).

All the above-mentioned facilities were rationalised as humanitarianism, but the welfare movement, according to Popple (1981:259), also had two other, more important goals. One was the creation of a new, improved, loyal working man who kept in line with management values and ideals; that is one who would drink little, play wholesomely, work hard, and be thrifty, efficient, and diligent. The second goal was to create a labour force so contented that it would have no desire to unionize but, rather, would trust management to look out for its best interests. The motive thus was self-interest, and many of the programmes described above is very similar to today's fringe benefits.

2.2 The welfare secretaries

The above programmes needed to be staffed, and that gave rise to the welfare secretary, generally regarded as the forerunner of the industrial\occupational social worker. They were placed in charge of the industrial welfare programmes, and had a wide variety of roles. They had no professional social work training, but many were educated as nurses and school teachers, while some of them had been trained as charity organization workers. Some new secretaries were sent by their employees to observe the methods of the charity organizations and settlement houses before they began their work (Popple, 1981:260).

According to Popple (1981:260), the businessmen who hired these secretaries had clear views on what they want accomplished, but not how it should be done. They thus had to work without a "job description", something which even today is a problem for industrial social workers. They however, used

groupwork for recreation, education, socialisation, and character building. They also practiced what could be called casework to deal with the problems of individual employees. Much of their time was occupied by administration of two general types. The first was the responsibility of managing all employee welfare benefits, such as pensions and insurance programs, clubhouses, libraries, lunchrooms, clinics, and the like. The second type included the duties of the modern personnel manager, including training, job assignment, and sometimes even hiring, firing, and determination of salaries.

Although there had been a proliferation of companies appointing welfare secretaries in the first two decades of the nineteenth century, and although businessmen were apparently pleased with the results of their work, this specialisation eventually started to decline. There appear to be a number of reasons for this. The workers themselves called the job paternalistic, and they did not react favourably to being patronised. The secretaries were hired to decrease tension between management and labour, but it often had the opposite effect (Popple, 1981:263). Labour also considered welfare secretaries as being anti-union. They believe that the purpose of the welfare secretary was to defuse employee unrest without bringing about any fundamental change in the relationship between capital and labour (Popple, 1981:265).

According to Googins and Godfrey (1987:21) welfare capitalism flourished as the function of the welfare secretaries faded, and became a more organised movement during the first few decades of the twentieth century. Its aim was to counter the formation of unions by developing services that would persuade workers that unions were not necessary. The social welfare tradition eventually became incorporated into the discipline of the personnel specialist, a statement also reflected by the opinion of Popple that the

profession of personnel management resulted from a blend of the welfare secretary with scientific management.

2.3 Modern welfare capitalism

Googins and Godfrey (1987:28) explain that occupational welfare must be understood as a functional interchange between employees and employers. The system of occupational welfare is maintained by management to insure a productive workforce whose social needs are met to the extent that production is not substantially hampered. Employees, on the other hand, view it as an extension of benefits, and due compensation for their labour, or in the case of the trade union, as a bargained benefit for maintaining organisational loyalty and support.

The welfare capitalism of yesterday became the employee benefits and services of today, a function firmly rooted in human resource management. From the point of view of industrial social work, this represents the modern industrial or occupational welfare. It is to the industrial social worker what the community social welfare structure is to the community social worker.

Googins and Godfrey (1987:24) describe this service structure as the largest and most extensive welfare system. It stands alongside both the public and private voluntary systems as a quasi-silent partner in meeting the social and human needs of society. The lack of acknowledgement of the occupational welfare system is according to Googins and Godfrey (1987:24) indicative of both cultural social biases and a failure to grasp the pluralistic nature of society and its complex welfare system. This would explain why social

workers in the community would fail to appreciate this welfare system appropriately.

According to Martha Ozawa (1980:404), terms used to describe the occupational welfare structure vary, and there is no single term by which this particular system of welfare services is known. Labels include "fringe benefits", "employee assistance programs", "employee benefit programs", "wage supplement programs", and "industrial welfare programs". Most of these terms are indicative of a perception that industrial welfare programs are peripheral, additional or supplementary. Googins and Godfrey (1987:24) define it as the system of benefits and services directed at social and health needs of the worker, provided in and by the occupational setting. These benefits and services must be seen as separate from those provided by the state or the private voluntary welfare organizations. Only employees of the particular organisation are entitled to these benefits and services, and that entitlement stops as soon as they stop working for the company or employer. There is furthermore no standardisation of services between different companies, and the quality of services at a particular company is largely determined by the policy of that company towards its workers.

Gerber, et al (1987:407) describe these employee benefits and services comprehensively when they explain that

"... these benefits are intended to provide financial protection against misfortunes such as illness, accidents, unemployment and loss of income through retirement. Some benefits are also aimed at satisfying employees' social and recreational needs. Although benefits and services are not directly linked with higher productivity on the part of the employees, management expect in most cases that benefits and services will contribute to the recruitment campaign, improve morale, ensure loyalty to the enterprise, reduce labor turnover, reduce absenteeism, and so on."

Gerber, et al (1987:407-408) state that there has been a rapid increase in employee benefits and services since World War II for the following reasons:

- Attitudes of employees have changed
- Demands made by labour unions
- Requirements of government
- Competition of other employees has necessitated improvement of benefits and services to attract and retain employees
- There have been periodic wage control measures controlling wages but permitting the introduction of substitutes for wage raises

Employee benefits hold the following advantages for enterprises:

- more effective employment
- improved morale and loyalty
- lower labour turnover
- reduced absenteeism
- improved external relations
- reduced influence of labour unions
- reduced threat of government interference

The above does not differ much from the reasons given for the earlier welfare capitalism. It is clear that the main purpose of employee benefits and services remain self-interest of industry. What is significant however, is the fact that industry realizes that it has to look after the employee if it wants to protect its own interests. This is confirmed by Gerber et al (1987:294) when they stress that man is today the focal point of an enterprise, to such an extent that people are being made their main consideration, internally and externally. This is done internally by ensuring the quality of work life, and externally by executing social responsibility.

The same authors explain the reasons for the growth in employee benefits and services.

- Taxes: Most employees are well aware of the ever increasing portion of their salaries going to the receiver of revenue. Furthermore, the increasing inflation rate gives rise to more employees reaching the higher taxed income groups. This results in employers offering employees more tax-free benefits since employees can deduct the cost of benefits, as a valid business expense from their own taxable incomes.

- Labour market: Tight conditions in the labour market contribute to employer emphasis on benefits in order to attract new employees, or retain existing ones.

- Insurance costs: Increases in the cost of medical treatment, life insurance, disability insurance, pensions and other protections against loss of health and income, have made it more beneficial for employers to obtain insurance cover for all employees as a group, as it is cheaper than when purchased by individual employees. This is then offered as an employee benefit.

- Influence of labour unions: Unions contributed to the improvement of existing benefits and the introduction of new ones. This is where labour unions have made their biggest contributions.

- Changed employee needs: As the standard of living increased, and employees' basic needs were met, more emphasis was placed on alternative enumeration such as more time to spend their earnings, and protection against financial losses. Employees also wanted more opportunities for the satisfaction of their social, ego, and self-realization needs. This meant more holidays, all sorts of insurance, and so on. Higher order needs such as the payment of college or university expenses, bonuses and personal counseling also featured prominently (Gerber *et al*, 1987:410).

2.4 Welfare capitalism in South Africa

In South Africa, like elsewhere in the Western World, two categories of benefits and services are normally distinguished. There are those services mandated by legislation, and those provided by the employer on a voluntary basis.

Benefits and services required by law

Unemployment insurance: The Unemployment Insurance Act No 30 of 1966 makes provision for the establishment of a central fund, administered by the

Director General of Manpower and under control of the Minister of Manpower, to be utilised for the payment of unemployment, maternity, death and sick benefits (Gerber et al 1987:416).

Accident insurance: The Workmen's Compensation Act No 30 of 1941 makes provision for compulsory insurance cover against loss of earnings as a result of the disability or death of an employee, caused by an accident while he was on duty, or a contagious disease he contracted during the execution of his work. The act makes provision for a workmen's compensation fund controlled by the Workmen's Compensation Commissioner. Compensation may be claimed for temporary, partial disability, temporary total disability, and permanent disability (Gerber et al 1987:411).

These seem to be the main provisions required by law. They seem to cover many of the eventualities and crises which may arise from the work situation, affecting the person's employability.

Voluntary benefits and services

In addition to the mandatory benefits, a wide variety of benefits and services are offered by employers. They vary from company to company. These are pay for time not worked, vacation leave, paid holidays, time for personal matters, sick leave, maternity leave, life insurance, medical aid schemes, and pensions. In addition to this, there are employee services like cafeteria facilities, moving expenses, social and recreational expenses, and financial and legal services. Numerous employers also provide for educational facilities for employees and relatives.

It is thus clear from the above that any employee, while he is employed, is

fairly well covered by welfare services provided by the employer.

2.5 The social worker and occupational welfare services

Occupational welfare services or employee benefits are normally administered by the human resources or personnel management section of the company or organization. As will be pointed out at a later stage, the industrial social worker's office, or the industrial social work units are in the majority of cases located in the same section. That puts this professional in close proximity of the staff managing and administering employee benefits. The industrial social worker cannot be apathetic towards the occupational welfare system, because of its supportive value to the social worker.

The basic motive behind occupational welfare seems to be the self-interest of the employer. The researcher expects any social worker to be able to live with that for two reasons. It could in the first place be expected of him as an employee of the company to accept and respect the goals and objectives of industry. If the motive is profit, it is to be expected that every effort will be made to keep the workforce stable. Secondly, the worker also benefits in the process. Fringe benefits are in fact planned in such a way that the employee will feel cared for by the company, in order to guarantee his loyalty.

It is the industrial social worker's task to help evaluate the effectiveness of employee benefits, and he could assist management with consultation as far as improvement of the system is concerned. He should act as an overseer of the interests of the employee, and see to it that the employee takes advantage of the benefits he is entitled to. Shortcomings in the system of benefits could be pointed out, and improvements recommended.

Employee benefits, or industrial welfare systems would not provide for all the needs of employees, because, as stated earlier, the voluntary programmes vary from company to company. It may happen that these services are inadequate for the needs of a particular employee at a particular time. It may then be necessary to make use of the general social welfare services in the community, and for this purpose, the knowledge of the social worker would be necessary. There is thus a clear task for the social worker in industry regarding industrial social welfare, with the latter being a very important resource to the social worker in industry in his practice.

3. THE NATURE OF SOCIAL WORK IN SOUTH AFRICA

Social work in industry forms part of the overall welfare structure of South Africa, and can thus not be assessed outside this structure. As pointed out earlier, there exists an industrial welfare system, the structure of which varies from company to company. This welfare system must however be related to the total welfare structure. Social workers in industry may not and should not ignore the national welfare system. The reason for this statement is that fragmentation of welfare services should be avoided as far as possible. Another reason is that the occupational welfare system will not provide for all the needs of employees, and use will have to be made of services and resources located in the broader welfare system.

The present South African welfare system is characterized by racial divisions, mainly because it is organised on a race group basis. As a result it is very complex and unequal, with the Whites enjoying well-developed welfare services compared with the rest of the population.

State welfare departments are duplicated in terms of the "own-affairs" policy

of the tri-cameral system. State-sponsored welfare services are thus rendered by three different departments to Whites, Coloureds, and Indians. Welfare services to Blacks are rendered by the provincial administrations of the four provinces of the Republic of South Africa.

A clear distinction must be made between the welfare responsibilities of the state and that of the private welfare organizations. The state is responsible for the rendering of statutory personal social services, overall planning of social welfare, and social security provisions (McKendrick, 1987:25). These services by the state departments are rendered through the regional and local offices of the relevant departments. The offices of these departments are reasonably well distributed through the country, and are within reach of most of the population.

The independent and national African states are delivering these services through independent departments of health and welfare.

The personal services rendered by state departments are concerned with the social welfare aspects of Acts of Parliament. Although there are slight differences, the following is a good example of services rendered by South African Departments of Health and Welfare:

- Reconstruction services to families where children have been removed;
- Supervision, reconstruction and aftercare services in respect of persons subjected to an order of the court;
- Pre-statutory services in respect of chemically dependent persons;
- Pre-statutory services in respect of the criminal offender;
- Material assistance.

Social workers employed by industry do not have the same statutory powers as the social workers employed by the state departments for health and welfare,

and they thus cannot render those services, even if they identify a need for such services. However, industry is a good catchment area for all kinds of family and individual problems. The social worker in industry is thus in a strategic position to identify and assess these problems and to refer them to the relevant state departments.

The private welfare sector, comprising community- and church-sponsored welfare organisations, has primary responsibility for non-statutory welfare services. There are approximately 1600 welfare organisations of this kind, and they are affiliated to one of 18 nationally- or provincially- organised bodies. These bodies co-ordinate and develop local services within their functional fields (McKendrick, 1987:26). Many of these organisations have their own management committees, and can thus act autonomously. They are much more responsive to local welfare problems, mainly because they are more flexible when faced with changing circumstances and newly emerging problems. They are also in a very strategic position as far as contracting for service-rendering to industry is concerned.

SUMMARY

The broader context for the practice of social work in industry has been described in this chapter. It became clear that the social worker will have to relate to several significant systems and structures within this context. The main ones, however, seem to be the locations of especially the black worker, the industrial welfare system, and the South African welfare system. It is also important that the social worker understands and assesses the characteristics of the South African labour market, because that will to some extent determine the services, programmes and policies of social work in industry in South Africa.

In the same way as the social welfare system provides the context for practice for the community social worker, the occupational welfare system provides the context for practice of the social worker in industry. One of the main tasks of the social worker in industry would be to see to it that employees entitled to occupational welfare services make effective use of it.

Considering the internal politics of the country, a target population for the social worker would be the Black worker who is uneducated, unskilled and unsophisticated. He is unionised, and politicised, and comes from a community deprived of many essential services as a direct result of apartheid.

CHAPTER 3

WORK AS THE ACTIVITY OF CENTRAL CONCERN FOR THE INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKER

Work occupies a central position in the life of the individual, (Friedman and Havinghurst, 1954) something which is echoed in the following words of Everett C Hughes:

A man's work is one of the most important parts of his social identity, of his self; indeed of his fate in the one life he has to live, for there is something almost as irrevocable about choice of occupation as there is about choice of mate. (Braude, 1975:127)

Industrial social work deals with work and man's relationship to it. Many of the problems dealt with by the industrial social worker are manifested in work performance and reflected in the work place. It is thus imperative that he understands something about aspects like the work milieu, the meaning of work (needs satisfied by work), motivation to work, and career development. These work-related concepts will be of crucial importance in assessment, because they represent the dimensions of this professional activity. The social worker's knowledge about the work activity also represents part of the specific knowledge necessary for practice in industry.

1. THE WORKPLACE MILIEU

The business or industrial organisation is the workplace milieu of both the industrial social worker and the employee he serves. This is of special significance for the industrial social worker for two reasons. Firstly, he must understand the organisation as the environment where people do their work. Knowledge of this environment guides the assessment of the problems of the worker, because it has implications for his functioning as worker. Secondly, it is also the milieu where the social worker does his work. It is

a host organisation with goals other than that of social work. It is not the normal turf of the social worker, and as such will pose particular challenges. The importance of exploring this environment for the purpose of establishing a position in industry will be outlined in the next chapter.

Business and industrial organisations employing social workers will differ in many respects and will be as idiosyncratic as the people staffing them. There are, however, certain characteristics common to all organisations which can be used by the social worker to analyse the work milieu. The useful characteristics are organisational structure, design, culture, informal structure, and certain organisational processes. The social worker must also have a basic knowledge of management practice, because there is no other single variable that will influence his practice more than the particular management philosophy adhered to in the organisation. Each of these concepts will be discussed briefly.

1.1 Organisation structure

Mullins (1989:112) describes the meaning of structure as follows:

"Structure is the pattern of relationships among positions in the organisation and among members of the organisation. The purpose of structure is the division of work among members of the organisation, and the co-ordination of their activities so they are directed towards achieving the goals and objectives of the organisation. The structure defines tasks and responsibilities, work roles and relationships, and channels of communication."

Knowledge of structure will help the social worker to "place" himself in the organisation, and determine the people in key decision-making positions. This knowledge will be helpful when the social worker must establish the social work unit, and when communication lines must be determined, and when he must establish his own role.

The main structural features of the organisation is departmentation, span of control, centralisation-decentralisation, the scalar principle, and the line-staff structure (Haimann, et al, 1982; Fulmer, 1983; Massie and Douglas, Koontz, et al 1986; Mullins,1989).

The line-staff structure is of particular importance to the social worker for both the implementation and maintenance of the social work unit. Social workers will get their referrals from line personnel. It is thus important that the line personnel understand the function of the social worker. The nature of the relationship between the social worker and line should also be appreciated. This relationship is of an advisory and consultative nature, and communications should take place on this basis.

The scalar chain refers to the number of different levels in the structure of the organisation, the chain of hierarchical command. It establishes the vertical gradation of authority and responsibility and the framework for superior-subordinate relationships (Mullins, 1989:130).

The scalar principle states that authority and responsibility should flow in a clear, unbroken line or chain of command from the highest to the lowest manager. That means that the organisation is a hierarchy.

The principles of departmentation used will determine where the social worker will be located in the organisation. It is however important that the social worker understands the basis of departmentation, because that will assist him to determine his function in the unit where he works, and his relationship with the rest of the department where he is located.

Centralisation-decentralisation will determine how decision-making takes

place. If decision making is decentralised it means that decision making and authority is dispersed throughout the organisation. That will determine the kind of decisions the social worker will be allowed to take.

1.2 Organisational design

Various organisational designs have been identified. The main ones are bureaucratic structure, the functional structure, the divisional structure, and the matrix structure. It is assumed that the characteristics of social work will be at greater variance with some organisational forms than with others. Different designs will affect the individual in different ways. It will be the responsibility of the social worker to observe the relationship between the employee and the organisational form in order to establish its effects on the individual.

1.3 Organisational culture

French and Bell (1984:18) defines culture as follows:

"By the term culture...we mean prevailing patterns of values, attitudes, beliefs, assumptions expectations, activities, interactions, norms and sentiments (including feelings), and as embodied in artifacts"

Altman et al agree with this definition when they describe culture as the "...expected behaviours, actions, and values that people in the enterprise are expected to follow." (1985:433)

After having identified certain common attributes from nine definitions of culture, Moorhead and Griffin (1989:497) compiled the following definition of organisational culture:

"Organizational culture is the set of values, often taken for granted, that help people in an organization understand which actions are considered acceptable and which are considered unacceptable. Often, these values are communicated through stories and other symbolic means."

Another term, closely related to that of organisational culture, is organisational climate. Altman et al (1985:432) describes the climate as the atmosphere or character of the organisation. Mullins (1989:489) views climate as the prevailing atmosphere surrounding the organisation, the level of morale, and the strength of feeling and belonging, care and goodwill among members. He then adds that climate is based on the perception of members towards the organisation, and concludes:

"Climate also relates to the recognition of the organisation as a social system and the extent to which membership is a psychological rewarding experience. It can be seen as the state of mutual trust and understanding among members of the organisation. Organisational climate is characterized, therefore, by the nature of the people-organisation relationship, and the superior-subordinate relationship. These relationships are determined by interactions among goal and objectives, styles of leadership, the process of management, and the behaviour of people." (1989:489)

Organisational climate is a characteristic the social worker in industry will be directly concerned about. The relationship of the employee with the organisation is directly related to his satisfaction as an employee. It is likely that those aspects of climate mentioned by Mullins will be the kind of issues addressed by the social worker on the level of organisational intervention. It is the kind of issues dealt with through organisational development (OD).

1.4 The informal organisational structure

The informal structure of the organisation is the network of personal and social relationships not established or required by formal authority, but

arising spontaneously as people associate with one another. It arises, according to Mullins, (1989:60) from the interaction of people working there, their needs, and the development of groups with their own norms and relationships. The informal organisation is flexible and loosely structured, and membership is spontaneous. Group relationships and norms exist outside the official structure, and may be in conflict with the aims of the formal organisation.

The importance of these informal groupings are stressed by Williams in the following words:

" Such groups do not appear on organizational charts, but they strongly influence organizational effectiveness. They have their own leaders, their more or less definable membership and powerful means of controlling members' behaviour - not always for the good of the formal organization. (1982:127)

The informal structure of any organisation is of special significance to the social worker for several reasons. Firstly, it acts to fulfill those needs of the employees not met by the formal structure. In that sense, they can be equated with the informal helping networks of local communities. It will thus be useful for the social worker to assess what mutual help they offer to their members. The very nature of the informal structure may also serve to indicate the health, or lack of it, of the organisation. The most important fact, however, is that they fulfill the psychological and social needs of their members and may thus play a crucial role in any intervention plan of the social worker.

Mullins (1989), Williams (1982) and Haimann (1982) list the advantages and uses of informal groups. They give people identity, a sense of belonging, motivation, security, satisfaction, support and information. Others are companionship, reassurance, reduction of tension, and reduction of boredom.

The role these groups play in need satisfaction and support must be acknowledged by the social worker.

1.5 Organisational processes

Organisational processes particularly useful to the social worker are decision-making, communication, and performance appraisal.

The social worker should understand the decision-making processes, because they are related to the internal politics of the organisation. He is affected by these processes and affect them in turn as a result of his input. It is important that the social worker knows and understands the different levels on which decisions are made, and by whom. This knowledge will enable the social worker to use these processes in order to achieve the goals of social work in industry, and to integrate social work with the organisation.

Communication is another important process in the organisation that the social worker will use. He communicates with other people about his unit, and he communicates with clients about the services available. He therefore must understand the different reasons for communication, the communication channels, and the means of communication.

Performance appraisal is another relevant term to be understood for two reasons. Firstly, performance appraisals will result in referrals to the social worker, and he must understand the part he plays in follow ups after performance appraisal, and he secondly has the skills to play a role in performance appraisals

1.6 Management practice

Management practice in the organisation where the social worker is employed represents that one single variable exerting a significant influence on the practice of the industrial social worker. It is thus essential that the social worker has some basic understanding of management and management processes in order to acquire an overall view of the organisation as the host for social work practice.

Management theory has, over the course of time, received considerable input from the behavioural sciences since the development of the human relations approach. The "humanisation" of management, to a large extent, started with this movement. This was followed by inputs from the behavioural sciences, especially industrial psychology, personnel management, the so-called "sociological" approach, social psychology, anthropology and political science (Koontz and O' Donnel, 1976; Haimann, et al 1982)

The social worker can expect to find different approaches to management in different organisations, and even different approaches by different managers in the same organisation.

The particular management philosophy adhered to in an organisation can cause problems for the social worker's efforts to humanise the workplace. This conclusion is made because the older management theories have not always been sympathetic to the individual, because of an emphasis on organisational structure, and production.

The modern management theories have a more "open" approach than the earlier ones. A significant development in this regard was organisational behaviour, integrating knowledge about individuals, groups, and organisations in an attempt to explain what happens when people and organisations start

interacting.

2. THE MEANING OF WORK

Man obtains satisfaction of many of his needs through the activity of work. This makes work a meaningful human activity. The report on Work in America considers work as "the means by which we produce the goods and services needed and desired by ourselves and society. Through the economic rewards of work, we obtain immediate gratification of transient wants, physical assets for enduring satisfaction, and liquid assets for deferrable gratifications." (1973:3)

Although the economic significance work has for man is stressed in the above statement, other needs are also satisfied through work. This is well illustrated by Borrero and Rivera when they say the following about the meaning of work:

"Since the early twentieth century, the meaning and function of work has gone beyond providing the basic subsistence of food, clothing and shelter, and beyond faith. The meaning and function of work has been tied to peoples' contact with reality, psychologically and socially" (1980:885)

The degree of happiness and fulfillment experienced through work will be determined by the extent to which the needs and wants of the individual is being met by the particular job he is doing. This will to a large extent determine the degree of job satisfaction experienced by the individual.

Strauss and Sayles (1980:5) divides the needs satisfied by work into physical, security, social and egoistic needs. According to them, needs are satisfied away from the job, around the job and through the job. Admitting that their categories overlap, they state that physical needs are met off the

job, social needs are satisfied through personal contacts around the job, and egoistic needs are satisfied through the job.

Broadly speaking, needs satisfied by work are personal (individual), social and societal. If this is accepted as true, it will be of great value to the social worker in assessing the roots of the problems experienced by the worker in the work situation.

2.1 Personal needs satisfied through work

The most obvious need satisfied through work, is to secure an income. Money gives the individual purchasing power. Money provides the physical necessities of life, security and status (Strauss and Sayles, 1985:5).

Work also satisfies important self-esteem needs, because, according to Jerome Rosow (1974:2-3) it means being a good provider, autonomy, it pays off in success, and it establishes self-respect and self-worth. According to the Report on Work in America work contributes to self-esteem in two ways. Firstly, a person acquires a sense of mastery over both himself and his environment through the awareness of one's efficacy and competence in dealing with the objects of work. The second method derives from the view that a person is working when he is engaging in activities that are useful for other people.

The work place is one of the major foci of personal evaluation. It is where the individual finds out whether he is making the grade. The self-esteem is constantly on the line and every effort will be made to avoid reduction in self-evaluation and its attending sense of failure (Work in America, 1973:6).

Work creates order and regularity in the life of the individual, and in this respect is a source of certainty and predictability. It is according to Friedman and Havinghurst (1954:3) "an axis along which the worker's pattern of life is organized." These authors (1954:4) feel that work is offering the individual a set of meaningful life experiences.

Other personal meanings of work are that it gives purpose to life, it provides channels for creativity and self-expression, it provides new experiences, and it is service to others. (Friedman and Havinghurst, 1954:7)

2.2 Social needs satisfied through work

The job and work situation provide for the satisfaction of certain social needs of the individual. When we work we experience a set of social relationships only in what we do in our work. This is perhaps the basis of the satisfaction of our social needs through work.

Work serves the purpose of integrating the individual in society. The work place has always been a place to meet people, converse and form friendships. It provides the person with friendship relations, peer-group relations, and subordinate-superordinate relationships. It thus to a large extent determines the pattern of the person's social participation (Friedman and Havinghurst, 1954:3). The group situation at the work place, according to Strauss and Sayles, (1980:9-10) satisfies the need of belongingness and support. Contact with others also make unpleasant jobs more pleasant and membership in a clique provides employees with a sense of identification and belonging.

2.3 Societal needs satisfied by work.

Most adult males work in society. According to Friedman and Havinghurst (1954:3), it is also expected of them. The productive system of which the job is a part, orients and controls the behaviour of those persons who participate in it. It sets a goal for the worker, determines the manner in which the goals may be attained, and the rewards offered for its achievement and affects the whole range of his participation in his society of which he is part.

According to the Report on Work in America, the economic and societal importance of work have dominated thought about its meaning, especially considering the fact that the function of work in any society is to produce and distribute goods and services, to transform "raw nature" into that which satisfies our needs and services.

As a result of status ascribed to a person because of the kind of job he is doing, work also has the societal function of fitting people into places. It thus has an arrangement function.

The main functions of work for society then is to control behaviour, to socialise, to see to it that people's needs are met through the production of goods and services, and to confer status on individuals.

3. MOTIVATION TO WORK

3.1 Motivation theories

In order to make a proper assessment of personal and social problems encountered in the work place, the industrial social worker will have to have some understanding of what motivates people to work.

The previous section on the meaning of work cannot be considered separately from motivation. A person is motivated by the anticipated satisfaction of his needs through the job. If most of the person's job related needs are satisfied, we can say that he is experiencing a high degree of job satisfaction. This is confirmed by Mullins (1989:299) when he says that a person's motivation, job satisfaction and work performance will be determined by the strength of these sets of needs and expectations, and to the extent to which they are fulfilled.

Motivation is a complex phenomenon, and there is no single answer to what motivates people to work. Many motives influence people, and the different theories of motivation provide a framework within which to approach the problem of motivating people to work.

A distinction is normally made between content theories and process theories of motivation (Mullins, 1989; Moorhead and Griffin, 1989). Content theories attempt to explain those specific things which motivate the person at work. These theories are concerned with identifying people's needs and their relative strengths, and the goals they pursue in order to satisfy these needs. Process theories attempt to identify the relationships among the variables making up motivation. They are concerned more with how behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained. They emphasise the actual process of motivation (Mullins, 1989:303).

Fred Luthans (1985:195) identifies four theoretical streams for work motivation, of which one is for the content models and three are for the process models. The content models go as far back as the beginning of the century, starting with the scientific managers who proposed sophisticated wage incentive models to motivate workers. Next came the human relations

movement, and then the content models of Maslow, Herzberg and Alderfer. The more recent developments have come from process models. Most work has been done on expectancy-based process models, but recently, equity and attribution theories have received attention. Brief attention will be given to each of them for the sake of a broad overview.

Maslow's need hierarchy is well known. He believed that a person's motivational needs can be arranged into a hierarchy. He believed that a person is motivated by an urge to satisfy these needs, but he did not intend that his need hierarchy be directly applied to work motivation. Luthans (1985:197) feels that Maslow's need hierarchy theory can be applied to work motivation.

Herzberg (Luthans, 1985:199) formulated his two-factor theory of motivation and job satisfaction after a motivational study including 200 engineers and accountants. One set of factors are those which, if absent, cause dissatisfaction. These factors are related to job context, they are concerned with job environment and extrinsic to the job itself, and are referred to as hygiene factors. The other set of factors are those which, if present, serve to motivate the individual to superior effort and performance. These factors are related to the job content itself, and are the motivators or growth factors (Mullins, 1989:309). The value of this model for social work lies in the fact that there are contextual as well as content factors determining an employee's satisfaction in his job.

Alderfer (Luthans, 1985:203) identified three groups of core needs: existence, relatedness and growth. The existence needs are concerned with survival. The relatedness needs stress the importance of interpersonal social relationships, and the growth needs are concerned with the

individual's intrinsic desire for personal development.

Vroom proposed his expectancy theory as an alternative to the content models, and his theory became a popular explanation for work motivation and has generated considerable research (Luthans, 1985:205). He suggested that a person's motivation towards an action at any time would be determined by his or her anticipated values of all the outcomes multiplied by the strength of that person's expectancy that the outcome would yield the desired goal (Koontz, et al, 1986:486).

Porter and Lawler (Koontz, et al, 1986:487) also considered to belong to the expectancy school, have developed a substantially more complete model of motivation, with more variables influencing the motivation process. According to this model, effort depends on the value of the reward, plus the perceived energy a person believes is required, and the probability of actually receiving a reward. The perceived effort and probability of reward are, in turn, also influenced by the record of actual performance. This is regarded as quite a complicated explanation of motivation, but highlights the fact that a variety of variables motivate the individual.

Stacy Adams (Luthans, 1985:212) is credited for the equity theory of motivation. According to this model, a major input into job performance and satisfaction is the degree of equity (or inequity) that people perceive in their work situation. According to Adams inequity exists for a person whenever he perceives that the ratio of his outcomes to input and the ratio of other people's outcomes to inputs are unequal. If this is the same for the person doing the comparison and the other person, equity exists.

There are other models of motivation, but their mention fall beyond the

scope of this study. It is however clear from the above that a variety of explanations for motivation exist. It is an area of knowledge the social worker should take note of because it will assist in making a professional assessment of the problems and situation of the employee. It is not necessary for the social worker to have expert knowledge of motivation in the work place, but important to realise that it constitutes a valuable determinant of work behaviour, and a major concern of management. Motivation is regarded by Perlman (1957) as one of the dimensions to be considered when the situation of the client is explored.

3.2 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined by Wendell French (1982:88) as " a person's affective response to aspects of work (pay, supervision, benefits, and so on) and/or to the work itself. That means that job satisfaction has to do with the person's attitude towards his job.

Mullins (1989:337-338) lists five dimensions of job satisfaction. They are individual, cultural, organisational and environmental factors. The individual factors are: personality, education, intelligence and abilities, age, marital status, and orientation to work. Social factors are relationships with co-workers, group working and norms, opportunities for interaction, beliefs and values. Cultural factors include: attitudes, beliefs and values. Organisational factors include: nature and size, formal structure, personnel policies and procedures, industrial relations, nature of the work, technology and work organisation, supervision and styles of leadership, management systems, working conditions. Environmental factors include: economic, social, technical and governmental influences. French (1982:92) points out that the results of a national survey also indicated

that job satisfaction differs according to occupational group as well.

Mullins (1989:337) also states that job satisfaction does not necessarily lead to improved work performance.

4. CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND PLANNING

Another aspect of work of interest to the industrial social worker is that of career development and planning because it looks at work activities over a certain period of time. Problems in this regard will also affect the staff member's social functioning in the workplace and must thus be considered by the social worker. It helps to explain work behaviour and is as such of value to the social worker. Being in the wrong job can be a source of dissatisfaction, with an immense impact on productivity.

Career planning and management did not get the same attention from employers in the past than it is getting now, because the personnel management programme focused primarily upon the needs of the organisation in hiring, placing, transferring, promoting, and laying off people (Beach, 1975). In present times, employers are willing to do more to promote the careers of employees. Various reasons for this are advanced by different authors. Beach (1975) states that working men and women have expressed desires for meaningful jobs, increased personal freedom, better opportunities, and more say in matters affecting them in the workplace. Megginson (1982:132) and Middlemist et al (1983:222) feel that both the organisation and its employees benefit from career management. Megginson(1982); Middlemist et al (1983) and Beach, (1975) advance the following reasons for this:

1. It helps in implementing affirmative action programs, by moving women and minorities into higher-level managerial positions, and also meeting equal employment opportunity requirements.
2. Employees' heightened expectations of the job caused companies to provide

for career development. Employees want more control over their careers and are less willing than earlier generations to simply accept roles and assignments given to them. They want greater job satisfaction and more career options.

3. Highly talented and skilled employees are in short supply, and the market to keep and attract them is very competitive. Highly educated professionals and managers often give preference in selecting a company for which to work to those that are supportive of their career aspirations and have career development programs.

4. Management realises it is in its best interest to improve the employee's quality of life, in order to reduce turnover, minimise unionisation and improve job performance. Career development helps to achieve this aim.

5. Career development programs can assist individuals in anticipating changes and help them gain new skills that are in real demand.

6. Career development can also help to place people in jobs they like and which fit their ambitions.

Many of the above feed directly into the goals of social work, because it contributes substantially to the happiness and contentment of the individual. Four related terms to be clarified in this regard are career development, career planning, career management, and career paths. Another issue to be addressed in this regard is the respective roles and responsibilities of the organisation and the individual.

Career has already been defined as "the sequence of occupations, jobs, and positions held during the course of a person's lifetime." (Work in America, 1973:197) Middlemist et al (1983:223) add to this by stating that a career may be seen in several ways. It may be seen as vertical mobility (advancement), an occupation (profession), a lifelong sequence of jobs, and a lifelong sequence of role-related experiences.

Middlemist et al (1983:222) view career development as the "process of planning the series of possible jobs one may hold in the organization over time and development strategies designed to provide necessary job skills as the opportunities arise." They further distinguish (1983:223) between an

organisational career plan which is " a map of a sequence of jobs for an employee within that organization" and individual career planning which is a "map of job sequence without regard to the organization".

The same authors (1983:223) view a career path as " a series of jobs representing potential progression tracks that employees may follow".

Meggison (1981:131) uses the term "career management" to include both career planning and development. He describes career management as the effort to combine ways of achieving organisational goals and objectives with helping employees advance their own careers. Career planning is defined as the process of choosing occupations, organisations, and routes one's career will follow. Career development is engaging in the development activities required to attain career goals.

Beach, (1975:323) holds a bit of a different view on the above concepts. Career development, according to him, is the planning of one's career and the implementation of career plans by means of education, training, job search and acquisition, and work experiences. He states that when this is viewed from the perspective of the organisation, the career development is the process of guiding the placement, movement and growth of employees through assessment, planned training activities and planned job assignments.

Career planning, according to Beach, (1975:323) is a subset of career development. It is the personal process of planning one's work-life. It includes evaluating one's abilities and interests, examining career opportunities, setting career goals, and planning appropriate developmental activities. Career planning is mainly an individual process, but the employing organisation also assists through career counseling, workshops,

career planning workbooks, and through dissemination of information about jobs within and outside the organisation. Beach (1975:324) divides the career planning process into the following steps: (1) Appraise oneself; (2) Identify opportunities; (3) Set goals; (4) Prepare plans; (5) Implement plans.

Career management, according to Beach,(1975:323) is the other subset of career development. It focuses more upon plans and activities done by the organisation. In career management the management of the organisation matches individual employee career plans with organisational needs and implements programs to accomplish these joint objectives. This is similar to Megginson's (1981) idea on career management. Career management consists of the following activities: (Beach, 1975:326): (1) Integrate with human resource planning; (2) design career paths; (3) disseminate career information; (4) publicise job openings; (5) assess employees; (6) career counseling; (7) work experience for development; (8) role of the boss; (9) education and training; (10) new personnel policies and practices.

4.1 The career development process

Quite a number of authors (Miller and Form, 1980; Zytowski, 1968; Schein, 1978; Holland, 1973) have contributed to the analysis of the career development process, which is a dynamic view of the career concept. Moorhead and Griffin (1989:645) point out that career stages are closely associated with but not identical with the adult life stages of Erickson: adolescence, young adulthood, adulthood, and senescence.

Beach (1975:321) quotes Van Maanen and Schein as having divided a person's career into the following stages:

1. Exploration stage
2. Establishment stage (early career)
3. Maintenance stage
4. Decline stage

Miller and Form (1980:198) divide the career into five stages:

1. Preparatory
2. Initial
3. Trial
4. Active work life
5. Stable
6. Retirement

Moorhead and Griffin (1989:645) divide the career into the following five stages: entry, socialisation, advancement, maintenance, and withdrawal.

Although different labels for the individual career stages are used by different authors, the actual stages do not differ so much, and any of the models can be used to describe the development of the person's career. It is important, however, that each of these stages has its own demands, tasks and expectations, and the individual has to deal with them. These stages must also be considered as broad guidelines because people in different occupations move through these stages at different rates. Personal factors such as individual maturity also influence the rate of movement. (Dubrin, et al, 1989:596)

1. **The entry stage.**

This stage starts before the actual onset of the career. It is the result of the normal growth and development of the individual, and is characterised by fantasies about a career (Dubrin, et al, 1989:596). It is also referred to as the exploration stage (Beach, 1975) because it is characterised by considerable exploration. A large part of this stage is used for education and training, and the development of the basic skills needed in the world of work.

It involves self-examination, role try-outs, and occupational exploration taking place in school, leisure activities and part-time work. (Hall, 1976:53)

During the latter part of this stage, the individual enters a career, albeit tentatively, by trying out jobs associated with the career. This trial period may involve many different jobs as the individual explores a variety of organisations, occupations and careers (Moorhead and Griffin, 1989:645). Tasks required for entry include learning how to conduct a job campaign, and making a realistic first-job choice (Dubrin, et al, 1989:596)

The predominant character of this stage is preparation for the job, with everything it entails.

2. Socialisation

Super (Hall, 1976:53) calls it the establishment stage. According to Moorhead and Griffin (1989:647) it normally begins with a trial period during which the individual continues to explore jobs, but with a narrower focus. Then, as the individual becomes focused on a specific job, performance begins to improve. The individual is becoming established in his career.

People begin to form attachments and make commitments, both to others and to their employing organisations. People learn the culture of the organisation, and an appropriate set of role behaviours and develop work skills and abilities particular to their job and organisation; and they begin to demonstrate that, at least to some degree, they are learning to accept the values and norms of the organisation.

During the socialisation stage, the individual must make many adjustments. They must learn to accept the fact that the organisation and the people in it might be quite different from what they had anticipated. They must learn how to deal with resistance to their ideas, they must learn how to make on-the-job decisions, and they must learn to deal with several dilemmas (Moorhead and Griffin, 1989:648). Other tasks at this stage include adjusting to the daily routines of work and dealing with the shock of what work and organisational membership entails. Specific tasks at this stage include overcoming the insecurity of inexperience, developing of self-confidence, and learning to get along with the boss (Dubrin, et al, 1989:596). Fred Luthans (1985:103) expresses the opinion that this stage is in general an unstable and relatively unproductive period in a person's career.

The organisation can take action to assure that the socialisation stage is successful. It can provide a relaxed orientation programme for new personnel. It can see to it that the first job is challenging and that relevant training is provided. It can assure that reliable and timely feedback is provided to people in this early stage of their careers, and it can place new personnel in groups with high standards to assure modeling of acceptable norms.

3. Advancement

The person now advances into his career towards greater stability and goal-directedness. There is greater certainty and dedication, and a growing, productive period in the employee's career.

This stage can also be called the establishment or settling-down stage. An appropriate field has been found and effort is put forward to make a permanent place in it (Hall, 1976:53).

The individual now accepts responsibility and successfully carries out his first formal job assignment. Advancement begins to occur as the individual is recognised for the improved performance that comes with development and growth. The individual is learning his or her career and doing well in it. Soon he or she will become less dependent on others.

The person, according to Dubrin, et al (1989:596) also develops the expertise to lay the groundwork for promotion or lateral career growth. In this stage, adjustments are often necessary, and there may be some trial during this phase. (Hall, 1976:53). Vertical and horizontal, or lateral, movement also occurs frequently in the advancement stage. Vertical moves involve promotions, whereas lateral moves involve transfers. These kind of movements teach people about several different jobs in the organisation, a broadening experience that can benefit both the individual and the organisation. Organisations meet their staffing needs through such movement, and individuals satisfy their needs for achievement and recognition (Moorhead and Griffin, 1989:649).

Specific tasks in this stage include performing effectively, and learning how things are done, improving skills, developing initiative, and finding a mentor and a sponsor.

4. Maintenance

Hall (1976:53) states that the main concern about this stage is to hold the place that has been made in the world of work. Individuals develop a stronger attachment to their organisation in this stage, and lose some career flexibility. Performance varies considerably during this stage. It may continue to grow, it may level off, or it may decline. If it continues to grow, it continues as a direct extension of the advancement stage (Moorhead and Griffin, 1989:649).

If leveling off occurs, the individual is said to have reached a plateau in his career. Those who respond effectively to plateaus have been termed solid citizens; they have little chance for further advancement, but continue to make valuable contributions to the organisation. Those whose responses are ineffective are referred to as dead wood; they too, have little chance of further advancement, but they contribute little to the organisation (Moorhead and Griffin, 1989:649).

If performance drops, the individual may be experiencing some type of midlife crisis, which is associated with such effects as awareness of physical aging, and the nearness of death, a reduction in career performance, the recognition that life goals may not be met, and changes in family and work relationships (Moorhead and Griffin, 1989:651).

This stage may also be characterised by the so-called mid-career crisis. People reassess their progress in comparison to their earlier goals, and that they have not accomplished enough. The individual has to choose among leveling off, changing careers, or forging ahead to newer and higher challenges. As a result of this, changing jobs can become fairly common

during this stage. Many such moves have proved to be highly beneficial to the person involved, but in other cases it was discovered that the new job has as many frustrations as the old one (Moorhead and Griffin, 1989:652).

Tasks at this stage include making choices about accepting the present, or working for whatever future is visualised. Accommodation also have to be worked out with family members concerning choices made (Dubrin, 1989:598).

5. Withdrawal

Decline, disengagement, and retirement occur in this stage, as it involves the end of full-time employment, and other roles must be learned. Some people begin new careers at this stage, and others level off, but the general pattern is one of decreasing performance. Again there might be positive or negative reactions. If positive, the person starts a new career, helps others, or learns to accept retirement. If the reaction is negative, the person might become indifferent, give up or develop a high degree of dependence on family and friends.

Problems may arise for people who are not prepared for the changes retirement brings. An individual who is not ready to retire, or feels forced to do so, may have a particularly difficult time adapting to these changes. In response to this, many organisations run pre-retirement programmes focusing on health, housing, financial planning, legal issues, time management, and social programs for maintaining involvement in the community (Moorhead and Griffin, 1989:652). These are good examples of the kind of programmes the social worker can take care of.

These career stages are of particular concern for the social worker in

industry. At various points in the course of the career, the person must make choices, and the potential for the development of problems exists, especially as his career development interacts with his development as a human being. Career development fits in very well with the life model of social work practice.

Frustration related to career development or career choice may lead to the kind of stress at the root of performance problems.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, various aspects of the work environment and work itself was discussed. Knowledge about the structure of the work environment is regarded as essential for the purposes of establishing a social work service in industry. It should assist the industrial social worker in integrating the social work unit with the rest of the organisation. It should also be kept in mind that the worker-organisation interface must be understood, and therefore the social worker should be familiar with the structure and functioning of the industrial organisation.

Work behaviour remains the main focus of the social worker in industry. He should understand the various concepts related to work and work behaviour. This should assist him in assessing the worker as a client, as well as enabling him to understand terminology used by other professionals in industry.

The topics discussed represent important areas of the specific knowledge base the industrial social worker should possess in order to become a competent industrial social work practitioner. These content areas are "setting-

specific" and should be added onto the generic knowledge base of the social worker. It is not social work knowledge, but should be incorporated into the body of knowledge of any social worker intending to or already practicing in the industrial environment.

CHAPTER 4

INTRODUCING SOCIAL WORK INTO INDUSTRY: ORIENTATION AND PLANNING

In the present chapter, the entry of the social worker into industry is described as well as the beginning stages of the process of establishing and implementing social work services in industry. These processes lay the foundation for a social work programme that will eventually be properly integrated with the organisation where it is practiced.

Entrance into industry can be effected in several ways. The social worker can be invited to apply for an established position, or for one that has been established recently. Community social workers may also choose to promote the appointment of a social worker in a particular organisation.

1. PROMOTING INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK FROM OUTSIDE

It will be more difficult for outside practitioners to promote the development of industrial social work than it would be for the social worker already in a position inside industry. The reason for this would mainly be that community social workers will be viewed as "outsiders" not knowing what goes on inside industry.

Any social worker intending to promote the introduction of social work into any particular industrial organisation will have to follow some guidelines which should promote the acceptance by industry of a proposal that a social worker be appointed.

A particular programme can be designed and offered to industry on a contractual basis, to be kept that way. The same programme can be designed

and offered to industry with the intent that it will be taken over by the organisation and made an in-house programme, with a social worker to staff it. This implies selling of the programme to industry. It seems to be important to stress the usefulness and meaning of the programme to industry. They must understand what difference the programme might make in one or more of their operations and activities.

Vinet and Jones (1983:12) suggest that the initiation of a programme for industry should move through the following five stages: (1) defining goals for themselves and reasons for entering industrial social work, (2) assessing their resources to determine the feasibility of their goals, (3) conducting a market survey of labor and businesses in their area, (4) developing a marketing programme, and (5) implementing the programme.

Two sources suggested by Feinstein and Brown (1982:122) that can be used to define the needs of business and industry for the services of human-relations professionals are the known human needs and problems of the company, and newly defined obligations of business.

Examples of the needs of business are the rate of alcoholism in the workforce; the increased job dissatisfaction of employees in their jobs, and trends in the labour force such as rising absenteeism and reduced productivity. The sources for such information are company reports, newspaper articles, professional journals, and research reports.

The newly defined obligations of industry may come from new labour legislation, new demands of the workforce, and collective bargaining. This means that social workers must be aware of new situations that industry are confronted with, and that can be met by the use of social work skills.

Feinstein and Brown (1982:125) have formulated guidelines and principles for selling a programme, and selling yourself. It is clear that the programme must hold solutions to specific problems encountered by industry, and it would be the task of the seller to convince industry that that is in fact the case.

Promoting industrial social work from outside remains an option for South African community welfare organisations as well. In order for this process to take place, however, welfare organisations must be convinced that their efforts will pay good dividends. It will thus have to be regarded as an attractive option. This implies that industry must be viewed as an important target for the rendering of welfare services, and that welfare organisations be made aware of industry as a potential field of practice. The basis for this exists already in the contact between industry and community welfare organisations about employee problems.

2. ESTABLISHING THE SERVICE INSIDE INDUSTRY

The invitation to social workers for positions established in industry could be the result of promotion from outside, or the recognition of the need by the organisation itself.

Regardless of this, social work services in industry cannot be established and implemented according to a trial-and-error model. If this happens the quality and credibility of the service will suffer, and the image of social work will be damaged as well. A programme of industrial social work services should be properly planned and implemented over time in order for it to be stabilised eventually. This will ensure that the development of the programme can be controlled, and that adjustments will be possible because

the set goals can be used as criteria for assessment. A properly planned programme should also ensure greater accountability, because industry would like to see concrete results for the money they have invested in the programme. This does not imply that all industrial social work programmes should or must develop identically. This is not possible because of different needs and circumstances of every organisation employing people. However, a few common guidelines can be identified.

Hirsch and Lurie (1959:86) refer to this first phase of establishing a hospital social work department as the organisational period existing of an administrative and professional aspect. They define the administrative aspect as the period during which a social service department has been formed by acquiring the allotted equipment, spaces and staff, and formal structure to implement the programme of social work. They regard the professional aspect as been completed when this structure is being utilised to provide the necessary services.

From the above it is clear that the two most distinct goals of the social worker in industry in the beginning phase will be to (1) establish the social work unit and (2) develop the social work programme. These two aspects are closely related because the professional service cannot function without the organisational structure. To some extent, these two processes will run concurrently because professional services cannot wait until the administrative structures are in place. It should also be kept in mind that the introduction of a social work service in any host setting represents the addition of something new to the existing order, and that might cause mild or strong resistance from the bigger system. The necessity to establish structure requires some administrative and planning skills from the social worker, something which should be part of his equipment when he enters

industry for the first time.

The planning process must be guided by a clear vision of ultimate goals. In this case the end goal would be a social work service which is institutionalised with a steady clientele and "a group of past beneficiaries who will serve witness to the need for, and the assistance provided by, the program" (Patti, 1983:155). The services of the unit must thus be well utilised by the employees, and the work of the unit should be known well in the organisation, with a proper understanding of the goals of such a service. It is important that these goals be defined in clear terms to be understood, by management especially. The goals must also be linked to the goals of the organisation in order to validate the presence of the social worker.

Guidelines for the introduction of Employee Assistance Programmes will be useful for the introduction of a social work service as well, because of large areas of overlapping. Therefore reference in this chapter will often be made to EAP literature. EAP's are also human service programmes and industrial social work can be implemented within an EAP framework. Googins confirms this as followings:

" Employee assistance programs in business and industry offer social work the opportunity to intervene in the world of work. They present a challenge to develop a social service network and a new field in which to deliver service." (1975:46)

This is in line with Sonnenstuhl and O'Donnell (1980:35) stating that EAP's provide a formal structure that helps employees get counselling and clinical services for their health and personal problems. This structure complements other programmes by providing a method for disentangling employee problems from routine personnel concerns.

Roman (1983:9) also feels that social work constitutes one of the main

professions providing staff for EAP service positions. In his study on EAP's in South Africa, Terblanche (1988:409-412) found that personnel practitioners are mostly used to staff EAP,s while the biggest single group of directors of these programmes were social workers.

3. EXPLORING THE ORGANISATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

3.1 Entry

Industry must be approached in the same way as a community worker would approach a new community. Industrial organisations can be regarded as functional communities. Apart from being a functional community, it is also located in the broader community of which it is part, and this should be considered by the social worker. This is echoed in the following view of Jones (1983:18):

"The entrance into an industrial setting is not unlike the process of entry into a community for a new community worker, and the industrial social worker may seek guidance from community work texts and experience to identify the parallels in both processes."

The same author (1983) identifies the following factors which will affect the process of entry of the social worker into the organisation: whether a social work service already exists or not; the presenting reason for employment of the social worker; management's brief and whether or not the social worker has a job description or is allowed to develop one - there will usually be an element of both. Other factors are the hierarchical grading into which the social worker is formally slotted, the personality, personal preference and previous experience of the social worker and the image and fantasies employees and management hold about social work are also important as are the nature, size and location of the organisation.

Many generic planning models according to which the social worker may develop the industrial social work service exist in the literature. Henderson and Thomas (1987:320-321) refer to two such generic processes. The first one is the "planned change" model of Lippert, Watson and Westley, and the second one is the much quoted model proposed by Pincus and Minahan. Both will serve any planning purpose equally well, and the following steps can be identified: (1) establishment of a change relationship; (2) data collection; (3) assessment; (4) negotiating contracts; (5) forming action systems; (6) maintaining and co-ordinating action systems; (7) exercising influence; (8) terminating the change effort. Using a systems approach in establishing and maintaining an industrial social work programme will also help to make the identification of the significant groupings and persons easier.

A useful framework to guide the process of implementation of social work into industry is the framework for the development of a welfare programme proposed by Rino Patti (1983). He divides this process into a design stage, implementation stage, and stabilisation stage. The generic nature of this model makes it useful as a guide for the implementation of industrial social work services, and is a good reflection of the process that will have to be followed to implement social work services in industry. A further advantage is that other models can be incorporated into Patti's framework.

3.2 Orientation

In the design stage, according to Patti (1983:63) the programme manager confronts "the challenge of converting what is still an assemblage of ideas and resources into a functional entity with the potential of delivering social services."

The fact that the host for industrial social work services (industry) is not a welfare organisation, gives the social worker the additional task of familiarising himself with his surroundings in industry. Jones (1983:16) refers to this as the "orientation" period during which time the social worker must get familiar with the setting in which he is going to work. In order to achieve this, the social worker must learn as much as possible about the nature of the organisation. That includes the formal as well as informal aspects of the organisation.

Orientation, according to Jones (1983) implies that the social worker must meet as many heads of departments and line managers as possible. A problem in this regard in industry is that there would be no social work supervisor who can assist the social worker to find his feet and guide him in his exploration of the organisation as would be the case with a new social worker in a welfare agency. He would thus have to rely on staff members of a different kind, who would in all likelihood not understand the value and function of social work in industry. They will have to be "converted" before any co-operation could be expected from them. These activities of the social worker have no other goal than to explore the organisational environment as an employee, with the purpose of designing the social work programme that must grow and develop in this environment.

Part of the orientation will also be to identify the different kinds of personnel the social worker will have to work with. There will be several groups of staff, both professional and non-professional that the worker will have to co-operate with. This is what Jones (1983:17) refers to as entangling alliances. It is the setting up of working relationships with colleagues in the organisation in order to establish a base for practice and develop support for the programme. This would include a period of role negotiation

during which the social worker will be met with a fair amount of hostility, because of the newness of the role of the social worker. The process of getting acquainted with the environment may take considerable time, because organisations could be very complex.

3.2.1 Reasons for appointing a social worker

Another task of the social worker is to research the reasons which gave rise to the appointment of a social worker. There should be memoranda and written records in this regard. According to the proceedings of a national conference on industrial social work (Akabas, et al, 1978:15) the participants felt that there could be various reasons for appointing a social worker. They felt that employing a social worker was often influenced by personal relationships, the example of the competition, or a sense of noblesse oblige on the part of a key organisation figure. If the appointment was the result of a need survey, the consequent action of the social worker would be different as would be the case, had the appointment been an effort to "keep up with the Jones' ". The reasons for appointing a social worker will influence the attitude of key persons in the organisation towards social work, a fact the social worker will only be able to assess eventually.

It is often the case with the introduction of employee assistance programmes that the programme is started because of the need to address a particular problem like alcoholism, or drug addiction. It then eventually fans out to address other problem areas as well.

3.2.2 A Job Description

It is essential that the industrial social worker works from a formal job

description because it provides him with a sound basis for practice in industry. It will also help to define his function in industry and can be regarded as a planning tool. The social worker must enquire about a job description. It may be that none exists, even if a social worker has been employed before. The problem in this regard is that industry does not necessarily possess the experts to do a job analysis of the job of a social worker. If this cannot be done, it will be impossible to do either a job description or job specification. In the case of such an event, the social worker must ascertain whether he will be allowed to draw up his own job description. This has several advantages, the biggest one being that he can use his own initiative to write a job description according to the goals and principles of industrial social work.

Sayles, et al (1986:150) states that a job description concerns itself with the contents of the job: tasks, working conditions and responsibilities. Job specification refers to experience, education and skills. This is in line with the thinking of Akabas and Kurzman (1982:201) who hold the view that the job description of an industrial welfare specialist should be based on an analysis of the work that should be done, including a statement of objectives, duties and relationships, and expected results. It should furthermore translate the task description into a statement of the desirable training, experience, and characteristics of an appropriate candidate.

The industrial social worker cannot expect to be provided with a comprehensive description when the service is still developing. A detailed job description can only be developed over the course of time, and after a careful job analysis. The social worker himself will have to provide active input in the design of a job description because he will be the only "expert" as far as industrial social work is concerned.

An example of a job description for an industrial social worker by Bargal and Shamir (1984) is included in Appendix M.

4. DESIGNING THE PROGRAMME

The design of the industrial social work programme starts in the beginning stage when important groundwork is laid. The organisational context of industrial social work practice is of crucial importance as a result of the fact that it exerts an important influence on the programme to be followed.

4.1 The organisational context

Apart from knowledge and understanding about the reasons for the appointment of a social worker in the organisation, it is also important to understand the source of impetus for the creation of the programme. Where social workers are employed by the management of an organisation and not a trade union, the decision to appoint a social worker will always come from management, because only management has that kind of authority. However, the initiative for the creation of the programme may come from any one of three sources . These are sources external to the organisation, organisational leaders, or from persons in lower levels of the organisation (Patti,1983). Although it has been said that industrial social work can also be promoted from outside it will be rare indeed if the impetus came from outside sources, mainly because industry would like to "mind its own business". Impetus from outside may be presented in the form of research findings, and publicity for this field of practice. It is unlikely, however, that it would come from a particular outside body. The only exception in this regard is trade unions, but these bodies are generally regarded as being part of industry and the labour scene in general. They thus cannot really be looked upon as "outside

bodies". It is also possible that a particular company might appoint a social worker by following the example of other companies.

Patti (1983) states that impetus from organisational leaders may come as a result of a perception of an unmet need in the community, the availability of new funds which allow for organisational growth and stabilisation, or a desire to alter the direction or goals of an agency, or an interest in experimenting with a service innovation or new technology. In South Africa impetus for industrial social work programmes comes predominantly from organisational leaders. Industrial and organisational leaders are becoming increasingly aware of the social and individual needs of employees, and this might result in the appointment of a social worker.

It is possible that impetus may also come from persons in lower levels of the organisation. It is also conceivable that employees from one organisation may be influenced by employees of another organisation where a social worker is employed.

Patti (1983) stresses that a new programme commences when an agency policy or directive has been formulated, authorising its establishment and setting its broad goals and purposes. This mandate will recognise the need for a new service, indication of the population to be served, and the outcomes expected. In industry, this mandate will be given by management. Although it is important for the social worker to understand this mandate, it is unlikely that it will be formulated in detailed form, mainly because of uncertainty of the potential role social work can play in industry. It will be the responsibility of the social worker to elaborate the intent of the sanction and bring it to expression. The values embodied in the sanction is of particular importance because that will have a profound influence on any

social work programme emanating from it. Social work must fulfill its function within the framework of its values.

It is possible that the management staff of the organisation will exert a disproportionate influence on the programme at this early stage of development because of their knowledge of organisational expectations, their prestige and their ability to acquire and allocate funds. This will be especially true of the management of the section where the social worker will be slotted in. Generally, this is the medical, personnel, or industrial relations section. These staff members will be able to help the social worker by virtue of their knowledge of the organisation, and the philosophy of that particular section. It can be assumed that they were actively involved in the planning to appoint a social worker. They will also be in a position to provide the social worker with the necessary background information relating to the position.

Another important organisational feature affecting the social work programme is how it is perceived by other units in the organisation. If the social work unit is seen as a threat or rival or competition to other units, they may withhold their full cooperation until the effects of the programme on their own operations become clear. This will especially be true about units with functions related or similar to the activities and functions of the social work programme. If the programme is seen as positive, the reception is likely to be more positive (Patti, 1983).

5. MAJOR TASKS OF THE SOCIAL WORKER IN THE BEGINNING STAGE

Patti (1983) outlines two major management tasks of the social worker at this stage of the programme: planning and resource acquisition.

5.1 Planning

"The planning task in the design stage basically involves translating the authorizing policy or strategic plan into a working model that is sufficiently detailed to guide implementation and provide a basis for assessing subsequent performance." (Patti, 1983:69)

Planning is generally regarded as the most important and basic management function, because everything that is done must be planned. The industrial social worker, being the manager of the industrial social work unit, must also understand this. According to Patti (1983), planning serves the following important functions:

- It provides an essential framework within which to make a series of secondary decisions;
- It sets forth explicit objectives and standards against which to monitor and assess the actual performance of the programme;
- The plan will also give the organisational leaders the opportunity to appraise it, in order to decide whether to support it and commit the resources;
- It will also serve as a basis on which other units and organisations in the community can make decisions about it.

Patti (1983) regards the plan as consisting of needs assessment, objectives, intervention strategies, and resources.

5.1.1 Assessing needs in the workplace

The industrial social work programme must be a response to psychosocial needs of employees. The community in this case will be the functional community of the organisation, including the community of employees, and the outside community.

The concept of need stands very central in social work practice. A need is described by Johnson (1986:7) as that which is necessary for either a person or a social system to function within reasonable expectations for the person

or social system. A lack of a need inhibits the development or functioning of the person or system.

People have basic needs as human beings, but specific needs are also manifested in the work place (cf. ch 3). It is however important to stress that the industrial social worker must be familiar with the concept of need, and how they are manifested in industry.

A thorough, systematic need assessment in the workplace is essential because the industrial social worker cannot base his intervention entirely on assumptions. Some research findings exist on the kind of needs and problems experienced by employees in industry, but the situation in a particular company must be explored systematically. Naturally the social worker cannot wait until needs have been established before he starts offering a service. Clients will find their way to his office before needs have been established.

Patti (1983) lists the important functions that need assessments serve. First, in the absence of good information about problems confronting potential clients (employees in industry) there is a tendency among human service professionals to foreclose on the types of services that will be provided. Service thus becomes the focal point of programme design while the relationship between service and outcome are relegated to secondary importance. When this occurs, the opportunity to consider a variety of alternatives to meeting needs is often lost in a premature preoccupation with implementing solutions. In the process, clients often come to be defined in terms of the services provided, and not the reverse. This is particularly true for industry where the social worker will be restricted by the setting regarding the variety of intervention modes that can be used. There is at present a clear tendency to focus on traditional casework which only means

that a full service is not being offered to the worker. A unique situation exists in industry that the social worker's non-social work superiors cannot comment on the nature and quality of the service being rendered, because of its specialised nature. This demands clear accountability from the social worker.

A needs assessment can also serve as a valuable source of baseline information that can at some later point be used to assess programme impact (Patti, 1983). Programme objectives derived from a sophisticated understanding of the nature and magnitude of the problems to be addressed serve as a realistic criteria against which programme performance can later be evaluated. Information regarding client needs can also be used for programme advocacy (Patti, 1983). If armed with systematic information regarding the extent and severity of the problems in the worker community and the potential demand for services, the social worker will be in a much better position to argue for resources, jurisdiction, increased authority, and the like.

Methods of needs assessment

A wide variety of techniques are available to assess community needs, whether they are diagnostic or prescriptive. Again, they will have to be adapted to the particular situation, in this case industry. There are also formal and more informal ways of collecting data for a needs assessment. The most important methods are (1) using available research, (2) service providers as information sources, (3) potential clients as information sources, (4) and informal methods of needs assessment.

5.1.2 Setting objectives

The setting of objectives can be regarded as the most crucial part of the programme, because without objectives, there will not be a basis for selecting the intervention modes. Objectives will also provide the industrial social worker with the opportunity to maintain an eclectic approach towards the problems experienced by employees in industry.

According to Rex Skidmore, (1983:46) objectives relate to destinations, goals or targets. They relate to the purposes and policies of the agency. Skidmore (1983) identifies two kinds of objectives: (1) overall and long-range and specific and short-range. In this regard, Patti (1983) distinguishes between goals and objectives, but the meanings remain the same. The overall goals have to do with why the agency was established and what its purpose is for existing. According to Patti (1983) they are statements that express a programme's long range intent to eliminate, reduce or ameliorate a problem or need in a community. In industry or workplace, it would be the community of workers, and, depending on the policies of the organisation, also some problems in the geographic community affecting the workers. Short-term or specific objectives involve the present and immediate future. They are operationalised statements of programme intent that express in specific, observable, preferably measurable terms, those changes (outcomes) the programme seeks to produce within some designated time period. This kind of objective, according to Skidmore (1983) deals with the immediate present, and is particularly important in the daily administration of the social work agency.

According to Patti (1983) a number of important issues need to be considered in arriving at goals and objectives. They are: the nature of the evidence

regarding (worker) community needs; the extent to which program objectives are consistent with the policy mandate; the extent to which programme objectives are supported by the host organisation; and the degree of agreement regarding objectives that exist among the major programme constituents and staff.

South African circumstances will determine the objectives of any industrial social work programme in local industries. Reference has been made in chapter two to circumstances in the South African labour field which will determine the role social work can play in industry.

5.1.3 Intervention strategies

The third important element of the plan is a determination of the service strategies that will be employed to achieve the desired outcomes. This aspect is regarded as so important that it will be dealt with in a separate chapter. A wide variety of social work intervention theories are available as well as borrowed practice theories. The main purpose of the industrial social worker in this regard will be to make an assessment of the intervention models that will be relevant to the industrial situation, and will be acceptable to industry.

The planning of intervention strategies deserves special attention because of the nature of industrial and work settings. The same strategies that work outside in the community will not necessarily work here, and a careful assessment needs to be done.

As far as intervention is concerned, there are five target groups to be considered. They are the individual workers, groups of workers, the

organisation itself as a target for change, the total community of employees, and the outside community. A close interaction exists between these different systems. Careful consideration has to be given to the kind of practice theories that will work with each of these target groups. At this stage it should be stressed that it is of the utmost importance that an eclectic approach be followed as far as choice of treatment modalities are concerned, because of the particular circumstances affecting individual companies. Intervention strategies will have to be adjusted accordingly, and the eclectic social worker will be able to render a better service than the colleague who clings to a particular model.

Intervention strategies to be followed will be determined by (1) the kind of problems experienced by employees, (2) the training and approach of the worker, and (3) what will be acceptable to industry.

5.1.4 Determining resources

"The final element of the program plan concerns the resources necessary to support and implement the intervention strategy chosen" (Patti, 1983:81). This includes finances, personnel, facilities, equipment and supplies. In industry and business, where money is an important commodity, it is important to plan properly when costs are involved. The industrial social work service must be financially viable.

The cost of the unit will have to be calculated carefully. In industry, it will be mainly the administrative costs of running the unit, and staff salaries.

A crucial dimension of this aspect of the planning is the community resources

that will have to be utilised in order to achieve the objectives of the programme. A main category in this regard is welfare organisations in the community. There are however, other resources like hospitals, libraries, schools, recreational facilities if the company does not provide it, self-help groups and other resources and facilities. The need for outside support will also be determined by the kind of programme implemented by the social worker.

5.2 Mobilising the support of superiors .

An industrial social work programme must have the active support of organisational leaders, because they have authorised and initiated the programme originally.

5.2.1 Interactional dimension of planning

For this purpose the social worker should understand the socio-political environment of the organisation in which the programme is planned. This relates to the interactional dimension of planning. The interactive dimensions of planning are primarily intended to obtain acceptance of the plan by others. They grow out of the relationship of the planner to significant environmental factors and present sets of inter-organisational networks.

Googins et al (1983:275) suggest that the concepts of context, self and conditions characterised the planners interaction with the socio-political environment. The first concept focuses on the context or environment in which the planner interacts. This context represents a system of dynamic forces, including the planner, that is constantly interacting. They often

are beyond the control of the planner, but they must be understood and incorporated into the planner's assessment and action if the planning process is to be effective. This means that the industrial social worker should make an assessment of the forces operating in the socio-political environment of the organisation where he is employed and incorporate that knowledge into his planning of the social work programme. That includes the formal as well as the informal contexts, the space, place, history, mores, values and culture of the environment.

The second concept of the self (Googins, 1983:275) encompasses qualities of the planner that are both necessary and sufficient to the execution of planning activities and interaction with the environment. The planner brings his unique constellation of personality, abilities, skills, attitudes and manners to the planning episodes. This means that the personal style of the planner becomes a determinant of success in the planning process.

The last concept is that of conditions (Googins, 1983:275). These conditions encompass roles, rules and resources. As far as roles are concerned, the planner in the beginning stage often operates as a fact finder and does not interact with other relevant parties. In later stage of implementation the role often demands more political and interactional skills.

Rules relate to the rules of conduct in any planning episode. These rules are socially agreed upon guidelines of behaviour, and should be respected by the planner.

Googins et al (1983) states that this framework's major purpose is to assist the planner to become more aware of the interactive dimensions surrounding all planning activities and more intentional in incorporating these elements

of context, self and conditions. According to the authors, this framework has two major uses: that of prospective diagnosis and of evaluation. The interactive framework used prospectively assist planners in diagnosing the degree to which the context, the planners themselves, and the conditions will have to be dealt with in the planning process. As an evaluation tool its usefulness lies in assessing interactional components systematically and its ability to assist the planner in determining the strengths and weaknesses of past effort. As an evaluation tool, the framework provides the planner with a means of weighing process and outcome from an interactional perspective.

All the above means that the social worker involved in the planning of an industrial social work service will have to consider the human relations aspect of planning - the fact that planning cannot be done without significant others. These aspects are directly related to organisational politics, to be discussed in the following section.

5.2.2 Organisational politics

Interactional planning refers to the relationship of the planner with the socio-political environment of the organisation. This section more specifically deals with the political environment itself. This refers to decision-making and how people get and keep power in the organisation. It is essential that the industrial social worker knows and understands something about organisational politics for two reasons. He should first understand what it is all about in order to negotiate the political environment with a view to establishing a professional service. Secondly, the social work unit also becomes part of this same environment and the political processes will also determine whether the social work unit itself will acquire some influence. Organisational politics refers to organisational power, and the

social worker should become an organisational politician. Gummer and Edwards (1985:17) state that the ability to identify sources of organisational power that can be used to produce support for desired policies and programmes is an essential skill for the organisational politician. Not alone will the social worker find it necessary to establish support for the unit and its programmes in general, he must also find support for a particular programme, focusing on a particular need identified amongst the employees of the organisation.

Hasenfeld (1983) lists two other sources of organisational power. Firstly, individuals and groups in an organisation may acquire power as a result of their external links with powerful elements in the environment. Power may secondly also be acquired through the possession of special skills and expertise essential to the management or control of a core technology that cannot readily be replaced. Not alone must the social worker know and understand these sources of power, but he must also know what the sources of his own power might be. That all depends in the first place on the position and status granted to the social work unit by management, and the very important aspect of the personality of the worker. Reward and coercive power the social worker would not have much of, mainly because that can be regarded as emanating from a line position. The social worker will only have those kind of power in relation to the staff in his own unit, and only if he is in control. Positional power will be determined by the social work unit in relation to line. The social work unit is likely to have a staff or advisory function, and will not be in a position to issue orders to any line functionaries.

6. EXPLORING THE ENVIRONMENT EXTERNAL TO THE ORGANISATION

It was stated earlier (3.1) that the industrial organisation employing the social worker is in and by itself a community, but that it is also located in a community. It is thus important that the social worker also explores the community where the organisation is situated, especially to understand its needs, structures and resources, and supports. This is because the social worker's communications and contacts permeate the natural boundaries of the organisation, and that the industrial social work unit will be dependent upon the external environment for the achievement of its objectives. In this regard, Peter J D Drenth, et al comments as follows:

"Much is happening beyond these boundaries that influences events within organizations and in which they are directly involved. The organization itself as well as its various departments, groups, or even individuals are in continuous communication with what goes on beyond the gates". (1984:1069)

Hasenfeld (1983:51) follows Hall (1977) in differentiating between the general environment and the task environment of the organisation. The general environment denotes those conditions in the environment - economic, demographic, cultural, political-legal, and technological- that affects all organisations and must be assumed as given. The task environment refers to a specific set of organisations and groups with which the organisation exchanges.

Jackson and Morgan (1982:249) identify the following characteristics of the external environment of the organisation: social, ecological, legal, cultural\religious, political, economic, psychological, international and physical. This is very similar to the analysis of Hall (1977) and provides a good framework for the social worker to follow. It also gives the social worker the opportunity to use an eclectic approach because it provides a

basis for decision of the most relevant characteristics for the social work purpose. It is especially the opportunities and resources related to these characteristics that have special meaning for the social worker.

SUMMARY

In this chapter an overview was given of the design stage of the process of implementation and establishing an industrial social work unit in the secondary setting of industry. The next chapter will be used to describe the particular ways in which a referral system for industrial social work should be established.

CHAPTER 5

ESTABLISHING A REFERRAL SYSTEM IN INDUSTRY

Before any service to the employee by the industrial social worker can be rendered, troubled employees must be brought in contact with the social worker. A connecting line between the employee and the social work service must be established in the form of a referral system. The employees should be helped and encouraged to make use of available social work or EAP services via this referral system. It involves a process of education and training and represents the first stages of implementation of the programme.

The activities described in the present chapter should be seen as being closely related to those of the first chapter. They are separated for analytical reasons only, but are one integrated process in practice, leading to an established programme of occupational/industrial social work. When the stage of establishing a referral system is reached, some very important groundwork described in the previous chapter should have been completed by the social worker.

The eventual goal of the social worker is to get an overall view of the total needs of the workforce of a particular organisation in order to render a comprehensive and relevant social work service. Therefore, it is important that the social worker provides the necessary access to services. According to Gould and Smith, (1988:46) the following tasks need to be addressed in order to develop a proper referral system:

- (1) Policy making.
- (2) Workforce education.
- (3) Supervisory training.

- (4) Supervisory consultation.
- (5) Supervisory feedback.
- (6) Evaluation.

This framework covers the necessary steps of developing a referral system. It is also in line with steps suggested by other authors for developing an EAP system.

1. POLICYMAKING

Planning for referrals should begin during the initial planning for an EAP itself. Masi (1984:26) suggests the following comprehensive list of items a policy statement should include:

- The purpose of the policy;
- Organisational mandates for such a programme and the source of authority under which the policy has been written;
- Location of the programme;
- The eligibility of the employees for the programme's services;
- The integration of the programme into the overall management system of the organisation;
- A delineation of the procedures for the programme's use, especially the use of leave time to participate in the programme;
- The record-keeping procedures, which must emphasise confidentiality;
- The criteria for professionally staffing the programme;
- The importance of and procedures for supervisory training;
- Provisions for an evaluation of the programme;
- The statement that an employee's participation in the EAP will not jeopardise his or her future opportunities.

This is very similar to what Gould and Smith (1988:47) propose as a framework within which the specific tasks associated with promoting effective referrals

to the EAP can be played out. They also feel that the occupational social worker has the opportunity to take part in these decisions.

The four major types of referrals identified by Gould and Smith (1988:47) are self-referral, referrals by supervisors, indirect referrals, and referrals by peers and family. Each type is discussed below.

1.1 Self-referrals

Self-referrals, according to Gould and Smith (1988:47) seem to be an increasingly common form of utilisation of professional services. This form of referral is when the employee takes the initiative to avail himself of existing services. It has the following advantages:

- It is useful in making referrals easier for more senior employees
- It is useful for broad-brush programmes, because provision is made for a wide variety of problems
- It is a good indication of success of the programme
(Myers, 1984:239; Gould and Smith, 188:48)

Myers (1984:239-241) has further identified the elimination of stigma, assurance of anonymity, employee training and self-analysis as the four factors which are related to self-referral.

Self-referral was also high on the list of types of referrals identified by practitioners in the present study.

1.2 Supervisory referrals

Supervisory referrals should especially be acknowledged by social workers because supervisors have the best chance of observing any problem in employees because of the nature of the supervisory relationship. Gould and

Smith (1988:48) identify informal and formal supervisory referrals. Informal referrals happen when the supervisor refers the employee before his work performance is effected, and are done, according to Myers (1984:231) for humanitarian considerations. They are exceptions to the formal referrals and occur when an employee informs a supervisor about a problem that he is experiencing, or an alert supervisor approaches an employee who appears to need help.

With the formal referral, the supervisor formally responds to employee performance problems and the unassessed personal problem lying behind it. (Myers, 1984:231). The number of supervisory referrals could serve as an indication of the degree of acceptance by supervisors a social work programme enjoys.

Cohen (Gould and Smith, 1988:49) describes a pattern of work deterioration that will be useful to supervisors to identify possible problems in employees.

Myers (1984:231) feels that supervisors have not fully met their confrontation responsibilities which they regard as one of the reasons why a large number of programmes of assistance do not operate at full efficiency. The two main reasons they advance for this are skill deficiencies and rationalisations for avoiding confrontation and referral. The skill deficiencies are insensitivity to employees' problems because of ignorance, poor communication, lack of initiative to confront, excessive stress experienced in confrontation interviews, bad planning, and indecisiveness.

The reasons for avoiding confrontation are as follows:

Supervisors believe employees interpret referrals as judgment.

What employees do outside the organisation is a private matter.

Troubled employees are often the best employees and supervisors are reluctant to confront productive workers.

Supervisors may be reluctant to confront an employee out of fear of a discrimination complaint.

Supervisors feel that they are not equipped to "diagnose" an employee's problems.

Supervisors are reluctant to do anything that will alienate employees (Myers, 1984:233-234).

This clearly indicates a need for training for supervisors as far as the EAP is concerned.

1.3 Indirect referrals

In this case the employee does not make use of the facilities of the employing company, but goes to an outside source. Gould and Smith (1988:50) suggest that this form of referral be permitted in the policymaking phase of those organisations where worker concern over breach of confidentiality appears to present problems. They consider the major advantage of this kind of referral as the extraordinary protection of the worker's right to confidentiality. There are, however, also identified problems. (1) The EAP staff and key management's inability to monitor workers involved in sensitive projects like arms development will be a serious problem. (2) The professional staff cannot get involved in assessment and personalised referral to selected counselling services, and (3) there may be unjustified funding of unscrupulous counsellors for claims for services rendered to employees. Gould and Smith (1988: 50) feel that the social worker has a special responsibility in those organisations where this kind of referral is accepted. He needs to educate the eligible employees about these services, and the kind of problems that are appropriate. They further feel that the social worker should be careful in developing a network of community referral agencies, and practitioners in order to minimise the suspicion of fraudulent

claims.

The present author regards it as desirable that referrals be channeled to the in-house social worker. This person should then decide whether the problem justifies the use of an outside source. It is agreed, however, that the employee must maintain the right to decide on the particular service he wants to use. Employees should be able to trust the social worker employed by the particular company.

The social worker also needs to clarify the advantages and disadvantages of each referral mechanism and help the planning body to select only those mechanisms that best address the needs of the particular organisation. Gould and Smith (1988:51) suggest the use of a variety of referral mechanisms over reliance on only one.

Myers (1984:241-253) elaborates on family referrals. He mentions the fact that family members are usually the first to recognise problems experienced by an employee. Prompt action can prevent considerable suffering and can speed recovery. He suggests the following five stages to be followed in the case of a family referral:

Education

Family members can be educated about various problems through periodic mailings to employees' homes. These mailings usually encourage family members to make use of professional help if they feel that a problem exists that needs attention.

Plan Strategy

Once a family member has identified that an employee has a problem, the next step is to plan a strategy. In this the family can be helped by EAP personnel. It is important that the family be assured that the employee can be helped. Myers (1984:242) quotes Pace suggesting that the family make use of a diary, explaining how the employee's problem interferes with home life, work, and in other ways. This can help them to ventilate their feelings of hostility, frustration and conflict. The diary information can also help the counsellor to learn more about the employee's problems and be better prepared to make an accurate assessment and treatment referral. If it is a social worker that is part of an in-house treatment plan, it will assist in drawing up the treatment plan.

Self-help groups

The value of self-help groups for family members cannot be underestimated, because valuable support are provided by groups like Alanon and Alateen. Family members sometimes contribute to or support an employee's problem, and self-help groups are equipped to deal with this problem and educate family members in how they can change their behaviour.

Making the referral

To help the family making the actual referral it is suggested by Pace (Myers,1984:242) that a rehearsal be held where family members role-plays a planned confrontation. It is suggested that family members should not attempt to discuss the referral with the employee until they feel ready. At the time he is confronted he attempts to get him to agree to a joint interview with the counsellor.

Support treatment

In the last stage, the family must be encouraged to support the treatment and not work against it. It is stressed by Myers (1984:243) that it often happens that a family may reinforce the problem of the employee by preventing him from suffering the consequences of his own behaviour.

It is however, questionable whether the social worker will have the kind of access to the family so as to make the proposed system of family education possible. In the case of individual families it might be possible to achieve this over the course of time.

1.4 Peer referrals

Myers excludes formal supervisory referrals from peer referrals, and defines this kind of referral as follows: "Peer referrals encompass efforts by co-workers and colleagues to confront and motivate troubled employees to seek assistance" (1984:243). It is also regarded by experts as having the best potential for early prevention and intervention. Three reasons for this are given: (1) Many jobs are immune from the traditional employer confrontation model; (2) There is an increasing growth of self-help assistance among professional, union, and other organisations; (3) EAP researchers and practitioners are educating people in their responsibilities and ways of helping their troubled colleagues get assistance (Myers, 1984:243).

Myers (1984:248-249) lists five different forms of employee assistance used for the referral of professionals. The first form of referral is a modification of the conventional EAP confrontation model where self-referral is emphasised. To promote self-referrals, professionals are periodically

informed about problem symptoms and are provided with information about services available to assist those who need help. The remaining four forms are variations of a professional assistance model sometimes referred to as professional assistance committees. They are referred to as the voluntary model, the secondary model, the confrontation model, and the disciplinary/grievance model.

The voluntary model accepts only self-referrals and the service is initiated by the professional himself. The secondary model serves as an information centre for associates and family members of the troubled professional. The caller receives advice concerning how the troubled professional can be motivated through confrontation to seek treatment. The confrontation model is an extension of the secondary model in that a committee is selected to investigate the information received from the caller. The committee interviews the troubled professional's associates to determine the validity of the allegation. If substantiated, the professional is confronted and he/she is helped to seek assistance. The disciplinary/grievance model is an extension of the confrontation model in that the confronting committee members have the threat of disciplinary action to compel the troubled professional to seek help (Myers,1984:248-249).

The last form of referral dealt with by Myers (1984) is that of union referral. He feels that union representatives have an excellent opportunity to detect troubled employees who need help. If this referral source can be developed, it will improve the effectiveness of professional help to employees. Unions have several methods to detect troubled employees. Members can report troubled employees to the union, the welfare committee can refer employees for assistance, and grievance handling provide unique opportunities to identify employees with problems (Myers, 1984:250). In the

present research unions as sources of referral was placed last on the list in terms of frequency of referrals received.

Regardless of the peculiarities of each individual referral type, it is important that all kinds of referrals be allowed so as to ensure the highest possible referral rate to the social worker.

2. WORKFORCE EDUCATION

Any EAP or industrial social work programme will only work if the employees make use of it. The workforce will only make use of professional helping services if they understand the benefits of it very well. This makes the task of workforce education essential. The latter task will contribute towards the creation of a climate or atmosphere in which the employees will feel free to make use of services offered.

Workforce or employee education means familiarising all intended target groups with the existence and potential benefits of social work or EAP services. A related task is that of selling the services or developing support for it. This should result in more referrals (Gould and Smith, 1988:51).

Education of the employees involve formal as well as informal elements, and the social worker should pay attention to both. The formal role of the social worker involves disseminating information about the purposes, policies, programming and procedures of EAP. It is especially important for the social worker to stress the different routes open to gain access to EAP services, and the kind of human problems for which assistance can be given. It is also important to emphasise the protection of client confidentiality,

and the fundamental role of the EAP as a helping resource for workers and other groups (Gould and Smith, 1988:51). This aspect is referred to by Feinstein and Okrasinski (1983:7) as 'continuing information', something which they regard as one of the components of a comprehensive EAP. In their minds it is good public relations to raise the awareness levels of the employees to the programme through posters, talks at lunchtime on a variety of topics, newsletters, and so forth. A principle of education programmes is embodied in the following views of Sonnenstuhl and O'Donnell:

"Today's employee health education and prevention programs teach employees to take responsibility for their health, to recognize the early signs of a problem and to refer themselves for help before the problem becomes a crisis for the individual and the organization." (1980:36)

Another option mentioned by the same authors is to focus the educational campaign on a particular problem once its been identified. This can be done by posters, brochures, published articles in the company magazine, and through seminars and workshops.

Then there is the informal aspect of the social worker selling her or himself to all employees in addition to selling the EAP concept. Even if services of EAP are well known and attractive, it is still important that no psychological barriers must exist in the form of distant or unknown EAP staff. In this regard, Gould and Smith (1988:51) have the following view:

"Consequently, the occupational social worker needs to intentionally market himself or herself to employees at all levels of the organization. It is best that the social worker be viewed as approachable, professionally competent, and ethical, committed to the EAP and the workforce it serves, and neutral insofar management-union troubles are concerned."

This they feel can be achieved through frequent visits to various worksites, seminars, use of the company cafeteria, newsletters and photographs on the company bulletin boards, and a host of other methods. This should help to

reduce the psychological and informational barriers of access to EAP, which in turn should increase referrals. In the present survey, informing the employees about the role of the social worker was identified as one of the tasks executed by them.

3. SUPERVISORY TRAINING

In the development, implementation, maintenance and evaluation of any industrial/occupational social work programme, regardless of whether it is part of an EAP or not, supervisors are key actors. They are in a strategic position to identify employees experiencing problems. They are also instrumental in implementing the EAP. For this reason, supervisors should understand EAP very well, especially the referral procedure.

Before supervisory training in particular is discussed something about training in general should be said. Training is one of the functions of management. The social worker should know something about all the management functions, but should in particular understand the philosophy, purposes and methods of training as one of the processes leading to an effective EAP maintained by skilled staff. Supervisory training for EAP's should be focused on what is desirable for the supervisor to know about EAP, but it should happen within the broad training framework of the organisation. In the industrial setting, training skills represent another example of specific knowledge the social worker in industry should possess.

3.1 Components of training

Mondy and Noe (1981:249) discuss the following steps as part of the training process: determination of training and development needs; establish

specific objectives; select appropriate methods; select appropriate media; implement the programme, and evaluate the results.

3.1.1 Determination of training and development needs

Meggison (1981:211) divides the process of **identification of needs** into three basic steps which are (1) the identification of the skills needed, (2) analysing employee skills and comparing them with the skills needed, and (3) selecting methods of developing the needed skills.

The process of training should start with the **identification of training needs**. In this regard, several methods can be used. French (1982:366-369) quotes Steadham as listing the following nine methods: observation, questionnaires, key consultation, printed media, interviews, group discussion, tests, records and reports, and work samples. French himself (1982:365) lists interviews, questionnaires, group discussions and work samples. It should be kept in mind that the social worker in industry are not concerned about the total skills repertoire of the supervisor, but only insofar as it relates to a helping relationship with the employee. It also stops at referral, because the role of the supervisor is limited in this respect. The supervisor is only needed to get the helping process going, and to help with the monitoring of the performance of the employee after he has received help. This however, does not distract anything from the importance of the role of the supervisor in the industrial social work programme.

An analysis of job performance may show that an employee is not doing a job properly, and this will lead to an identification of deficiencies to be corrected. A problem with a job description of a supervisor providing for involvement in EAP, is that skills needed to help to execute the EAP are

different from the skills the supervisor needs to fulfill his line function. If he does not possess the necessary relationship skills, or his functioning is inadequate in his EAP role, disciplinary action cannot be taken against him, because that will run counter to the EAP philosophy.

The skills needed during referral will greatly be determined by the tasks necessary to make an effective referral. An important task of the social worker is to make an assessment of the skills in human relations possessed by the supervisors. Different supervisors will have different styles in dealing with a referral, and this should be accepted by the social worker.

Various methods can be employed to make an assessment of the human relationship skills of the supervisors, and their understanding of human nature. One way will be an interview with their superiors during which time the social worker can form some kind of an idea of the kind of person the supervisor is. Another method will be to consult the personal files of the supervisors, and in particular the outcomes of previous performance appraisals. Once training needs have been determined, any of the above methods, preferably in combination, can be used to achieve the goals of the training programme. It is important, however, that skills in human relationships cannot be regarded as a substitute for the basic supervisory task of the supervisor. He must still be able to use his authority for the production targets of the company to be met. This still remains his main function.

3.1.2 Setting of objectives for training

Objectives are the end results to be achieved and it is important that clear and concise training objectives be formulated. Supervisory training for EAP

referrals are of such importance for the success of the programme that it cannot be based on a trial-and-error basis. The training programme will be based on the assessment made of the training needs of the supervisors and will also be related to the objectives of the EAP.

In planning the training programme for supervisors, consideration should be given to all aspects that will enable a supervisor to become a reliable resource in the total EAP configuration used by the particular company or organisation.

3.1.3 Selecting the appropriate methods

Recognised **training methods** are identified by various authors (Megginson, 1981; Mondy and Noe, 1981; Halloran, 1981). They are coaching, simulation games, case studies, conferences, behaviour modeling, in-basket training, internships, role playing, job rotation, programmed instruction, computer assisted instruction, classroom lectures, transactional analysis, assertiveness training, apprenticeship, and audio-visual methods. There is thus a wide variety of methods available for training purposes.

3.1.4 Selecting the appropriate media

Training media are the particular methods used to communicate ideas and concepts in the training programme. Mondy and Noe (1981:256-257) list the following examples: audiotapes, videotapes, films, closed-circuit television, slide projectors, overhead and opaque projectors, filmcharts, chalkboards and slapboards. The social worker, however, should experiment with different media available to establish what works the best. It is important that the occupational social worker makes an eclectic use of these methods in order to

make training efficient, effective and economical. The purpose of the particular training programme will determine the media used.

3.1.5 Implementing the programme

Mondy and Noe (1981:267) feel that a perfectly conceived programme can fail if the participants are not sold on its methods. They must be convinced that the programme has value and that it will assist them in achieving their personal and professional goals. This will especially be true for occupational social work when supervisors will have to be convinced that the activity now expected of them will help them to fulfill their role more effectively.

Mondy and Noe (1981: 267) also stress that in implementation of the training programme it is important that it be monitored carefully, especially during the initial phases. The resistance to change should be kept in mind, and also the problem that there may be some people waiting for and wanting the programme to fail. In the case of implementing a professional helping programme like EAP or occupational social work, it is advisable that preparation be done before the training starts. When training starts, the supervisors and management should know exactly what the nature of the programme would be.

3.1.6 Evaluation of the training programme

It must be pointed out that the credibility of the programme is enhanced when it can be shown that the organisation benefitted tangibly. This means evaluation of the programme, which implies feedback. Mondy and Noe (1981: 268) report that organisations have taken several approaches in attempting to

determine the worth of particular programmes. These involve evaluation of: (1) participants' opinion about the programme, (2) the extent to which they have learned the material, (3) their ability to apply the new knowledge, and (4) whether the stated training goals have been reached. Some organisations use the pre-test/post-test control group design. This procedure requires that the same test be used before and after training. A control group and an experimental group are used with trainees assigned at random to each group. The control group does not get any training while the experimental group does. Differences that are shown to exist between the groups after training are attributed to training.

4. CONSULTATION AND FEEDBACK

When an actual referral to the EAP is to be made by the supervisor, he must be helped by the social worker by means of supportive consultation (Gould and Smith, 1988:59).

The particulars of the employee concerned can be provided to the social worker and the nuts and bolts of the referral be worked out.

The EAP counsellor can also deal with the supervisor as a person and can support him or her during what may be a stressful experience (Gould and Smith, 1988:59). The supervisor may need this support because of the demands put onto him by a troubled employee. The supervisor may experience anger, hurt, guilt, isolation, low self-esteem, or confusion.

Consultation also provides the social worker with an opportunity for educating the supervisor about the handling of actual referrals. Apart from assisting the supervisor in dealing with whatever feelings he or she might

have, the appropriateness of the referral can also be discussed and reviewed (Gould and Smith,1988:60). At this time, the supervisor can also be reminded of the nature of worker-supervisor confidentiality and emphasise the limited forms of feedback allowed under EAP policy. This can also be the time for the social worker to coach the supervisor in the behaviour conducive to effective referrals of workers for professional assistance by the social worker.

In this regard knowledge about and experience in social work supervision will not be out of place, because the purposes the industrial social worker wants to achieve with the supervisor in this situation are similar to the purposes the social work supervisor wants to achieve with a social worker.

Gould and Smith (1988:60) stress the fact that the responsibility of the social worker does not end here. The supervisor may still need to know whether the employee has in fact contacted the EAP staff member, what can be expected of the employee's work performance in the days or weeks to come, or what job or scheduling modifications are appropriate. Again, this gives the social worker an opportunity to educate. The supervisor's decision to refer the employee can be reinforced, and the counsellor can instruct the supervisor in what to look for in future encounters with impaired employees having similar performance problems. Within the constraints of confidentiality, supervisors can also be taught basic principles of early identification and appropriate confrontation and referral of troubled employees. This will equip the supervisors with the kind of understanding to enable them to make effective future referrals (Gould and Smith, 1988:60).

5 EVALUATION

Evaluation is an accepted skill in social work intervention because it provides important feedback about the efficiency and effectiveness of the intervention process as well as the competence of the practitioners. The same applies to the evaluation of a programme of services. Compton and Galaway (1989:659) define evaluation as "the application of scientific methods to measure both change processes and the results or outcomes of change efforts."

Masi (1984:195) highlights the importance of evaluating the EAP and points out that programmes must be evaluated to justify their existence to some external authority. She furthermore states that even if this was not the case an evaluation would be important to ascertain the extent to which the programme is reaching its objectives.

The following conditions must be satisfied for the evaluation to measure the impact or outcome of the programme accurately:

1. The programme must establish clear goals and direction.
2. The programme decision makers must agree on what the programme is intended to do.
3. The organisation itself must be supportive of the evaluation.
4. Sufficient funds and a qualified staff must be available to conduct an adequate evaluation. (Masi, 1985:195)

Some of the factors that might be assessed with such an evaluation are effort, effectiveness, accountability, goal definition, documentation, and underlying assumptions (Masi, 1985:195).

Hudson and Grinell (Compton and Galaway, 1989:691-4) explain that programme

evaluation is an excellent example of applied research. The aim of such research would be to provide objective information to decision makers on programmes and their results, thereby assisting in effective practice and the efficient allocation and use of resources. The same authors identify five interrelated categories of programme evaluation that can be carried out. These are (1) front-end analysis; (2) process analysis; (3) evaluability assessment; (4) outcome analysis and (5) programme monitoring.

The above methods however, only evaluate the EAP processes and not the financial aspects. Management will especially be interested in the cost aspects of the programme. In this regard, a cost-benefit analysis and a cost-effectiveness analysis (CBA) should be done. Masi (1984:196) explains that a cost benefit analysis addresses the question of whether an organisation can expect a reasonable return for its investment of resources in a programme in terms of identifiable cost reduction. The evaluation must determine a money value for the benefits EAP provides to the organisation. CBA measures the direct and indirect costs, including programme operational expenses and costs attributable to the employee's problems, in order to determine the total expenditure for implementation of the programme as compared to the costs without the programme. These two amounts are then weighted to determine whether the programme, given its estimate costs, can be justified economically.

Masi (1984:196) mentions that direct costs to industry include absenteeism, medical expenses, disability payments, early pension payments, and supervisory time required for discipline.

A cost-effectiveness analysis quantifies programme outcomes and compares this with the available programme cost (Masi,1984:197). A cost-effectiveness study could be used to show the ratio of money invested to decreases in

absenteeism, without necessarily showing the monetary costs of absenteeism. Cost-effectiveness evaluation can be used to compare alternative EAP strategies against a common outcome, and can represent a viable alternative to the more complex CBA.

SUMMARY

The most strategic aspects of the establishment of a referral system were discussed in this chapter. The referral system provides the connection between the client system and the social work service, and skills in this regard should be considered as crucial for the social worker.

Education of the workforce and training of the supervisors are two significant areas of activity as far as this function of the social worker in industry is concerned. To a large extent this represents an area of specific knowledge for the industrial social worker. The reason for this statement is that the development of a referral system in a host setting is of particular importance, and that skills in this area should be regarded as critical.

The success achieved with this task will to a large extent determine the overall success achieved with the the total programme. Input received by the social worker via this referral system will also form the database for other forms of intervention on other levels.

CHAPTER 6

INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK SERVICES ON THE INDIVIDUAL AND FAMILY LEVEL.

A study of the literature on industrial\occupational social work reveals the emergence of certain trends as far as the services and roles of the industrial social worker is concerned. Most of the literature focuses on the EAP model, concentrating on the individual and the family.

In the present chapter, the focus will be on the individual employee and his family, because that can be regarded as the natural place to start. It is also the most visible kind of service and will at the same time serve as a "launching pad" for services on the other levels. Straussner (1990:8) refers to this approach as the Employee Services Model and comments as follows:

"Within this model falls the variety of programs and direct services aimed at helping workers cope with the various physical, mental, familial, and social problems which either directly or indirectly relate to their roles as workers. Included in this category are the variety of activities and services which fit into the domain of employee assistance programs (EAP's) and member assistance programs (MAP's), as well as a wide range of occupational health prevention and wellness models such as stress management, smoking cessation, preretirement planning, and so on."

The same author states that this model is the most common model used by occupational social workers and the one most likely to utilise traditional social work roles such as counsellor, mediator, advocate and broker.

1. THE APPLICATION OF THE GENERAL METHOD OF SOCIAL WORK

PRACTICE IN INDUSTRY

It is suggested that the problem-solving approach or general method of social work practice be used to organise, direct and plan the professional activities of the industrial social worker on the microlevel. This process

will not be described in detail, but only its applications to industry. The reason for this is that the general method is a generic approach, and thus suitable to various kinds of practice settings.

It is desirable that social workers practising in industry be familiar with several social work practice models and conceptual frameworks, in order to conceptualise their professional activities.

The term "general method" is used by O'Neil (1984:8) to describe a problem-solving approach that is used in general practice. He regards this method as common to all methods and not bound by careful limitations. It is a basic method consisting of purposeful procedures that is ordered into six major stages which are engagement, data collection, assessment, intervention, evaluation and termination. The stages of the method are not mutually exclusive and serve as systematic guidelines for organising the thoughts and actions of workers as they interact with diverse systems. It is a dynamic process composed of clusters of skills according to stages.

The General Method of O'Neil (1984) is based on the problem-solving approach formulated by Perlman in 1959, and expanded upon by numerous other authors (Loewenberg, 1983; Siporin, 1973; Pincus and Minahan, 1973; Compton and Galaway, 1989; Garvin and Seabury, 1984; Simons and Aigner, 1985). O'Neil stresses the fact that this approach can be used with individuals, families, groups and communities, and is not restricted to any particular system. It is based on a systems approach and will therefore be useful in industry to shape and organise the thinking and actions of the industrial social worker. Because there is such a close resemblance in the way the general method is described by the different authors, the framework of O'Neil will suffice for the purposes of this research. A problem in this regard is that not much

literature is available on the application of particular social work practice approaches in industry, a matter that was mentioned by Botha (1968) over two decades ago. This serves to indicate that there is a dire need for further theoretical development in the field of practice of industrial\ occupational social work.

1.1 Engagement.

Regardless of the setting, engagement of the client in a relationship with the professional helper must take place, because it establishes the foundation of the helping process.

In industry, the client is the employee with the problem, and the relationship is with the industrial social worker. The helping process according to Botha (1968:70) starts when the employee experiences a problem or need, and realises that he needs professional assistance and decides to consult the industrial social worker. Provision, however, must also be made for referrals from other sources, so referral must also be accepted from other people. A number of referrals will come from supervisors because of the nature of the task of the supervisor in his relationship with the employee. He is in close contact with the employee and will observe any problems manifested by the employee. A referral may also develop from a performance appraisal, in which case the supervisor will play an important role.

Botha (1968:70) emphasises that the general nature of the problem must be established at this stage, and whether the industrial social worker can assist the employee. That implies a preliminary assessment of the problem. Compton and Galaway (1989:415) suggest that considerable thought be given to

the relationship between the referral source and the client. They warn against accepting the problem definition and outcome goals of the referral source as appropriate to our work with the respondent without examining the meaning of the referral for the clients themselves. That makes consultation, as expressed in the previous chapter, with the supervisor very important. The importance of the relationship with the supervisor cannot be overemphasised, because in many cases, he will be the referral source. As standard practice the referral should be followed up with the supervisor.

If the industrial/occupational social worker feels that he can help the client, a tentative contract (preliminary contract) should be drawn up. One of the terms of this contract should be that further information about the problem should be collected after an initial assessment has been made.

Garvin and Seabury (1984:98) view engagement as the stage during which the problem is specified in greater detail; goals regarding changes in the client, environment, or both are established as ways of solving the problem; and the part of the contract that incorporates these goals as well as the means for containing them is negotiated. They (1984:99) feel that the relationship among clients and between clients and workers must develop to the point that it will sustain the problem-solving work. They furthermore come to the conclusion that the overall objective of this stage is to build a foundation that ensures that the client and worker will work together to attain the client's goals. That means that the client must be helped to remain until goals are attained or until it is evident that this social work encounter does not meet the needs of the client.

Compton and Galaway (1989) see the tasks of this phase as the crossing of system boundaries, defining the problem, goal setting, and establishing the

preliminary contract. The activities they identify as belonging to this stage are engagement and problem definition, definition of problem for work, goals identification, negotiation of preliminary contract, exploration, investigation, data collection, and assessment. Not all authors will agree with this list, but it gives a good indication of what is involved in this crucial stage.

Although the social worker must be clear on the tasks of engagement, they will not be accomplished without the use of certain skills. From the above it becomes clear that engagement is absolutely essential if the helping process is to succeed. It is an assumption of the problem-solving method that the client must get actively involved in the helping process in an experiential way in order to exercise his problem-solving capacities. Certain clearly identified tasks and skills are associated with this phase of the helping process. Tasks are to define the problem, set goals and establish a preliminary contract in which it is made clear to the client what the nature of the helping process is going to be, and what his role in the process will entail. It also means that the social worker must know, understand and use those skills which would involve the client in the helping process.

The purposes, principles and tasks of engagement in industry are much the same as in general practice. The process of engaging the employee in the helping process can only start after a referral has been made. It has been pointed out in earlier chapters that referrals from a variety of sources can and should be permitted. Referrals can come from the employee himself, co-workers, family, supervisors, company doctors, and outside welfare organisations. In rare instances referrals can also come from outside sources other than the family or welfare organisations. It is likely,

however, that referrals will come from people at the workplace of the client, because of their involvement in the same situation. The social worker will have specific tasks in connection with engagement in industry. Consideration must be given to the different ways in which the relationship with the employee will be affected by the situation at the workplace. A unique feature of industrial social work is that both the worker and client are employed by the same employer. Another feature is that most clients referred to the worker, will come from the lower levels in the organisational hierarchy. In many cases, the industrial social worker will be a higher ranking official than the client. The social worker thus represents the management in the eyes of the employee. He, therefore, will have to explain clearly to the client where and how he fits in and exactly what his role entails.

1.2 Assessment

An assessment is an appraisal of the problem of the client in order to plan an appropriate intervention. According to O'Neil (1984:151) it is a time for appraising the "problem-person-environment triplex". Concerning the employee, it means understanding his problem in relation to his work situation, but also in relation to his home circumstances. The presenting problem is the problem with work performance, or it could be any other personal problem observed by the supervisor. In the case of a performance problem, it should be regarded as the symptom of a personal problem that is present somewhere in the life of the client.

The social worker cannot attend to the performance problem directly, because it may also have been caused by training deficiencies, or any other problem the social worker may either not have the authority or expertise to solve.

Botha (1968:71) lists the following methods of data collection:

- Interviews with employees themselves and with other persons in one way or other involved in the particular situation;
- Contact with the work and social environment of the employee is regarded as desirable;
- Observation during interviews with the client;
- Consulting of documents and reports relating to the employee, such as employment records and conditions.

The occupational social worker should be familiar with the meaning of work in the life of the individual because it is in relation to his work experience that the assessment will be made. The value of work in assessment is stressed by Vigilante (1982), because of the centrality of this activity to the life of the individual.

The industrial\occupational social worker must muster all his knowledge and understanding of work to make a proper assessment of the person and his job-related problems. Factors to be considered are the particular stage of career development of the employee, the degree of job satisfaction, the degree of motivation, the work situation itself, and relationships with peers and supervisors.

Something which should be considered in assessment is the so called "ripple effect" of work. Vigilante (1982:298) explains that work can help a person deal with other areas of his life that are less conflict free by means of this ripple-effect. That is also the reason why the family situation should be included in the assessment of the performance problems. As far as the roots of the problem is concerned, Jones (1983:19) feels that problems experienced by employees may (1) be caused by and appear in the work situation; (2) have unfavourable effects in the workplace without been caused there; (3) be caused by the general arbitrary regulations of

industry, the results of which affect the life of the workers outside the work environment. An example mentioned in this regard is shift work. In a study done on client assessment in an industrial setting, Yamatani (1988:34) classified employees into four categories. They were workers experiencing job performance problems because of (1) personal problems, (2) factors other than personal problems, (3) both personal and other job performance related factors, and (4) workers without personal or job performance problems. This is a helpful classification, because it enables the industrial social worker to design the intervention plan.

Contracting is regarded as part of assessment, and includes planning (O'Neil,1984). Contracting is the working agreement between the client and the social worker and is defined by Compton and Galaway (1989:471) as follows:

"For the purposes of social work, the contract may be defined as the explicit agreement between the worker and the client concerning the target problems, the goals, and the strategies of social work intervention, and the roles and tasks of the participants. Its major features are mutual agreement, differential participation in the intervention process, reciprocal accountability, and explicitness. In practice, these features are closely related."

The various applications of the contract in industry must still be investigated, as there is a lack of material on this important aspect. It can be accepted however, that the contract as an instrument in the relationship with the employee will have special significance in the work place. The expectations that management will hold about industrial social work and the relationship between the worker and employee will to a large extent determine the character of the contract. One of the expectations of management will be that the employee be restored to previous productivity levels as soon as possible. The ability of the practitioner social work to achieve this will form the basis for the sanction from management. In view

of this, the contract with the client will be of great importance. The time factor will have particular significance, because the work situation does not allow the social worker to enter into long-term contracts with the employee. The latter must realise that his motivation to contract with the social worker will be a factor in his continued employment. Industry does not have welfare aims, are interested in profit, and therefore in productivity. The contract will help the employee to realise this.

1.3 Intervention

Frank and Streeter (1985:16) view the role of the social worker as assisting the individual in making changes necessary to regain some former state of efficiency and productivity.

A wide variety of intervention modalities have been identified and described in social work. The social worker in industry would do well to be familiar with the eclectic approach in social work. Fischer defines eclecticism as consisting of

"....a variety of interventive principles and procedures derived from different systems of induced change, including even those that may appear to be compatible on the surface, in large part on the basis of their demonstrated effectiveness, and applied with people and problems where the evidence indicates that such application has a substantial chance to produce successful outcome." (1978:67)

This means that the social worker must be flexible in planning for the solution of any problem, and should be ready to use a variety of techniques and approaches to address human problems. Simons and Aigner (1985:203) state that eclectic practice involves knowing which methods seem to be effective with which type of problems, and then selecting practice approaches based on the problems presented by the client system. Something mentioned by them in

this regard, and of particular significance to social work practice in the workplace in that these approaches must be consistent with the values of the profession. A very important task of the social worker is to establish, by means of close observation and experimentation, which practice theories will be most suitable in the workplace.

1.4 Evaluation

An important activity of the social worker is evaluation which is the measurement of change taking place as a result of the intervention, as well as the intervention process itself. Evaluation thus relates to both process and outcome, and is the measurement of the effectiveness and efficiency of the helping activities as well as the competence of the social worker. Effectiveness, according to Compton and Galaway (1989:658) means answering the question of whether the services or intervention plans are accomplishing their intended goals. Efficiency, in turn refers to the cost of services and intervention plans in money, time, and other resources. Compton and Galaway (1989:659) stress the application of scientific principles in evaluation. They feel that it should be done in such a way that the outcome can be attributed to the change process.

Garvin and Seabury (1984:217) and Siporin (1975:327) refer to the two related processes of monitoring and evaluation in the evaluation process. Monitoring refers to efficiency and it means identifying and recording events that occur during social work helping.

Evaluation should have special meaning to the social worker in the workplace because it will enable him to be accountable to management. Evaluation will also assist him in becoming more proficient in the use of the kinds of skills

and approaches relevant to practice in industry. The feedback he needs will come mainly from the client, his family, and the supervisor. Again, work performance can be used as a standard, because problems with the work performance of the client leads to his referral to the social worker. If it was the supervisor who referred him, it will be appropriate to get feedback from the supervisor on his behaviour while treatment lasts, and after it has been terminated. It is advisable that the client be informed on how monitoring will take place. It should thus be part of the contract. The family can also be used to get the feedback on his behaviour at home. It is likely that both the supervisor and the family will be involved in a process of comprehensive evaluation. The adjustment of the employee in the work place will be the ultimate test.

1.5 Termination.

Termination takes place when the goals of intervention have been achieved. Garvin and Seabury (1984:304) stress that the end of the relationship with clients must be approached with great care.

Termination in industry will be effected when the employee has been restored to that level of productivity which will enable him to continue without the assistance of the social worker. It is important that the employee be assured that he can come back if the problem re-occurs in future. The advantage will be that he now knows the worker, which will increase the likelihood of a self-referral.

2. INTERVENTION APPROACHES WITH THE INDIVIDUAL AND FAMILY

The focus of this section is on the individual employee and his problem. It

is therefore important at this stage to take note of problems the social worker may experience in dealing with the personal problems of the employee. Botha (1968:75-79) lists confidentiality, the time factor, and the fact that problems may arise to get hold of the worker if he is part of a work team as particular problems related to intervention. The demands of the work situation will have to be taken into account when intervention in the work place is planned.

2.1 Intervention with the individual employee

The industrial environment and ethos will have a marked influence on the intervention programmes that will be used by the industrial social worker. Management's expectation will be to have the employee restored to previous levels of productivity in the shortest possible time. This makes the time-limited intervention modalities more relevant to the work place. It also gives special meaning to the task of referral to outside agencies.

A variety of social work programmes operating in industry are reported in the literature. The majority are focused on the individual employee and his family, but more specifically on the individual employee, which is perhaps a clear indication of the main thrust of industrial assistance programmes. Botha (1968:72-74) lists three treatment approaches that he regards as relevant to the workplace. They are practical assistance, manipulation of the work environment, and direct treatment. With practical assistance Botha refers to uncomplicated procedures like encouragement, provision of information, or mediation between the employee and one of the units in the organisation. Manipulation of the work environment is environmental intervention in the modern sense and refers to efforts by the social worker to change or improve the work environment to relieve pressure on the client.

This takes place in consultation with management.

With direct treatment is meant therapeutic intervention to enable the client to make a better adjustment in the work situation. In this case, the emphasis is on the use of the relationship with counselling as the main method of intervention. Botha (1968:74) advocates a psycho-social approach with the giving of information and advice and guidance as part of the repertoire of techniques to be used. Provision should also be made for ventilation, encouragement, clarification, insight development and assistance to the employee to get in touch with the reality of the work situation.

Martha N Ozawa (1980:468) reports the following as examples of the services of the Northern States Power Company in Minneapolis:

- Counselling for individual, marital, family and financial problems, drug abuse, occupational rehabilitation, and health;
- Crisis intervention for emotional or psychological problems and industrial accidents;
- Educational programmes on pre-retirement planning, awareness of alcohol and drug abuse, health and home economics;
- Linkage and referral to other agencies;
- Self-help programmes, such as company-sponsored Alcoholic Anonymous groups;
- Recreational programmes;
- Consultation with management on organisational and individual problems.

Not all of these services are direct services, but their ultimate focus is on the individual employee.

Rosalie Bakalinsky (1980:472-473) gives an overview of social work programmes at four different companies. She refers to a programme at a copper mining company described by Skidmore, Balsam and Jones. The main objective of this

programme was to keep employees in their positions by attending to problems of family and marital relationships, alcoholism, financial and legal difficulties, and drug abuse. Short-term treatment was used, lasting an average of seven-and-one-half months. Referral to community agencies and resources also seems to have been a major service in these programmes.

The orientation of this service seems to have been clients that were threatened by job loss because of personal or interpersonal difficulties. The targets of intervention were the clients themselves and their families.

A programme described by Weissman (Bakalinsky,1980) offered (1) a counselling service that provides a wide range of counselling from common sense advice to social treatment based on the task-centered approach, (2) a linkage service that locates the appropriate community resource for an employee's problem, helps the employee gain access to the resource, and follow up to make sure that he has received the kind of help he needed, and (3) an emergency service that includes a twenty-four hour hotline which can be classified as a crisis intervention service.

Another programme this author (Bakalinsky,1980) refers to is described by Miller. The programme mainly made use of a counselling service to help their employees with a wide range of problems affecting their psychosocial functioning. Both the individual and group method were used.

Weiner, Akabas and Sommer (Bakalinsky,1980:473) describe a mental health service for workers where the treatment was of short duration for a majority of clients. A significant part of their job was to mobilise resources and to connect people to relevant institutions.

Torjman (1977:122), basing her views on personal experience and exploration of the literature came to the conclusion that casework in industry is eclectic and based on several conceptual frameworks. The models mentioned is the psychosocial approach, the socialisation model and crisis intervention.

In a chapter on direct services to employees, Feinstein and Brown (1982) reviewed the employee assistance programmes of several companies, consortiums and trade unions, as well as contractual programmes. The problems for which services and programmes are made available are varied and include mental health, legal assistance, consumer issues, financial needs, family problems, alcoholism, drug abuse, agency parents, and help for the disabled to mention a few.

The services and programmes used include the giving of information, referral service, crisis intervention, programme development and evaluation, and one-to-one counselling. The most common intervention responses seems to be crisis intervention, and referral to community resources. In many of the programmes confidentiality and a record keeping system was mentioned as two particular issues.

When all the programmes mentioned above are considered, counselling and all it entails seems to be the most common form of assistance to employees and their families. The two practice models specifically mentioned were crisis intervention and task-centered treatment. From this the conclusion can be drawn that as far as individual employees and their families are concerned, time-limited treatment seems to be the most common.

2.1.1 Time-limited intervention

Both task-centered practice and crisis intervention fall into this category. Snyman (1987:4) lists the following situations as amenable to intervention of this kind:

clients with certain characteristics;

events or problems of a certain kind which have already occurred or seem imminent;

settings in which a profession is practiced, and

a combination of the first three.

The work situation in industry, as well as the characteristics of the workforce will make it likely that one or more of the time-limited interventions will be appropriate. Snyman (1987:5) quotes Fischer who said that working class people do not like to reflect on their situation during lengthy interviews; they expect the help they are likely to receive to be demonstrated early in the contact; there should be rapid results and their complying with the therapist's expectations and requirements should be rewarded immediately and explicitly. A large percentage of industrial workers will undoubtedly fall in this category, making time-limited intervention relevant.

It was also found by Reid and colleagues (Snyman, 1987:5) that the task-centered approach was evaluated positively by the lower class client because they understood the service better and felt they were more often getting the kind of help they wanted. This makes the task-centered approach relevant to needs reflected in the work place.

Certain events or problems in industry make crisis intervention appropriate for application within that setting. Both developmental and situational crises are manifested in industry. Developmental crises happen outside the work situation, but have repercussions in the workplace. They are roughly

those that coincide with the onset of a particular life cycle like marriage, birth of first child, children leaving home, etc. Although these are mostly related to the individual and family life cycle, reverberations will be felt in the workplace, because work life and family life cannot be separated.

Situational crises can occur anywhere, including industry, as a direct result of industrial activity. Examples of these are industrial accidents, retrenchments, relocation, retirement, career changes, and demotions. There are thus crises of various kinds that will be occurring in the workplace and will have to be dealt with by a professional practitioner.

If the setting where the profession is practiced is considered, time-limited intervention also becomes relevant. Snyman (1987:8) stresses the fact that problems are job-related, and rapid solutions have to be found because of the profound effect such problems have on the operation of industry. There is seldom any lengthy reflection on family or personal problems, and plans of action have to be formulated speedily and carried out, with quick follow-up evaluation of the outcome of the action.

From the above it becomes clear that time-limited intervention is highly relevant as intervention modalities in the workplace. This is further confirmed if the following advantages of this approach listed by Hepworth and Larsen (1986:323) are kept in mind:

1. It is cost-effective. Results equal to those of open-ended service can be achieved at much less cost.
2. More clients can be served under time-limited patterns.
3. Time limits foster optimism of clients when practitioners express confidence that improvement is possible in a short time.
4. Time-limited service facilitates the process of termination by introducing it during the preliminary contracting phase.
5. Time limits sharply demarcate the problem-solving process into the beginning, middle, and ending process.

2.1.2 Referrals

The use of short-term counselling in industry highlights the importance of referral to community agencies. The need for short-term counselling arises because industry will not allow open-ended approaches as a result of the implications it has for industrial operations. It means that in many cases the employee will have to be referred to agencies in the community if the industrial social worker can no longer pay attention to the problem of the employee. It is at this point that the skill of the social worker to do the referral to the appropriate agency will be of crucial importance.

Referral will be preceded by an assessment of the needs of the client at that particular stage. This will be followed by a survey of the resources in the community. The industrial social worker should have a good knowledge of community resources, and their functioning. He will also have to have sound relationships with all relevant organisations in the community. For this purpose, it is advisable that social workers employed by industry should be voluntary members of private welfare organisations, and should preferably serve on the committees of these organisations.

The importance of referral will be determined by the role of the social worker. If it is an in-house programme with the emphasis on referral, this function will be much more important than would be the case if the social worker implements intervention himself. But even if this is the case, referral will be an important function.

For some clients, referral will be an easy step. For others, a more active role for the social worker will be necessary. The client will have to be supported, and an appointment made on his behalf with the welfare agency he

has been referred to. It may even be necessary for the social worker to take him there, especially in cases of children.

Referral to outside agencies makes follow-up essential. It is in the interest of both the company and the employee that the quality of service the employee is getting after he has been referred, is monitored. Even if the company runs an in-house programme, a service agreement with outside agencies will contribute to efficient and effective service to the employee. That will also promote referral from outside to the industrial social worker.

2.1.3 Confidentiality

Confidentiality has been mentioned as one of the issues in industrial social work. It has also been mentioned as one of the problems in the field of intervention on the individual level. Its importance, however, is stressed in many reports in the literature on the various EAP projects. In a study done by Terblanche in South Africa (1988:391), 55% of the respondents emphasised the importance of the confidential handling of information in an EAP. Confidentiality remains one of the basic principles of the helping relationship. Without it, the social worker's trustworthiness will be affected, as well as his professional integrity. Feinstein and Brown (1982:67) found that the maintenance of total confidentiality was one of the characteristics of most of the EAP's they have reviewed. It forms the cornerstone of every programme and if it is not clearly stated and delivered, the programme will not be effective. It means that the employee can utilise the programme without fear of any ramifications concerning his or her job promotions. Smith (Gould and Smith, 1988:22) reports that most studies of operational industrial social work programmes show that maintaining confidentiality of client communication is not a major problem in actual

practice, although special arrangements and precautions must be taken.

2.2 Services to families

The literature on industrial social work\EAP does not give the family a prominent place in the rendering of professional service. The reason for this is that in many of the industrial social work\EAP models, the focus is on the individual as an employee. The problems, according to Frank and Streeter (1985:16) are defined as individual problems, and the focus would thus be on the individual.

Another reason for the lack of involvement with the family is that it is regarded as being located outside of industry, and not really part of the workforce. The organisation will thus be reluctant to encourage involvement with the family. A related argument is that management expects results in the form of restored production, and would feel that intervention with the family belongs to outside organisations.

The extent to which social workers will be allowed to intervene in the family, will vary from industry to industry. It can be expected that the general assumption would be that in the case of problems residing in the family, referral to a family welfare organisation will have to be made. In many cases, intervention will not be effective without the involvement of the family. Care will have to be taken however, not to commit industry too much in this regard. Problems like the death of a family member, financial difficulties, legal problems, pre-retirement planning, and housing problems inevitably involve the family. As a general rule it must be accepted that the family must be involved to the extent that the problems of the employees are connected with the family.

The above arguments, however, do not mean that the family should be ignored. The employee remains part of a family, and what happens at work, will be taken home to the family. Involvement with the family could be justified by the argument that many individual and family problems are actually caused by the situation at work, and in that respect responsibility for the family must be accepted by industry.

SUMMARY

Industrial social work intervention on the individual and family level was discussed in this chapter. It seems appropriate for the industrial social work service to be started on this level, and then expanded to other levels in the organisation.

The importance of adjusting the individual intervention methods in social work to the industrial setting was stressed, as well as the relevance of the short-term treatment modalities. The focus of many intervention programmes in industry is on the individual, mainly because of a concern about the person as an employee. Although the family does not seem to be featuring prominently in industrial social work literature, it cannot be ignored, because the family is connected to industry via the employee, and can thus not be ignored.

In this chapter, the focus was on services to the individual employee and his family, but more specifically on the employee, since that seem to be the prime target of many programmes operating in industry.

The short-term, time-limited intervention programmes seem to be the most relevant to the demands of the work place, and also seem to fit in best with

the industrial environment with its emphasis on production and profit.

The family does not emerge clearly as a target for change, although many programmes include the family and can be used within it.

CHAPTER 7

SYSTEMIC CHANGE: INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK INTERVENTION ON THE ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL

A view supported by a variety of authors, (Ozawa,1980; Gould and McKenzie, 1984; Feinstein and Brown, 1982; Akabas, et al 1978) is that the industrial \occupational social worker eventually will have to move to the organisational level in order to achieve the goals of industrial\occupational social work. This would be a challenge for the social worker, because of the temptation to rather rely on the traditional casework roles, tried and tested so well in social work practice. To "take on" the organisation will perhaps be an awesome task, but at the same time a necessary one if the social worker is to be guided by the social work focus on individual-in-environment.

If an ecosystems approach is used by the social worker, it is inevitable that direct services to employees over the course of time will lead the social worker to consider certain organisational characteristics contributing to unmet needs in the employee. This will be done to humanise the workplace and to make the organisation more responsive to the needs of the people working there, without affecting the profit motive negatively. It will contribute to a friendlier organisational environment - an "employee-friendly" organisation.

Akabas (1983:138) argues that the provision of direct service causes change to occur on many levels in three ways. Firstly, the introduction of a new function serves to change any organisation. Secondly, a job well done creates pressure for more service, and lastly, by adopting an ecosystems approach, we develop alliances in the workplace, engaging others in helping us to do our job. From this view the deduction can be made that the normal

relationships the industrial social worker forms with significant others in the organisation in the process of establishing his position will at the same time form the foundation for intervention on the organisational level.

Intervention on the organisational level means that the organisation becomes the target for change, and that means that the industrial social worker will have to use the skills he already possesses for this purpose, and will have to learn skills he does not possess.

It will thus be the goal of this chapter to describe skills, techniques and service that can be utilised to effect the kind of organisational change that will make the workplace more "employee-friendly" or sensitive to the needs of the employee. These activities seem to be the kind constituting the Employee/Work Organisation Service Model of Straussner (1990: 11-12), and seem to include skills in **organisational development**. According to him, this model includes the roles and skills of consultant, evaluator/analyst, trainer, and programme developer.

Feinstein and Brown (1982) and Gould and Smith (1988) seem to agree that skills in **organisational development** (OD) would be appropriate for intervention on this level. It appears that most of the organisational change skills of the industrial social worker will fit into the OD framework - that the introduction of an industrial social work programme represents a process of organisational development. In view of this, the present chapter is devoted to the exploration of the practice of OD.

1. ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

A review of OD literature reveals a remarkable similarity of this method to

the skills, methods and principles of social work. Although it appears as if the different definitions emphasise different aspects of organisational development, there is considerable agreement on some of its characteristics and goals. A point of general consensus is that OD is the application of the findings of behavioural and social science to enhance organisational effectiveness or to improve the quality of work life of employees (Gould and Smith, 1988:248). Broadly speaking, this definition leaves room for the involvement of social work, although no specific professional group is identified, making it a generic process. Mullins (1989:484) also defines organisational development as "...a generic term embracing a wide range of intervention strategies into the social processes of an organisation. These intervention strategies are aimed at the development of individuals, groups, and the organisation as a total system." The focus of organisation development is on development for the sake of the organisation as a unit. That would include all of the subsystems of the organisation.

A widely quoted definition of French and Bell (Altman, et al 1985:640) reads as follows:

"Organizational development is a long-range effort to improve an organization's problem-solving and renewal processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organizational culture - with special emphasis on the culture of formal work teams - with the assistance of a change agent, or catalyst, and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioral science, including action research."

Gould, et al (Gould and Smith, 1988:247) quotes Pfeiffer and Jones describing OD as a family of purposeful interventions that targets an organisation in terms of its "effectiveness, its capacity to solve problems, its capacity to adapt, its capacity to do an effective job in creating a high quality of life for its employees."

Weiner (1982:168) quotes Kurilof's definition which reads as follows:

"Organizational development can now be defined as a long-range process, combining elements of science and art, directed towards improving the effectiveness of organizations. Effectiveness implies performance showing acceptable profitability, innovative approaches, productive efficiency, fulfillment of public responsibility, concern for members as human beings, and a healthy psychological climate supporting human growth."

In viewing the above definitions, the significance of organisational development for industrial social work becomes clear. The resemblance between social work and organisation development in terms of purposes (Weiner, 1982:368; Gould and Smith, 1988:247), process, (Altman et al, 1985:645-647) features, (French, 1982:604) and assumptions (French, 1985: 606) makes it imperative for the industrial social worker to master OD skills. An advantage in this regard is the fact that, according to Gould et al (Gould and Smith, 1988:248) many of the skills and much of the knowledge base for OD practice are already a part of the professional repertoire of many practicing social workers, and bona fide professional competence for OD practice is already established or within reach of many social workers. There is thus an existing competence in social workers for organisational development.

Gerald Brown's purposes of OD, as quoted by Weiner (1982:368), and Gould, et al (Gould and Smith, (1988:247) could be summarised as follows:

1. It leads to the improvement of the organisation's health, and its abilities to deal with its own problems.
2. It improves the abilities and options of individuals to achieve their own ends, and it brings the individual and organisational goals more in line with each other.
3. It improves the relationships between the different subunits of the organisation in order to improve the achievement of the overall purpose.

OD thus contributes to organisational health, and thus indirectly to the welfare of the employees. It can be said to promote "organisational

wellness"

(Altman et al, 1985:645-647) list eight characteristics of the OD process:

It is firstly seen as an ongoing, interactive process. Its objective is to teach people new skills while getting them to forget the old ones.

Secondly, in this process heavy emphasis is placed upon applied behavioral science principles from areas such as social psychology, social anthropology, sociology, and psychiatry. Diagnosis by OD practitioners is based on scientific knowledge derived primarily from organisational theory, group dynamics, and personality theory.

Third, OD is a normative-re-educative strategy that assumes that norms form the basis for behaviour and change comes about through a re-educative process in which old norms are replaced by new ones.

Fourth, the OD process views the organisation from a systems approach.

Fifth, OD employs a data-based approach to change.

Sixth, the OD process is experience-based.

Seventh, the process is oriented towards goal setting.

Eighth, and finally, OD activities focus on intact work groups.

1.1 Features of organisational development

French (1982:604) lists the following as features of OD:

1. The use of an action research model.
2. An emphasis on the work team as the key unit for learning more effective modes of organisational behaviour.
3. An emphasis on a collaborative management of the culture of work teams and the total organisation.
4. The use of a particular kind of consultant, sometimes called a facilitator, change agent, or catalyst.
5. Consultant emphasis, although not exclusively so, on group or organisational processes in contrast to making extensive recommendations for change.
6. Attention to total system ramification of the improvement effort.
7. A view of the change effort as an ongoing process.

The above features correspond remarkably with those of social work. The use of action research is not unknown in social work. The group is one of the unit of intervention in social work, and the work team is a group with a special purpose. Group dynamics apply, and that falls within the area of expertise of the social worker.

Social workers have the skills to act as a facilitator, catalyst, or change agent. They also understand the significance and nature of group and organisation processes. A total systems focus is also part of social work practice, and change is regarded as an ongoing process.

1.2 Assumptions of OD

French (1982:606) explains that OD holds certain assumptions about individuals, groups and organisations.

About people:

1. Most people have drives towards personal growth and development, and these drives are most likely to be actualised in an environment that is both supportive and challenging.
2. Most people want to make, and are capable of making, a much higher level of contribution to the attainment of organisational goals than most organisational environments permit. This implies a restrictive effect on the people staffing the organisation.

About people in groups :

1. Most people wish to be accepted, and to interact co-operatively with at least one small reference group, that is, the work group, the family group, and so on.
2. One of the most psychologically relevant reference groups for most people is the work group, including peers and the superiors.
3. Most people are capable of increasing their effectiveness in helping the groups of which they are members solve problems, and in working effectively together.
4. If a group is to optimise its effectiveness, its formal leader cannot perform all the functions of leadership in all circumstances at all

times, and the members of the group must assist each other with effective leadership and behaviour as members.

About people in organisational systems

1. Organisations tend to be characterised by overlapping, interdependent work groups, and the linking pin function of supervisors and others need to be understood and facilitated.
2. What happens in the broader organisation affects the small group, and vice versa.
3. What happens to one subsystem will affect and be influenced by other parts of the system.
4. The culture in most organisations tends to suppress the expression of feelings that people have about each other and about where they and their organisations are going.
5. Suppressed feelings adversely affect problem-solving, personal growth, and job satisfaction.
6. The level of interpersonal trust, support and cooperation is much lower in most organisations than is either necessary or desirable.
7. Although realistic and appropriate in some situations, win-lose strategies among people and groups do not provide long-run solutions to most organisational problems.
8. Synergistic solutions - creative solutions in which two plus two equals more than four, and by which all parties gain more through cooperation than through conflict - can be a lead to greater organisational effectiveness.
9. Viewing feelings as data important to the organisation tends to open many avenues for improving goals, leadership, communication, problem-solving, intergroup collaboration, and morale.
10. Improved performance stemming from efforts at organisational development needs to be sustained by appropriate changes in the appraisal, compensation, training, staffing, and task-specialisation subsystems - in short, in the total personnel system.

Social work, and in particular industrial social work, shares most of these assumptions about individuals, and individuals in different settings. Social work intervention is in fact based on most of these assumptions.

According to the same authors, (1985:606) Burke has identified the following qualities as critical to an OD consultant's effectiveness:

1. The ability and willingness to take a flexible "experimental" attitude

towards applying general theories and specific techniques to actual consulting situations.

2. The ability or charisma necessary to persuade or influence others.
3. The willingness to confront difficult, emotionally loaded items.
4. The ability to be (and to be perceived) as generally supportive of and nurturant to others.
5. The ability and willingness to listen emphatically to others, particularly in situations where the speaker is under a great deal of stress.
6. A high degree of awareness of the OD consultant's own feelings, intuitions, and the like.
7. The ability to conceptualise the complex and subtle relationships that can be found amongst organisational systems and subsystems.
8. The ability to detect sources of energy in clients and self, and to channel it into productive use.
9. Effectiveness in teaching or facilitating learning in others.
10. The ability to avoid taking oneself too seriously, and the ability to maintain a sense of humour, even under stressful or disappointing circumstances.

Most of the above qualities and skills are identical to those of the social worker, and correspond also with the principles of social work.

2. SIMILARITIES BETWEEN SOCIAL WORK AND ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In the previous section, an overview was given of OD in order to determine its compatibility with social work. The main objective with this description was to establish whether the philosophy, values and skills of OD provide a basis for organisational intervention by the industrial social worker.

The overall goal of OD seems to be to improve the effectiveness of the organisation. Through its intervention in industry, social work contributes to the same goal. It wants to improve the social functioning of the employee in the workplace, and it is assumed that this will also lead to greater

organisational effectiveness.

Mullins (1989:484) state that the intervention strategies of OD are focused on the development of the individual, group and the organisation as a total system. That brings it in line with the intervention activities of social work, which focus on the same entities. Gould, Knoepler and Smith (Gould and Smith, 1988:247) quote Pfeiffer and Jones as considering the creation of a high quality of life for employees of an organisation as an OD goal. This will also be acceptable to social work, and is in fact an important contribution of social work in industry. Kurilof's definition (Weiner, 1982:368) incorporates all of the above by emphasising fulfillment of public responsibility, concern for members as human beings, and a healthy psychological climate supporting human growth.

This overlap is confirmed by Gould et al (Gould and Smith, 1988:248-250) who identify similarities between OD and social work in the areas of values, knowledge, skills and loci of intervention. They feel that both the practice of social work and OD intervention require that the practitioner:

1. Be familiar with the dynamics of change and be skillful in eliciting and managing change processes, especially those involving significant emotional and interpersonal content.
2. Be competent in working with others (i.e. clients) through various stages of problem-solving, paying special attention to the difficult balance between client self-determination and adequate resolution of identified problems.
3. Be knowledgeable in working with various forms of client and target systems.

According to Weiner (1982:373) OD intervention deals with the following areas:

Social interaction between individuals;

The interaction between groups;

The procedures used for transmitting information, making decisions, planning actions, setting goals;

The strategic systems;

The norms and values of the system;

The attitude of people towards work, the organisation, authority, and social values;

The distribution of effort and reward in the system.

With reference to the above, this section can be concluded with the following statement of Gould, Knoepler and Smith:

"The overlap or parallels of OD interventions (so defined) with social work practice is unavoidable. With only minor modifications, OD interventions is descriptive of the practice of social workers engaged in various forms of individually oriented change, family interventions, welfare administration, and a variety of community organisation activities". (Gould and Smith, 1988:249)

2.1 The change process

2.1.1 A starting point

No social worker in industry should be so unwise as to embark on a project of organisational development before they have established their position in the organisation. The social worker should understand organisational dynamics and politics well enough to embark on such a process, and should in particular understand the forces resisting change.

The programme of organisational change should be tackled systematically and scientifically, and it is unlikely that the social worker will manage to bring about sweeping changes. It is unlikely, and also not the intention that the social worker will bring about changes in the total organisation.

Systemic intervention will characteristically start, as stated earlier, on the direct service level. This means that the social worker must make an appraisal, based on his direct service experience, of organisational

conditions affecting the workforce. This must be followed by a programme of intervention correcting the identified conditions, and stabilising the change. OD parallels useful to social work in this regard are the operational components of French and Bell (1984:64-80) consisting of diagnosis, action, and process-maintenance.

2.1.2 The diagnostic component.

The OD practitioner, according to French and Bell (1984:67) will work with systems and processes. Not only is the system important, but also the processes in that system.

The OD programme starts with diagnosis, and continuously employs data collection and data analysis throughout. Diagnostic activities focus on strengths and weaknesses of the organisation.

In order to make any diagnosis, the social worker needs some data about the organisational system. He would already have learnt a lot about the organisation during the orientation stage when exploration of the organisational environment took place. This information will be supplemented by information and impressions gained about the organisation as he develops direct services on the individual, family, and group level.

As far as target systems are concerned, the OD practitioner may be interested in one or more subsystems of the organisation. He may move from one subsystem to the other in a series of OD interventions. It may range from the total organisational system down to individuals and their roles. It may also include suprasystems. It is unlikely, however, that the social worker will go beyond the subsystem level, because on this level his role will be

limited to the organisational confines. It is further reasonable to assume that many of the OD activities of the social worker will be in the human resources management sphere, because that and social responsibility, according to Akabas, (1983:139) seems to be our turf. This dimension represents the "human" part of the organisation.

The continuous generation of system data in OD intervention is stressed by French and Bell (1984:74) as well as the methods of data collection (1984:75). According to them, there is active collaboration between the OD practitioner and the organisation members about such issues as what target groups are to be diagnosed, how the diagnosis is best accomplished, what is to be done with the information, how the data will be worked with, and how the information will be used to aid action planning. There should thus be a contractual agreement between the organisational development practitioner and the organisation members.

Information is collected through interviews, observations, questionnaires and organisation records. They regard this process as an action research model of (1) data collection, (2) data feedback to the people who supplied the data, (3) identification of problem areas based on the data, (4) planning corrective action steps, (5) implementing the action steps, and (6) collecting data to evaluate the effects of the action (1984:75). This makes the diagnostic and action components interrelated. Social workers are skilled in all the above methods, and are using them in industrial social work practice. When these records are used for organisational development purposes, people other than the conventional "client" of the social worker will also be included, because the total organisation becomes the client.

2.1.3 The action component

The action component involves taking corrective actions, based on diagnosis of what is wrong. According to French and Bell, (1984:77) an extensive range of interventive activities exist to deal with most problems of organisational processes and target systems.

OD intervention focuses on the individual, the group and the organisation as a whole (French, 1982; Mullins, 1989; Moorhead and Griffin, 1989; Luthans, 1981; Altman, et al 1985) The following list contains the most important OD intervention activities:

T-groups: These groups are used for sensitivity training. The purpose of these sensitivity groups are stated by Mullins (1989:411) as threefold:

to improve the ability to perceive accurately how others react to oneself;

to increase the skills of assessing behavioural relationships between others and reasons for such behaviour;

to improve the ability to relate one's behaviour to the requirements of the situation;

Many of these skills are similar to those normally associated with the psychosocial approach in social work. The main focus seems to be on self-insight.

Team building: According to Moorhead and Griffin (1989:746) this term is used to emphasise the importance of group members working together in a spirit of cooperation. The basic objective of team building is to improve the overall performance of the organisation through the improvement of the effectiveness

of teams.

Grid training: Grid training is based on the Managerial Grid approach of Blake and Mouton (Mullins, 1989:486). It is also called grid organisational development and is regarded by Altman, et al (1985:663) as the most thorough and systematic OD intervention. The overall programme consists of six phases, and the importance of this programme, also for social work, warrants greater detail. The first stage is a seminar for the organisation's managers during which they diagnose their leadership styles, study reading material, learn problem-solving and critiquing skills, work at improved communication, and develop team action skills.

The second phase focuses on perfecting teamwork by having the managers and the subordinates apply what they have learned in phase one.

During the third phase, the focus moves away from intragroup to intergroup for the purpose of developing closer integration between work groups. Each group individually analyses what an ideal relationship would be, and these ideas are then shared with the other group. Representatives from units that are in direct contact are asked to develop these ideal relationships by discussing the problems associated with attaining them, and then formulating a plan of action for moving towards them.

The fourth stage is taken up with the development of an ideal strategic model. This phase, which may take up to one year, focuses on developing an ideal strategic plan for the whole organisation. Top management is charged with designing and ideal strategic planning model. These plans, structures, policies, and ideas are then tested, evaluated, and critiqued, thereby providing top management with a clear picture of the changes that will be

necessary to achieve excellence.

Phase five requires the greatest amount of time. It involves attempts to close the gap where they are then and where they want to be. To achieve this transition, it is common to find the organisation setting up planning teams to conduct conversion studies and to determine exactly what needs to be done.

The last stage is used for a systematic evaluation of the previous five stages. Progress is evaluated, barriers are identified, and further steps are determined. Consideration is given to enforcing the new methods that have been developed during the previous five phases so that they become standard practice. The organisation makes every effort to prevent any pressure towards regression.

Survey feedback: It involves the use of questionnaire surveys to help determine the attitudes of members to the functioning of the organisation (Mullins, 1989:486). Results of the survey are fed back to top management and then to groups for interpretation and analysis. Group members participate in discussion on the implication of the information, the diagnosis of problems and the development of action plans to help overcome the problems identified.

This method has two major phases, according to Altman, et al (1985:661) and can involve all of the organisation's employees or only a specific department. The basic purpose of the intervention is to improve the relationship between managers and their employees at all levels of the hierarchy.

Process consultation: The process consultant helps the organisation to solve

its own problems by becoming aware of the organisational processes, of the consequences of these processes, and the mechanisms by which they can be changed. The organisation is helped to help itself. (Altman, et al., 1985:654).

Third party peace-making: Third party peace-making interventions are used to control or resolve conflict. The consultant examines the processes that are involved, makes a diagnosis of the causes of the conflict, and through the role of a third-party work to facilitate a constructive resolution of the situation.

Life career planning: These interventions focus on the goals of the individual members, providing them a basis to control their own destinies. These interventions can concentrate on the past, present, or future and are designed to help people come to grips with issues such as: assessing life and career paths, formulating goals related to life style and career paths, and a plan for achieving the goals (Altman, et al 1985:653).

Role analysis: This kind of intervention is designed to clarify both role expectations and the obligations of team members.

Confrontation meeting: The confrontation meeting is a one-day meeting in which the entire management goes about assessing its organisational health.

Goal setting: According to French (1982:676), goal setting include theory and experience in planning and goal setting, utilising problem-solving models, planning paradigms, and ideal organisation versus real organisation comparisons.

Quality-of-work-life-planning: Moorhead and Griffin (1989:734) quote Lloyd Suttle as defining quality of work life as the "degree to which members of a work organisation are able to satisfy important personal needs through their experience in the organisation". The goal of QWL programmes is to provide a work environment conducive to the satisfaction of individual needs.

French and Bell (1984:134) propose another convenient classification system categorising intervention activities into those that focus on team improvement, improving intergroup relations, personal, interpersonal, and group processes, comprehensive total organisations interventions, and structural interventions. They explain that this method is similar to the typology based on target groups, but separates out the process and structural intervention for special attention. Greater detail of each group will be given.

The team-building interventions are normally focused on four major substantive areas: diagnosis, task accomplishment, team relationships, and team and organisation processes.

Two categories of intergroup interventions are listed by French and Bell (1984:156-160). With the first category, that of intergroup team-building interventions, the focus is on improving intergroup relations. The goals of these activities are to increase communications and interactions between work-related groups, to replace the amount of dysfunctional competition, and to replace a parochial independent point of view with an awareness of the necessity for interdependence of action calling on the best effort of both groups. The other group consists of organisation mirror interventions. The organisation mirror is a set of activities in which a particular organisational group, the host group, gets feedback from representatives from

several other organisational groups about how it is perceived and regarded. This intervention is designed to improve the relationships between groups and increase the intergroup work effectiveness.

The next major category consists of personal, interpersonal, and group process interventions. These activities are learning techniques directed towards individuals, diads, triads, and groups.

Comprehensive total organisation interventions include the confrontation meeting, strategic management activities, survey feedback, and Grid OD.

Structural intervention (French and Bell, 1984:195) refers to "a broad class of interventions or change effort aimed at improving organisation effectiveness through changes in the task, structural, and technological subsystems". It includes changes in how the overall work of the organisation is divided into units, who reports to whom, methods of control, the spatial arrangements of equipment and people, work flow and procedures, and role definitions.

2.1.4 Process-maintenance

These include the activities implemented to maintain the changes brought about by the use of the techniques associated with the action-component.

3. OD ACTIVITIES OF THE SOCIAL WORKER

From the rather extensive description of the nature, principles and skills in organisational development above, it should be clear that social work is well equipped for OD intervention, mainly because of the considerable similarity

in assumptions, values, goals and skills. Social workers in industry, however, will have to be patient before they can risk their hand at OD intervention. There are two reasons for this. Firstly, the social worker should be familiar with the nature, philosophy and goals of OD. Secondly, the climate in the organisation must be conducive to OD intervention by the social worker. Akabas (Dinerman, 1983:138) states that we come into the workplace with a vision, but cautions at the same time that we need to wait until the workplace is ready for that vision. Another condition must be a management with a "sympathetic" view of the individual.

The chances of identifying a need for organisation intervention by the social worker will be improved if an organisational systems view is taken by the social worker at the point of introduction and maintained throughout the development of the social work service.

The industrial social worker will have to explore the total organisation as a matter of course to familiarise himself with his surroundings. Data collected about individual employees will serve as a firm foundation for eventual intervention on the organisational level. Over the course of time, certain trends and tendencies will emerge which will serve as indicators for the social worker concerning future planning. In this regard, daily/monthly/yearly statistical reports containing information on matters like people seen, origin and type of referral, type of problem reported, length of contact and nature of disposition can be valuable.

Data amassed by the social worker about the organisation will be processed and analysed to develop a list of priorities for action. Organisational development activities will be as varied as the human beings staffing the organisation. It is perhaps on this level that the group as the medium will

be more useful than on the level of direct intervention, because many of the goals of organisational intervention can be achieved through the medium of the small group. Several organisational development strategies are group strategies. Examples are T-groups, team building, grid training programmes, one of the steps in survey-feedback, third-party peace-making, life-career planning, role analysis, confrontation meetings, and quality-of-work-life-planning. In many of these situations, the social worker can act as a facilitator, group leader, mediator, and teacher

The industrial social worker will not be involved in the total spectrum of OD activities, only in those warranted and validated by his expertise.

The role of the social worker is put into sharper perspective by the opinion of Feinstein and Brown (1982:71). They feel that the OD activities of the human-relations professional is focused on the impact of the organisational structure and setting on employers and employees. These efforts focus on working conditions, the formal and informal operations of the organisation, and the interpersonal relations that develop. In this regard, the systems approach to OD of Albrecht (1982) demarcates the sphere of influence of the social worker very clearly. According to him, any organisation is made up of a technical, social, administrative and strategic system. The social system consists of the people of the organisation, their roles and relationships, and the social climate - including the reward system. This they refer to as the human element of the organisation.

Examples of possible organisational intervention by social work is given by Ozawa (1980:468), who views industrial social work as developing in four stages. Organisational intervention starts occurring in the third stage and is characterised by three related developments. Firstly, social services

providers recognise that "a great deal of workers' dissatisfaction arises because of the way work activities are organised. Attention is paid to human relationships and the motivational needs of workers at the work place" (Ozawa, 1980:468). The service providers may then consult with management and the union about reorganising jobs and the relationship among workers. Intervention may then take the form of proposing a new job design to replace assembly line work. The proposal may include a recommendation to grant to the group autonomous decision- making power over how to perform a work assignment, and at what speed, as well as how to control the quality of work performed. It might also recommend that the job be enlarged to include added responsibilities, such as planning and access to tools and equipment.

A second important development in this stage is that management departs from Taylorism, and views the worker differently, according to different assumptions and theoretical constructs.

Thirdly, intervention in this stage is characterised by the use of systems and organisational approaches. This leads to the development of wider perspectives that lead to a better understanding of the workers and enhancing their well-being. A very important principle about this kind of intervention mentioned by Ozawa that is also applicable to industrial social work in general is the fact that there is an ultimate boundary beyond which intervention will not go at this stage. The reason for this is that industrial social work implies humanising the work place and management will only allow this as long as it thinks it is good business to do so. The above three developments mentioned by Ozawa can clearly be associated with organisational development activities of the social worker.

Practical examples of intervention on the organisational level is given by

Gould and McKenzie (1984). They utilise Ozawa's model to describe the Staff/Faculty Counselling Service of the University of Southern California. In stage three the counselling service provide the University community with micro and macro organisational diagnostic services, organisational development and effectiveness strategies, and consultation on such issues as performance appraisal and reward systems.

Intervention strategies applied include team building, process consultation, quality circles, leadership development and intergroup conflict resolution. Issues regularly addressed include communication concerns, working relationships, job design, organisational structure, and service delivery. They have also made various contributions in the areas of performance appraisal and reward systems.

3.1 OD on the individual level

The implementation of social work goals and programmes in industry over time will necessitate the social worker to focus intervention on individual managers at various levels. Actions and decisions of people in executive positions have a direct effect on work situations of employees, and on their relationships with the subordinates. Attitudes towards the employees are to a large extent determined by an understanding of human needs and aspirations. This in turn will determine the degree of gratification the individual will get from his job, and will consequently affect motivation and job satisfaction. When the focus is on individual managers, the reverberating effect should also be kept in mind. A change in the thinking of a high ranking manager should be felt organisation wide.

According to Gould, et al (Gould and Smith, 1988:252) various techniques and

skills can be used to help managers and others acquire insights into their own behaviour and the skills that they need in order to function more effectively with their subordinates, superordinates, and colleagues.

A particular role of the industrial social worker which cannot be overlooked in this regard, is that of consultation, specifically to management. This is a role mentioned by Botha (1968), Akabas et al (1978), and Jones (1983). Topics for consultation include troubled and troubling employees, motivation, staff morale, job design, supervisory skills, performance appraisal, day care, sexual harassment, and organisational structure and reorganisation (Gould and McKenzie, 1984:5). Other topics listed by Jones (1983) are organisational factors affecting the workforce, factors in the community affecting the workforce, and community relations. This can be summed up with what Straussner(1990:12) says about the role of the consultant:

"....in this role, the occupational social worker works with others to increase their abilities to understand various aspects of organizational and human dynamics and increase their skills in problem solving."

Botha (1968:49) expresses the opinion that the social worker will be able to help create healthy working conditions, and promote a pleasant work milieu. Akabas et al (1978:28) state that social workers have sensitivity to and familiarity with workers' personal and family lives, and can document needs and provide feedback to the executives and union leaders of host organisations.

A wide variety of social work skills is at the disposal of the social worker in this task. Techniques used for direct intervention on the individual level can be used for this purpose. This is confirmed by the following opinion: "In general, social workers seem well equipped for individually focused OD intervention by virtue of the importance they attach to the

concept and dynamics of social functioning and their mastery of counselling and consulting techniques (Gould and Smith, 1988:252).

3.2 Group interventions

The social worker must look for opportunities for the use of group skills for the purposes of organisational intervention.

According to Feinstein and Brown (1982:73), planned change at the organisational level is brought about by the following processes: (1) contact with individuals and key decision makers: education of management and supervisory staff; (2) staff development and training: placing people in the right job and other personnel work; (3) promoting participation in goal setting; planning and designing the ways of accomplishing established goals; (4) assessing and changing adverse working conditions; improving interpersonal relations on the job; and (5) teaching communication skills. According to them, most of these activities can be accomplished in small groups where the use of the group process is utilised to bring about the desired change. This implies that the group should wherever possible, be used to bring about the kind of change that will make the organisation a better place to work in, while at the same time improving its effectiveness. The above list provides a good overview of the kind of activities for which the group can be used. It has also been stated earlier that many of the OD skills are the kind of skills normally used in a group situation.

Both Feinstein and Brown (1982:73) and Gould and Smith (1988:254) emphasise the popularity of team building as an OD activity. With team building, the focus is on the small group, its composition, structure, and functioning. Gould and Smith (1988:254) hold the opinion that in the case of team

building, the social worker acts as a process consultant to make the group aware of its processes. Another area of social work intervention on the group level, is group conflict. Social work roles useful in this respect are enabler, mediator, broker, expert, and consultant.

3.3 Organisation wide change.

It is difficult to imagine that the social worker will reach this stage easily. The only reference to this stage relating to social work, is a description of Ozawa's four stages of the development of industrial social work services (Ozawa, 1980). She gives a somewhat idealistic vision of events in this stage. According to her, stage four is characterised by the blurring of the line of demarcation between management and employees, by an emphasis on their common interest and loyalty towards each other, and by incorporation of other objectives besides profit-making.

She further states that as social services reach this stage, those who provide services will engage in facilitating the process of community organisation in industry so that employees may be represented on the board of directors and management and employees may share decision-making (Ozawa, 1980:469). This is similar to an OD activity on this level mentioned by both Gould and Smith (1988:255) and Dubrin et al (1989:626). Dubrin et al call it employee involvement programmes and Gould and Smith refer to it as a participative style of management.

Intervention on this level can be facilitated when it is formulated as a long-term goal when social work is introduced into a company. It will take considerable time before this stage is reached, and a regular turnover of social workers will do nothing to promote it. Intervention of this kind will

characteristically happen at management level, which means that the social worker will have to provide the necessary input at this level. This, however, must be regarded as the ultimate goal of social work in industry.

SUMMARY

An attempt was made in this chapter to describe possible roles for the social worker in organisational development. OD does not seem to be the exclusive right of any profession or occupation, but has a strong generic base.

Attention was focussed on OD assumptions, techniques and goals and the many similarities between the general field of OD and that of social work is remarkable. That clearly provides room for the involvement of the social worker in industry in OD activities. The conclusion can be made that many of the systemic interventions of the social worker will amount to OD. Not much is said in the literature about social work activities on this level, which indicates a need for further exploration.

The social worker in industry must look for opportunities for organisation development activities very much on an ad hoc basis, specially in the beginning stages. There will be a number of states that as social services reach this stage, those who provide services will engage in facilitating the process of community organisation in industry so that employees may be represented on the board of directors and management and employees may share decision-making (Ozawa, 1980:469). This is similar to an OD activity on this level mentioned by both Gould and Smith (1988:255) and Dubrin et al (1989:626). Dubrin et al call it employee involvement programmes and Gould and Smith refer to it as a participative style of management.

CHAPTER 8

THE CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY MODEL AS A MODE OF PRACTICE FOR THE INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKER

In the previous two chapters, it was described how social work can function in industry by rendering direct services to employees by means of the EAP model, and on the organisational level by means of organisational development skills.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the role the social worker might play in assisting the organisation to discharge its social responsibility.

Masi confirms the role of CSR by the following statement:

"It is one of the main areas in which social change can be effected and the business community utilized to affect the social environment as well as the community in which it operates." (1982:91)

According to Straussner (1990:13), the CSR model focuses on identifying and assisting corporations to make a commitment to the social and economic well-being of the community in which they operate. This function of business can be used to bring the financial and other resources of business to bear on social needs and problems in the community with the purpose of upliftment, development and stabilisation of the outside community. The company is used as an instrument to bring about change in the community. In addition to this, social responsibility also refers to the organisation itself, and how it treats its employees.

At present the climate for the execution of this task is more conducive because "organizations of today are more concerned about social responsibility and about questions concerning ethics in management than they ever have been." (Rue & Byars, 1980:521)

1. THE NATURE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

A wide variety of definitions of CSR exists, which reflects the different views on the concept that is held by academics and business people. Van den Heever and Hugo (1990:12) stress that the term social responsibility in the South African context is vague, confusing and often used incorrectly. They point out that no consensus exists about the question of whether business has a social responsibility. They furthermore pose the question of whether business is socially responsible or socially involved. Orpen (1987:89) agrees with this and adds that different societies do not expect businesses to be equally responsive to societal and environmental needs. This situation is complicated by the use of terms like "social investment" and "social accountability" to describe CSR.

Galombik (1980:2) expresses the opinion in her dissertation on CSR that the acceptance of Corporate Social Responsibility implies an accountability of a company, not only to its shareholders and creditors, but also to its employees and to society at large. She (1980:15) defines social responsibility as an "awareness by companies and a responsiveness to the interests and needs of people and non-profit institutions, which do not directly affect the profitability of the company".

The classical capitalistic business ethics, on the other hand, as reflected in the views of Milton Friedman, wanted business to make as much money as possible without any concern for social causes. This philosophy is described by Farmer and Hague when they say that "firms had the social responsibility of getting the productive job done, and the ultimate test was the market. If the firm could sell its goods and services at prices high enough to make a profit and survive, then its social obligation was fulfilled." (1985:1)

Over the past few decades, however, both here and abroad, there have been significant changes in what society expects of its institutions. Business is still to fulfill its traditional function of providing goods and services, and make a profit. However, it is also expected to do more (Farmer and Hague, 1985; Orpen, 1987). It is expected that business should become involved in society in a broader sense. This is the case in Western countries as well as in South Africa. Farmer and Hague (1985:2) comment on the American situation when they state:

"People expect firms not only to perform the traditional function of providing goods and services to all citizens who are willing to pay for them, but also to help society to solve its problems."

Wagenaar (1979:93) reflects on the South African situation when he emphasises the fact that business is becoming more involved in the solution of social problems of the country, and that business leaders face growing demands concerning the corporate social responsibility of the private sector. He also points out that after investigating the scope of social responsibility in South Africa, considering both the viewpoint of business and the public, he came to the conclusion that society is significantly more in favour of corporate social responsibility than business. There is, however, according to him, a growing awareness among South African business leaders.

Mazis and Green (1971:68) agree when they state that businessmen have become increasingly aware that they should consider social responsibilities in the operations of their firms. The same authors also point out that social responsibility of business goes further than concern only over those issues or areas in which business is an active participant. It is said to involve other elements where current business involvement is at best, indirect. Chrisman and Carrol (1984:60) make it clear by stating that business is now forced to consider the social consequences of its economic operations, as

well as to engage in purely social causes.

Business is thus not allowed any more to only make profit. It is expected to be socially responsible, and to be more sensitive and responsive to a wide variety of social issues. Not alone should it become involved to compensate for the effects of its operations, but it should assist society in the solution of a wide variety of social problems, regardless of whether business caused it.

Business develops and support social responsibility for various reasons. In a Special Report on Corporate Social Responsibility, Craig Charney (1983:73) makes the statement that the motives for social action by business include anxieties about political stability, pressure on foreign firms, and corporate image. In the same report the view of Harry Oppenheimer, one of the past chairmen of Anglo American Corporation of South Africa, is quoted. He said that

"just as a large company seeks to conserve its assets and ensure its future survival by re-investing part of its profits, so it should seek to conserve and improve the social environment in which it does business in the hope that it will be able to continue to do business in the future, preferably in a better environment than it has at present." (1983: 75)

It is easy to understand the rationale of this statement, because the social environment of business has a direct and immediate effect on it. Business cannot be seen sitting on large amounts of capital without spending some of it on social causes. More and better social performance might be expected of South African companies when this country eventually gets a new, more representative government.

Farmer and Hague (1985:6) allege that corporate goals can be placed on a continuum ranging from pure profit maximisation to socially oriented action.

The goals of most firms tend to cluster at four points along this scale. At the point of profit maximisation social goals are incidental. At the next point profit growth is important, but social goals are also important. At the third point social goals become more dominant and the firm breaks even on money. At the other extreme social goals are in a very dominant position and money losses are regarded as acceptable. The authors state that most companies tend to cluster at the second point where profit growth is acceptable, but social goals are also important.

Some business leaders distinguish between internal and external social responsibility. By internal social responsibility they mean mainly responsibility to their own employees. External responsibility refers to the external environment. In a Corporate Social Responsibility Survey (Financial Mail, 1989), it is explained that some companies include training and other benefits for their staff under social responsibility, while others confine the definition to community work outside the company. In their social spending, some companies also exclude certain selected items like sponsorships, bursaries, and donations to the Urban Foundation. It all depends how the firm defines its social investment. This is reflected in the view of Anton Roodt (1987:4) when he says that in his mind, social responsibility is a key business area, concerned with the external environment issues of community and consumer relations, and the internal environment issues of working conditions, racial discrimination, education and training, the notion of fairness, etc.

Some firms use certain criteria in deciding what kind of programmes should be supported or initiated. Fourie and Morris (1987:14-15) suggest ten criteria to be considered when choosing a social responsibility project. AECI, one of the biggest chemical and explosives manufacturers in the country uses certain

criteria when they decide on what they call their Quality of Life budget (One percent of profits, 1990). They also tend to focus on communities where their employees live (Focusing on the quality of life, 1990). The Chairman's Fund of the Anglo American Corporation uses the same criterion (Fund spends R44-m, 1990) as well as Toyota S A (Trust to improve quality of life, 1990).

Another dimension that has entered social responsibility in South Africa, is the acceptability of the particular project in the community. Black communities, and more particularly the Black trade unions resent what is called "White paternalism". This has lead companies to consult with communities before they embark on a project (Foreword, 1989). The Chairman's Fund uses acceptability of the project to the community as criteria for its social responsibility programmes.

The above paints a fairly accurate picture of the nature of CSR in South Africa. In the following section, the basis of CSR will be further elaborated upon to get a more comprehensive picture of CSR practice.

2. THE INTERDEPENDENCE BETWEEN INDUSTRY AND THE COMMUNITY

In the section above it became clear that CSR is mainly the result of the felt responsibility of business towards the communities in which it operates. This is further strengthened by the interdependence between business and the community. Implicit in this interdependence is the elements of a contract, something familiar to the social worker.

Jack Rothman (Akabas and Kurzman, 1982:183-186) explores the reciprocal relationships between the community of work and the general community by looking at what management and labour requires of the community and what the

community requires of the community of work.

Management requires a place to locate, a pool of employees, and efficient local services to support their operations. This include amenities such as schools, welfare services, recreational and cultural attractions. Management finally seeks an atmosphere of community acceptance, including opportunities to participate in and influence local institutions so that they will be responsive to work place production needs.

Organised labour wishes of the community an adequate level of health and welfare services to meet the needs of workers. It also desires community acceptance of the right to organise, to negotiate on wages and working conditions, and to use legitimate trade union weapons like the strike.

The outside community wishes its economic well-being to be enhanced by the functional community of work. This means the availability of jobs, an adequate supply of goods and services, and the attracting of monies, investment, resources, and amenities to the community. The community wishes the world of work to share in meeting economic responsibilities, such as paying adequate taxes and providing fees for civic services.

There is also a desire for the community of work to assume social responsibility in the creation and maintenance of community institutions, such as a good school system, fine churches, modern playgrounds, and a broad range of cultural activities, as well as physically attractive and ecologically healthy environment.

Lastly, there is the interdependencies around social work and social welfare, further cementing this relationship between business and the community.

Although the community of work and the social work community to some degree have had a separate, and at times an antagonistic existence, they each have resources the other could use. Feinstein and Brown (1982:86) confirms this by reminding us that business and industry have long been involved with welfare agencies and concerns, in particular by supporting voluntary agencies both financially and through individual service agencies and community welfare agencies.

From the view of social work, the availability of economically viable and psychologically satisfying jobs has both a therapeutic and preventive consequence for its clientele.

Workplace members from both labour and management provide a range of supports for the social work field, especially as far as volunteers and leadership are concerned. The work community also offers an available clientele to receive professional social work services.

The social work community is also powerfully affected by the provisions of the occupational welfare system. That determines what needs to be provided for by the social work community.

It is also beneficial for management to have an effective social work system in the community. These services can affect the mental and physical functioning of the workforce, so that they perform their task at maximum efficiency. From a social work point of view, there can be compatible goals in such a situation, as the profession works for the enhancement of mental health and of productive use of one's self, socially and economically.

Trade unions can also benefit by a responsive social work community because

it needs the programmes and services supplied by the social work community.

Mullins condenses the above into the following:

"Organisational survival is dependent upon a series of exchanges between the organisation and its environment. These exchanges and the continual interaction with the environment give rise to a number of broader responsibilities to society in general. These broader responsibilities, which are both internal and external to the organisation, are usually referred to as social responsibilities. These social responsibilities arise from the interdependence of organisations, society, and the environment" (1989:102)

From the above it is clear that a close relationship of interdependence exists between the community and industry. The community and industry need each other, and therefore there will be an exchange of "goodwill" and other resources and necessities. This interdependence should be used by the social worker to achieve some aims to the benefit of both industry and the community.

3. AREAS OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Social responsibility programmes of companies in South Africa find application in a variety of areas, the main one being Black education. Another area is housing in the form of donations to the Urban Foundation, which, according to the Survey on Corporate Social Responsibility (Business Day, 1990) is the largest organisation through which CSR is conducted. Most companies included in the regular surveys done by Financial Mail, The Star newspaper, and Business Day newspaper, donate money to the Urban Foundation as part of their CSR budget.

The Urban Foundation is a non-profit company providing houses for mainly urban Black families. Other programmes of the organisation encompass local

community enablement and economic advancement, urbanisation policy and metropolitan development and education. One project which received a major thrust in the last three years was the establishment of community resource centres to enable community groups to become involved in development work. According to the Corporate Social Responsibility Survey (Financial Mail, 1988), other areas of involvement are education and job creation. These are excellent examples of projects in the community which can become beneficiaries of CSR spending.

Additional areas of CSR activities include health, environment and conservation (Business Day Survey, 1990). Areas reported by The Star Survey (1990) are alleviation of poverty, and preparation for economic leadership. All these serve the social upliftment and development of certain disadvantaged sectors in the community.

In her conceptual framework for social responsibility, Angela du Plessis (1987:12-13) includes education, health, job creation, welfare, and community development, which really covers what has been said already. There thus seems to be agreement on the kinds of projects to be supported by CSR. It can be expected, however, that each company would like to retain its independence as far as decisions on CSR are concerned.

There are also the internal programmes where CSR is directed at the employees of the firm. Examples of this kind include training and benefits for their own staff (Corporate Social Responsibility Survey, Financial Mail, 1989). This implies contribution to the occupational social welfare system, something which was discussed in chapter 2.

The areas of CSR in South Africa seem to be very similar to those of other

industrialised nations. This is confirmed by Carmichael and Drummond (1989) listing the following areas as appropriate for companies to show their concern in the form of corporate responsibility: health, education, recruitment and retention, training, the environment, equal opportunities, retirement and older workers, arts and sport sponsorship, and charitable giving. They provide for "in-house" as well as "out-house" social responsibility. This is the same as the "internal" and "external" social responsibility programmes referred to in the South African context.

According to Feinstein and Brown (1982:89) ways in which business and industry discharge their corporate social responsibilities fall into three categories: (1) Support of community resources. Here business and industry participates in direct funding of social and community services by supporting employee volunteer activities, as well as assigning employees to designated projects and company operated and sponsored recreation programmes. Indirectly this is in the interest of the employees of the company. (2) Social planning activities. In this approach, corporate representatives participate in establishing and altering community policy and procedures; collaborate in community planning; alter internal company policies so they are consistent with their external relations and viewpoints; and participate in social impact studies and other activities related to the quality of life for a given locale or region, or on a national scope. (3) Providing direct services. This type of corporate involvement makes changes in the ways a business or industry normally operates in order to address a local and national social need such as increasing financing for home-owner loans to blighted neighborhoods; contracting as providers of services to individuals families and communities; delivering education programmes for the public; promoting affirmative action for ethnic minorities, women and the handicapped; and providing internal programmes to promote health, social and

recreational opportunities for employees and their families.

Social workers, as community social workers or industrial social workers, benefit in some way by the different areas of CSR.

4. THE ROLE OF THE SOCIAL WORKER IN CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

The role of the social worker in CSR programmes is relatively unexplored. If the different areas of CSR are considered, however, several tasks for the social worker emerge. Straussner (1990:13) stresses the fact that the titles and responsibilities of the social worker in this model will vary. The social worker may be charitable allocations analyst, urban affairs advisor, corporate social responsibility director, community relations consultant, or community services coordinator. Responsibilities may include identifying and linking the organisation with community leaders, evaluating requests for contributions to community groups and charitable organisations, conducting community needs assessments, and consulting and/or developing new services and programmes. The roles and skills included in the model are community analyst and planner, budget allocator, programme developer, broker, advocate, and negotiator.

A good starting point for the social worker employed by the company, is the company itself. It should be kept in mind that the total organisation is the client of the social worker. The social worker should first determine what the company policy is regarding CSR. If the company does not accept that it has a social responsibility, the social worker could point out community attitudes and needs in this regard.

The existence of a social work unit in the company in itself is an expression of internal social responsibility. Within the social work programme, the social worker could act as a catalyst and consultant on the development of internal social responsibility towards the employees. This will be based on the social workers' knowledge of human needs and employee benefits.

The social worker can also assist the company in setting up the organisational facility in dealing with its CSR programme. This would imply coordinating the various CSR activities in the organisation.

Another task the social worker will have, is to gather and interpret social data to the organisation. The social worker's knowledge about the community, and his close contact with the community will place him in a unique position to gather and interpret social or community data.

The social worker's knowledge about the community will also enable him to help the company to select viable social causes to support. It will also put him in a position to help with the development of appropriate projects, and to help evaluate progress made with such projects. Edmund Burke (1987:350) states that social work has two roles to play in the new environment of CSR. The first is to provide corporations with trained staff. As business expands their community relations, they will need people with the following community work skills: (1) ability to locate and work with community leaders, (2) knowledge of community organisations and their function in communities, (3) ability to evaluate and analyse budgets and requests for contributions of community groups and organisations, and (4) ability to conduct a community needs assessment. Most of the community organisation skills will be appropriate.

Secondly, the corporate community must be educated and influenced about human services and human service needs. The social worker must use his knowledge about the community and its resources to advise corporations on ways of supporting the community.

The social worker must employ his social work skills and principles, and his knowledge about community resources and problems in assisting the organisation to express their positive and supporting attitude to the community in the form of social responsibility programmes.

Several authors, (Feinstein and Brown, 1982; Gould and Smith, 1988; and Masi, 1982) give examples of the kind of CSR programmes social workers can become involved in, as well as the kind of skills relevant to the task. Feinstein and Brown, and Masi describe specific programmes of particular organisations involving social workers, while Gould and Smith outline certain areas of social responsibility especially suitable for the application of social work skills and knowledge. Areas identified by Gould and Smith are consumer assistance programmes, corporate philanthropy, and community relations.

Gregory de Silva (Gould and Smith, 1987:283) provides an overview of customer assistance programmes (CAP) of utility companies, banks, and funeral houses employing social workers as staff for their social responsibility programmes. He also gives a summary of the findings of research done to obtain information regarding the functions performed by these service providers, their knowledge and skill base, and their recommendations regarding the preparation desirable for new entrants into these industries. The skills utilised by CAP staff were classified as interpersonal, administration, community organisation, and research skills. A considerable amount of work

involved direct services. Theoretical knowledge regarded as helpful was on human behaviour. Communication skills were regarded as useful practice knowledge. Knowledge regarded as important for entering CAP positions were public relations, knowledge of community resources, teaching skills, legal knowledge related to the particular industry, and learning how to balance the production needs with the human service needs of the customer.

This survey stresses the importance and usefulness of generic skills. Many of the recorded skills will also apply in many other social work helping situations.

Another area of social responsibility where industrial social workers can be instrumental in assisting organisations in the community as well as the donor organisation, is corporate giving, defined by Brilliant and Rice (Gould and Smith, 19887:301) as gifts of cash or grants made to charitable organisations. According to them, contributions can be divided into in-kind contributions, direct cash contributions, and indirect contributions.

Another function of CSR according to Burke is that of community relations. Burke describe these programmes in detail as follows:

" It can be defined as programs and activities of a corporation that are designed to contribute to the improvement of a community's health, welfare, culture, community development and other needs. The programs can include contributing money and in-kind services to community-based organizations; providing employee volunteers and loaned executives for community and government agencies; allowing leave programs for employees to work for a social service organization up to a full year; sponsoring as partnership with a local school system; conducting a health fair; sponsoring an art and cultural bazaar; tutoring poor and disadvantaged children; supporting and encouraging community problem-solving and planning activities; underwriting costs of rehabilitating low-income housing; and a great variety of other community activities."

This definition comprises the community work roles of the social worker and provides a role for the industrial social worker in this leg of CSR.

The industrial social worker's reasons for concern about the community is twofold. Firstly, he needs the community and its resources to act as support systems in his work with individual employees and their families. He does not control all resources necessary for an effective resolution of the personal problems of the troubled employee. He will often have to refer if the problem cannot be handled within the policy framework of the industrial social work programme. Secondly, his knowledge about the community must be utilised to assist the organisation to implement their community relations programmes, thereby strengthening the community in the process.

Contact with the outside community on behalf of individual employees and their families will give the social worker some indication of the strengths and weaknesses in the community.

A review of social responsibility programmes where social work intervention is indicated, shows the relevance of community work skills and knowledge. Burke (Gould and Smith, 1988:325) feels that the skills and knowledge now needed for establishing relations with the community are the kinds of skills already possessed by social workers in the community. He lists the following examples of such skills:

1. The ability to locate and work with community leaders;
2. An understanding and working knowledge of social welfare, housing, community development, health, recreation, and other community organisations;
3. Knowledge of health and welfare needs;
4. The ability to conduct a community needs assessment;
5. The ability to analyse agency and organisation budgets and requests for contributions;

6. The ability to recruit and involve volunteers both within and outside the corporation in community projects;
7. The ability to facilitate and to act as a catalyst for the involvement of company executives - line and staff - in community programmes and projects;
8. Knowledge of the community organisation process.

The social worker is employing his community work skills in service of the social responsibility programme of the organisation, provided that it is in line with his ethical principles. The skills quoted in this regard by Feinstein and Brown, (1982:97) are (1) organising, (2) planning and policy-making, (3) policy and legislative skills, (4) interpersonal and small group skills, (5) administrative skills, (6) strategy design and implementation, (7) promotion and communication.

In examples of corporate social responsibility presented by them, Feinstein and Brown (1982:95) concluded that the problem-solving process has been used as a framework to implement them. They also list the stages of the problem-solving process as (1) gaining recognition of the problem or need, (2) definition and analysis of the problem, (3) planning, (4) implementation, evaluation, and (5) further application. This will be the normal process followed by the social worker in implementing social responsibility programmes in industry. Of course, the sanction for implementation must come from the management of the organisation, within the framework of their policy on CSR.

From the above it is clear that the industrial social worker utilises his community work roles when he becomes involved in CSR. An appropriate community work model to be utilised in this regard seems to be the social planning model of Rothman and Tropman (Cox, et al 1987), although some elements of the other models will also be applicable, depending on the type of programme and community the organisation wants to contribute to.

Examples of task goals associated with this model are the delivery of services, and the establishment of new services (Rothman & Tropman, 1987:8). Contributions to these goals can come in various forms, depending on the way in which the organisation intends contributing. It can be technical expertise such as assisting with budgeting or public relations, or it can be in the form of donations.

The roles emphasised in social planning are expert or technical roles, such as fact finding, implementation of programmes, relationships with various bureaucracies, and with professionals of various disciplines. Burke (Gould and Smith, 1988:325) feels that the community relations executive should be able to provide data and advice on a number of community issues and problems. He should also serve as an expert on community analysis and diagnosis and the evaluation of community and corporate community programmes. He should also be knowledgeable about other community and corporate programmes.

The industrial social worker will have to make a study of relevant community work literature in order to make the applications to the CSR component of his work. It must be kept in mind that the most industrial social workers work without the support of a supervisor or consultant, with the effect that self-development is of the utmost importance. The industrial social worker should work systematically in initiating, developing, and managing corporate social responsibility programmes. The use of the problem-solving process has been referred to in chapter six and will not be repeated here, apart from emphasising its general usefulness in industrial social work practice.

It is envisaged that it will take some time before the industrial social worker will become involved in social responsibility activities of the organisation. The reason for this is twofold. Firstly, the primary

responsibility of the social worker still remains the individual employee and his immediate family. The development of service on this level will take some time. Secondly, the social worker will have to prove his skills before he will be entrusted to act as a consultant on corporate social responsibility. It can be expected that he will not be the only advisor in this regard. Involvement in the EAP of the organisation will give the social worker an opportunity to first establish his credentials. From that basis he can expand his role into other areas. If the social worker is new in the area, it will also take time before he will be able to identify opportunities for the implementation of social responsibility activities. That does not mean, however, that he should not use opportunities presented to him in his daily activities.

SUMMARY

The emerging function of CSR, especially in South Africa, provides the industrial social worker with opportunities to play a significant role in the internal social responsibility programmes of the organisation. In addition to this, the social worker also has the chance to render a contribution in the development of relationships between the company employing him, and the outside community. In this way, he can also fulfill his responsibility as a social worker to the community at large, something his ethics demands as well.

Although the social worker may not be the manager of the CSR, he may be responsible for certain sections of the CSR of the company, and he can act as a CSR consultant, based on his knowledge of community developmental needs. In South Africa, it is the Black community in particular who is in the greatest need for the kind of benefits resulting from the company's awareness of its

responsibility for social investment.

CHAPTER 9

ISSUES CONFRONTING THE PRACTICE OF SOCIAL WORK IN INDUSTRY IN SOUTH AFRICA

In the last five chapters, the development and implementation of social work practice in industry was described. Attention was also given to the different levels in industry where social work could be practised. This amounted to what can be termed a management model of industrial social work practice.

During the process of development, implementation and practice of social work in industry, certain issues will be affecting its course of development, and its practice. A description will now be given of the main issues that could influence the practice of social work in industry in many settings and under different circumstances. The same issues are raised in different sources, which serve as an indication that some of them are recurring wherever social work in industry is discussed. Many of these issues can only be appreciated if it is accepted that, in order to render an effective service, the role of the social worker in industry must be accepted and understood properly. They refer to the value elements as well as to some practical matters. These issues must also be understood as arising from the interaction between certain characteristics of industry and social work. In order to understand them fully, they should be identified and assessed.

Social work practice in industry is different from social work practice in any other secondary, non-social work, or host setting, and these issues arise

mainly from this. Paul Kurzman (1983:105) describes this situation as follows:

"What is important ... is that our employment in this arena involves practice not merely in a host environment (such as in school, medical or correctional social work practice) but practice in a nontraditional, non-human-service host setting. The somewhat alien nature of this host environment poses new issues for the social work profession"

The distinction made by Kurzman between different host environments is significant and important. He distinguishes industry from schools, medical and correctional settings by describing it as a non-human-service host setting. That means that people are not the primary focus in the industrial setting.

Bloom (1990:343) states that the social worker is a visitor and thus is obliged to follow the general rules of the involved organisations in an occupational setting. This means that the social worker should behave like a visitor and should not impose himself in order not to annoy the host. This requirement poses a great challenge to the social worker in the host setting of industry, because a special effort must be made to survive.

Dane and Simon (1991:208) remind their readers that since their profession was formalised, social workers have been working guests, in "host settings", or organisations whose mission and decision-making are defined and dominated by people who are not social workers. They stress that social workers in host organisations, like guests, must make their stay of continuing interests to their employees by providing evidence on a regular basis of their indispensability to either the mission or overall welfare of the host. It is only on that condition that the social worker will be able to stay on. What is significant in this statement is that people other than social workers make the important decisions. The setting is dominated by those not

familiar with social work. This means that people not trained in social work will be deciding about social work, and the role it should play. It is quite possible that the wrong decisions will then be taken, forcing the social worker into a role they are perhaps not prepared to fulfill, or perhaps cannot fulfill, because it may represent a departure from the philosophy and values of social work. They are, however, confronted with the problem that the people taking the decisions are their superiors, whose opinions will in all likelihood prevail.

It must also be kept in mind that industry exists to make profit and not to satisfy the emotional and psychological needs of people. Its primary concern is with its own health, which is measured by its ability to compete and survive in the market place. It is there for the production of goods and services in order to make a profit. This has implications for the sanction of social work in industry. Other host settings like schools, hospitals, and prisons are different from industry in the sense that these settings exist for rehabilitation and the promotion of personal and social well-being. The explicit purposes of these settings are in harmony with those of social work. It will be expected of the social worker in industry to apply his skills in such a way that he contributes to the survival of industry in the market place. Management will watch the contribution of the social worker to the making of profit. Social workers may be permitted to practice according to professional role expectations, but their practice must be seen to make a difference to the bottom line. The social worker is thus faced with the challenge to explain his contribution in a language that will be understood by industrial leaders. This may develop into a credibility issue for the social worker.

Dane and Simon have identified the following four common problems encountered

by social workers in host settings: (1) discrepancies between professional mission and values, and those of dominant individuals in the employing institution; (2) marginality of token status within workplaces employing few social workers; (3) the devaluing of social work as women's work in settings that are predominantly male in aspiration and composition; and (4) role ambiguity and role strain.

1. VALUE CONFLICTS

There are discrepancies between the mission and values of social work and those of the host organisation. This is perhaps the main problem experienced by social workers in host settings, and in industry in particular. The "dominant individuals" in the organisation will tend to protect their values, because they will believe this to be in the interest of the organisation. The social worker will have to prove that his values can also be used in the service of the organisation. This clash in value systems will require of the social worker skills in organisational politics in order to establish his position. It is debatable, however, whether social workers are trained to handle organisational politics, which means that they could be left without a valuable survival skill in industry. A reason for this is that social work training in South Africa is generic, and students are not trained for specific settings during the undergraduate courses. Some specialised post-graduate courses are offered, but in different directions, and not necessarily for industrial social work. Post-graduate courses in industrial social work are only offered at two South African universities.

The discrepancies between the mission and values of social work, and that of industry cause pressures and stresses for the social worker who wants to serve with integrity, and who wants to maintain his commitment to client

self-determination. This problem is caused by the fact that organisational leaders have different perspectives than the social worker in the organisation. They would focus more on accountability to boards of directors and funding sources that focus on cost containment and profit incentives. In these instances, organisational goals are placed ahead of client well-being (Dane and Simon, 1991:208). This is particularly true about industry where tension exists between the values of industry related to the making of profit, and the human service values of social work with emphasis on the dignity and worth of the individual. The production of goods and service for profit is industry's primary goal, and not the psychological and emotional welfare of the worker. There would be a concern about the well-being of employees, but only insofar that it serves the profit goals of the organisation. It could happen that the emphasis on profit will work against the general well-being of people, and that not enough attention is given to the human aspects of industry. This leads to the following issue, which is the appropriateness of the setting.

2. THE APPROPRIATENESS OF THE SETTING

A crucial issue to be resolved is whether social work can be practiced in a setting so foreign to its mission as is the case with industry. Kurzman and Akabas (1981:52) feel that it should still be established whether the world of work can provide an appropriate framework for the practice of social work, whether the "values, purpose, sanction, knowledge, and method" of social work applies to this setting. If the assumption that there is discomfort between the values of social work and the organisational values is accepted, the appropriateness of the setting becomes an issue indeed. As long as this discomfort exists, this issue will remain an issue. Industry is becoming more "human" which means that there is a greater acknowledgement of the kind

of values social work subscribes to. Employees are being acknowledged as one of industry's biggest assets. The problem perhaps lies in industry's reluctance to acknowledge social work as a discipline which is capable of making a contribution to the maintenance of such an asset in a way acceptable to industry. It is doubtful, however, whether industry will ever develop to the point where human relations professionals will play such a meaningful role that they will be allowed to determine company social policy. It is also doubtful whether social workers will ever get so far as the board room, which should happen if they want to fulfill their function properly. As long as this condition continues, will it at all be possible for social work to render a maximum contribution in industry? It could easily become a case of "you will be OK as long as you do not upset the apple cart".

Considering the history of social work and the traditional involvement of social work with the disadvantaged, down-trodden and poor, questions about the legitimacy of industrial social work are raised (Googins and Godfrey, 1987; Gilbert and Specht, 1981). These are moral questions, especially considering the charge that by moving into industry, social work finds itself in alliance with capitalists, and thereby forsaking the poor and unemployed.

If the above is the perception of social workers in the rest of the profession, it has implications for the integration of industrial social work with the main professional body. This will also affect the support social workers in industry wish to get from their colleagues employed by community welfare organisations.

Perlman, (1968, 1982) however, is of the opinion that the worker has been neglected by social workers, because he is away at work during the day, and can thus not be included in family interviews in the course of the day.

Googins and Godfrey (1987:11) also point out that many social workers did work with employed individuals or families in the context of settlement houses or private practice. They agree with Perlman by also pointing out that little attention was paid to the working dimensions of their lives, because it was assumed that family and social relationships were the only appropriate realms of practice. This is all true, but it will not be possible for social work to render this needed service to the worker if it is not allowed to play a proper role in industry. Industrial social work can be regarded as the only means by which the person in the workplace can be reached and fully understood. Social workers will have to explain their relevance in business terms, if they want to be regarded as relevant at all. Exploration of the work milieu as a setting for social work practice by social workers, and a growing body of knowledge stressing the relationship between family and work should improve the situation, and make social work in the work place more legitimate.

3. PRACTITIONER RESPONSIBILITY

This issue also arises from the conflict between the goals of social work and those of industry. It is in Bakalinsky's words (Gould and Smith, 1988:18) the "fundamental conflict between the profession's commitment to people's well-being and industry's dedication to profits." A humanistic philosophy underlining the inherent dignity and worth of the individual is common to the practice of social work in a diversity of settings, while priority of profits and production is common to industry. Individuals have an instrumental value in the context of the larger goal; they are a means towards an end. The above conflict poses the question of allegiance of the social worker. Does it belong to the client, the employer, or the profession? The main responsibility of the social worker in industry remains

the client and his needs. That is dictated by the philosophy of social work practice and the codes of ethics adhered to. It is however true that the industrial social worker is employed and paid by industry, and that some commitment to the goals of the organisation would be expected. An answer to the conflicting demands must be found and given by the social worker. Feinstein and Brown (1982:142) report that human-relations professionals feel that a belief in the dignity and worth in people is part of their motivation to provide human relations service for employees. According to Virgil Patterson this is not supported by a value comparison between social workers and business people (Feinstein and Brown, 1982:142). The study quoted found a materialistic orientation in business people versus a humanistic orientation in social workers.

Kurzman ((1983:13) warns against social workers suggesting that they may bring greater productivity or profit to the company. If this happens people will become a means, and not an end. He points out that if the social work function is defined as helping the corporation fulfill its social obligations and its commitment to improving the quality of life for its work force, the practitioner's role is more likely to become an ethical one. He stresses that industrial social work expertise is not in promoting profit maximisation, but in helping organisations meet the needs of individuals, groups, and communities in the world of work. He furthermore states that such clarity around our role and function is essential to ensure that people will be the central role of our attention; that a goal will be to enhance the quality of life for work force participants; and that our commitment will be both to the provision of social services and to the creation of humanistic forms of organisational change.

A particular problem mentioned by various authors (Kurzman, 1983; Kurzman &

Akabas, 1981; Akabas, 1982; Johnson, 1982) in this regard is confidentiality. To what extent can social workers keep information confidential? What happens if the organisation's interests are threatened. How should the social worker respond if pressurised by management to divulge information the client/employee has shared in confidence?

Paul Kurzman (1988:22) distinguishes between absolute and relative confidentiality, and states that the majority of social workers in all settings function in terms of relative confidentiality. This means that the person's right to confidentiality is to a certain extent limited by the common good and the interests of the company where the social worker is employed. Confidentiality is a right of the client\employee, but there are also responsibilities to the company. The social worker should not be overprotective of the client, and should draw a line between the rights and responsibilities of the employee. If management feels that the social worker is protecting the client under pretences of confidentiality, it will have serious implications for the social worker and his position.

Empirical evidence, however, seems to indicate that this does not seem to be an insurmountable problem. It is reported by Kurzman (1988:22) that most studies of the operational industrial social work programmes show that maintaining confidentiality of client communication is not a major problem in actual practice, although special arrangements and cautions must be taken on a preventative basis. Vinet and Jones (1983:32) confirm this but state that practitioners in industry, as a general rule, share only information about work-related issues. Clear messages have to be given about the limits of certain information, the use of information in aggregate form, and the necessity of first obtaining a client's permission before disclosing anything about his or her treatment.

Confidentiality must thus be regarded as a potential problem, but it can be resolved through precautions and prior arrangements with management. As trust in the worker develops, this should not be such a big problem. Trust in the worker amongst employees will also grow if it becomes known that information is being kept confidential

From the above it becomes clear that problems in the area of values and ethics exist, and that no conclusive answer is yet available. Issues in this field will have to be negotiated in each company where social workers are employed.

4. POLITICS AND POWER

It has been stated in chapter three that in order to establish a social work unit in industry, the social worker must understand and use organisational politics. Feinstein and Brown (1982:144) deal with this crucial issue and put the question of whether or not human-relations professionals have the power to function effectively, or to produce change. They further stress that power has to be earned or gained, and that it is obtained by being able to demonstrate a contribution that is valued by each particular business or industry. A requirement in this regard is that such contributions need to be defined in monetary or cost-benefit terms, as well as on a value basis.

Cost-effectiveness means that the social worker must prove that the human services will make a contribution to the bottom line, because this will form a very important basis of power and influence. Questions are however, raised about whether it is possible or even desirable to put the contributions of human-relations specialists in a cost-benefit format (Feinstein and Brown, 1982:147). The cost-benefit approach as a basis of influence for the social

worker thus becomes an issue of its own that has to be solved. Feinstein and Brown (1982:147) quote Carl Schramm who states that employers work from a "human capital" approach rather than a "cost-benefit" orientation. The "human-capital approach" means that employers regard their decision to treat alcoholic employees as an investment decision.

It is also argued that any presentations of cost-benefits or return on investments for union, company-sponsored, or contract programmes do not present the full impact and benefits delivered. In general, the position is taken that the cost-benefit approach to programme effectiveness is difficult to establish and should be used with caution. In the spirit, there is more often than not an understatement of the benefits.

The above arguments about cost-effectiveness issues imply that standards other than money should be used to determine the values of human service programmes in industry. As a result the emphasis must be placed on research in order to design and develop standards that will be more relevant for the measurement of efficiency and effectiveness of social work services in industry.

5. STIGMA

This is another issue listed by Feinstein and Brown (1982:146) which would affect the difference that employee assistance services could make in industry. They mention that there is certainly a stigma about mental health and alcoholism problems and that most employers do not like to acknowledge that they have employees experiencing problems. They would like to present their company as having the kind of atmosphere where people are happy in their work. This causes some ambivalence about saying that people have

problems that are either promoted or made worse in the work setting, or that some employees might be bringing some problems from their personal life into the workplace. To them the appointment of a social worker will be admitting defeat, or signifying an unhappy workforce.

Another condition complicating the situation even further is the professional status of social work. This is carried over into industry and will influence industry's willingness to trust social workers with issues related to employees and their work. In a discussion of the importance of supervision in social work, Kadushin (1985:33) mentions society's reluctance to grant full autonomy to social work as a result of doubts about its competence. This undoubtedly will affect social work's position in industry as well, because industry and business in South Africa constitute a very powerful sector in society, and their views will count a lot. Important in this regard are the problems experienced by social work to define its parameters, its goals and core functions, as witnessed by the many articles in professional journals dealing with these issues. This "albatross" around the neck of social work is to a large extent a heritage from its historical development, and is difficult to get rid of. The public perception of social work often emphasises the "charity" or "welfare" components and there is a failure to assess its more professional helping features appropriately.

Feinstein and Brown (1982:146) report that a number of people pointed out that one of the most effective ways to overcome stigma or the scepticism about employee assistance services is to have a well-developed research component to document what is being done by the research programme. Another way of coping with stigma issues is to have a generic service programme that offers services for any type of personal problem of the employee and for his dependents. Both of the above two suggestions should suit social work

practice in industry. Firstly, research is regarded as one of the indirect methods of social work practice, and secondly, the development of a generic service programme is one of the phases in the development process of social work in industry. The usefulness of social work skills in industry should be the basis on which industrial social work is measured, and not inaccurate perceptions that are not countered or challenged by social workers. It was found in this study, however, that industrial social workers spend little time on research.

6. CREDENTIALS

One of the obstacles in the way of the development of social work practice in industry, is the fact that many "helpers" are to be found in industry. They are the people, who, in the absence of professional helpers, execute some of the roles a social worker would fulfill. Existing staff may be assigned to counselling positions, or "informal" helpers would develop. This may create a situation where unqualified people will be dealing with staff problems. The "expertise" contained in the organisation in this way will influence the perception of management of the need for social work services. Management might not be appreciative of the efforts of a social worker if it is felt that existing staff deal with the problems adequately. A problem mentioned by Feinstein and Brown (1982:147) in this regard is that the person assigned the task to deal with employee problems often has a full-time job, and he then has an added responsibility.

The fact that there were other staff who could handle the problems of the employees effectively was also mentioned in the present study as a reason why companies do not appoint social workers. This perhaps also ties in with the professional status of social work. Management might feel that it is

actually better to allow the present staff to deal with personal and social problems of individual workers rather than appointing a social worker, whose expertise and skills might be in question.

7. THE LIMITS OF INTERVENTION

This is a crucial issue, especially when the reform goals of social work are considered. If the humanising of the work place is accepted as a goal of social work in industry, it follows that industrial social workers will have to bring about systemic change as well. This will involve changing those organisational practices and policies causing the employee not to be able to fulfill his role as employee properly as a result of the effect of the work environment on him.

It also involves systems outside the organisation with which the social worker will be allowed to become involved in the interests of the client. Should the industrial social worker work with the family as well, or only under some circumstances? How should involvement with the family be justified and validated? When should the family be referred to an outside organisation for further assistance? There are no easy answers to these questions, as a well integrated body of theory and principles for industrial social work is still lacking. The issues outnumber the answers, mainly because of the present stage of development of social work in industry. There are signs that a greater awareness of the relationship between work and family is developing. This will influence the attitude of industry towards the family, and also the role of the social worker in this regard. Involvement in the family of the employee will differ from industry to industry, and will greatly be determined by the social responsibility philosophy of management. The approach will also partly be determined by the

social worker's view of the employee. Is he viewed in his capacity of employee only, or is he viewed as a total person.

Does intervention extend to the outside community welfare organisations to make them more responsive to the needs of the worker? Will they allow this to happen? Could it be argued that it is also the task of the social worker to help bring about a more supportive social welfare environment?

The issue of organisational change involves whether the social worker will be allowed to go beyond the individual employee. This will largely be determined by the development of industrial social work knowledge to address this issue, by the stage of development reached by social work in a particular company, the job description of the social worker, and the trust the social worker enjoys. The social worker will have to utilise organisation politics to bring this about, because it lies on the policy level, and should start there.

8. ACCOUNTABILITY AND PROGRAMME EVALUATION

This is directly related to the cost-effectiveness issue, because the results of a programme evaluation should be used to determine cost-effectiveness.

It is expected of the social worker to render a complete, and the best possible service to the client. The application of this principle may be affected by industry's demand for productivity. If intervention implies that the employee must leave his place on the assembly line, or in the work group, and in so doing disrupt the flow of work, management will expect that he return as soon as possible. It is not always possible to see the client during his lunch time, or after hours. If management acknowledges the

contribution that social workers can make, it should also be accepted that the employee will have to go for an interview during work hours. At the same time, the social worker can compromise in utilising the kind of intervention modalities that will show results in the shortest possible time. This must be done in view of the expectation of management that the employee be restored to previous levels of productivity as soon as can be expected.

The above leads to the next issue related to the use of treatment methods and approaches appropriate to industry. Because of the expectations of management, the social worker will have to rely on time-limited treatment modalities - modalities giving the highest returns in the shortest possible time. If the need arises for the use of open-ended modalities, referral to outside sources is indicated.

9. THE MARGINAL POSITION OF THE INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKER

Dane and Simon (1991:209) explain some of the problems experienced by social workers in host settings in terms of the token status of minority subgroups in the organisation. They describe tokens as members of the organisation who belong to a subgroup that constitutes 15 percent or fewer of the members of a workforce. By this measure, social workers in most host settings, including industry, are tokens, and they are subjected to faulty perceptions by the majority in the organisation. Token workers encounter many barriers and discriminatory practices caused by perceptual distortions of the predominant majority within the organisation. Their unusual visibility within the workplace results in extreme performance pressures and allows them little margin for error and few opportunities for trial-and-error learning. Majority workers tend to view token workers as different from themselves in every respect and overestimate the homogeneity among tokens. These

misperceptions lead majority groups members to avoid them and to prejudge them as inadequate to perform their assigned tasks. Token workers are isolated on the job and deprived of important informal opportunities to learn from and work side by side with majority group members (Dane and Simon:209).

Dane and Simon (1991:210) refer to research that indicates that social workers are subject to the tokenism described above. They state that the small number of social workers in host settings makes it possible for other professionals and staff members to work for months, or even years without direct, face-to-face exchanges with the social workers which permits the biases to remain unexposed to experiential verification and challenge. In terms of this explanation, social workers are not judged on performance, but on biased perception, which does not necessarily have a connection with reality. To correct these perceptions will be a challenge, and if it is assumed that the complete acceptance of the social worker in the host setting depends on correcting false perceptions, than this task is crucial indeed. If this is further compounded by the fact that exceptional demands are faced by the social worker, then the challenge becomes even more formidable.

It is hypothesised by the researcher that this marginal position of the social worker is related to the lack of political influence.

10. DEVALUING OF SOCIAL WORK AS WOMEN'S WORK

Social work, traditionally, has largely been a profession staffed by women. It thus bears the attributes and stigmas historically found attached to such professions. It was founded to attend in the public domain to the same functions that women were assigned under industrial capitalism and its family ethic, and these functions included caring for dependents, and ensuring

intergenerational continuity by nurturing people and transmitting traditional values (Dane and Simon,1991:210).

Caretaking, child-raising, and social maintenance have been conducted during the twentieth century by women from the lower professional rungs of large public, or not-for-profit bureaucracies such as hospitals, schools, and welfare offices. In most circumstances these organisations are headed and managed by men. Dane and Simons (1991:210) explain that this gender distinction between line workers and executive level leaders compounds the differences between hosts and guests in the host setting. This all means that social workers are relegated to an inferior position in the agency, making it difficult to exert any lasting influence on particularly the organisation's social policy. The social worker is thus handicapped, politically.

11. ROLE AMBIGUITY AND ROLE STRAIN

This is also listed by Dane and Simon (1991:211) as one of the many problems experienced by social workers in host settings.

Firstly, the social worker must fulfill the double role of therapist and controller. In her role as therapist, it is expected of her to help her clients. In the role of controller, she must allocate and manage resources and get involved in other tasks to meet the demands of the agency. This causes stress in the social worker and affects her professional functioning as well.

Another problem is that professional roles in large host settings focus on outcomes, and the processing of a maximum number of people in the shortest

period of time. This shift towards short-term treatment requires social workers to modify their practice orientation to meet organisational needs, while continuing to protect the quality and continuity of care. This issue at the same time also represents a rather serious ethical problem. It signifies a clash in goals between the host agency and that of the social worker. The agency wants the worker back on the production line, and the social worker wants to provide service, and these two goals are not necessarily mutually inclusive.

Dane and Simon also identify the problem of professional turf and autonomy. This arises because many professionals in the same organisation are concerned with similar activities and interventions related to client welfare. There is growing concern and discussion about the increased role blurring in work with psychosocial aspects of the client's life. Confusion over the role of other disciplines occurs most often when a task seems to belong to more than one discipline. This is why it was stated earlier (ch 4) that one of the tasks of the social worker on entering the organisation is role disentanglement. Dane and Simons (1991:211) quote Burt as saying that such role confusion is not something to be avoided. It is not a sign of weakness, but rather an accurate reflection of the nature of interpersonal and power relationships in host agencies.

SUMMARY

The main, most important issues in industrial social work found in the literature has been described above. It should be clear that most of them stem from the clash in values and perspective between social work and industry. These issues will exert their influence on the development of social work in industry and should be recognised for what they are. In

developing the programme, the social worker should keep these issues in mind, and deal with them as they present themselves. It must be assumed that most of them will act as obstacles in many industries. The extent to which they influence the practice of social work in industry will vary from company to company. It is believed that the greater the management support enjoyed by the social worker, the smaller is the chances that these issues will affect social work at any particular company. It is important to remember however, that these issues will also affect the development of social work in industry as a whole, and not only in a particular company.

SECTION C: THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

CHAPTER 10

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1. RESEARCH DESIGN

The practice of industrial social work has not been researched intensively in the last two decades in South Africa. Limited interest in this area of social work practice was shown. It was only towards the latter half of this decade that researchers started to show renewed interest, mainly because companies started appointing social workers in increasing numbers. In view of this, the exploratory-descriptive design for this research is regarded as appropriate to achieve the objectives of the study.

This design involved a survey of three different populations. The main purpose was to describe the nature of the practice of social workers employed by industry. An attempt was also made to ascertain industry's attitude to social work, and their knowledge about its skills with the purpose of identifying possible obstacles to the development of social work in industry. The attitude of private welfare organisations to the employee as a specific client group was also investigated.

A large part of the research consisted of an extensive review of the literature in order to explore the theoretical development in the area of industrial social work. This review served several purposes and can roughly be divided into four major areas. Attention was given in the first place to the broader context of industrial social work practice in order to put it into its proper perspective, and relate it to the wider ecological environment. The second major aspect dealt with the introduction and establishment of industrial social work in industry. This is an area not so

well described in the literature, and deserves attention, because it is a concern amongst social workers in industry, at various stages of the development of the programme. The third major part of the literature review was devoted to the major trends in the practice of social work in industry, as it emerges in the literature. At the same time, it served to conceptualise the present practice of industrial social workers, and provides a framework to explore and assess the practice of social work in industry in South Africa. The last aspects explored in the literature review are the issues and problems affecting the development of social work in industry in South Africa. The researcher is of the opinion that the literature review also served the purpose of contributing to the literature on occupational/industrial social work.

The literature revealed a focus on descriptions of specific industrial social work projects without identifying principles for general use, or a focus on particular theoretical issues. There is a general lack of development of an integrated theory or model for industrial social work. This delays the development of this field of practice. Certain trends, however, do seem to emerge, which are regarded by some authors as different service models.

2. SAMPLE SELECTION

No sample were selected from social work practitioners employed by industry, because the intention was to include the universe of industrial social workers in South Africa.

Samples were selected from the following populations:

- (a) Industries not employing social workers.
- (b) Registered welfare organisations in South Africa employing social workers

To trace social work practitioners in industry, and determine the samples, the following procedures were used:

2.1 Social work practitioners employed by industry

Social workers employed by industry in a professional capacity had to be traced. This was a difficult task because no records of these workers exist. The South African Council for Social Work does not register social workers in terms of practice setting. That means that there is no separate register for social workers employed by industry.

In order to achieve this aim, a "snowballing" or "networking" method of tracing was used. Social workers who were known by the researcher to be employed in industry were approached (Appendix A). They were asked to confirm their employment in industry and provide the researcher with names of other social workers employed in industry (Appendix B). A second method was to write to all Regional Welfare Boards requesting information on social workers they were aware of that were employed by industry in their areas (Appendix C and D). A third method was to ask the **Forum for Industrial Social Workers** to supply the names of all their members. This was done verbally during a meeting attended of this body. A final method was to write letters to all daily and weekly newspapers in South Africa with the request that all industrial social workers reading this letter contact the researcher (Appendix E). The first three methods yielded the best results. A duplication of names occurred as a result of the particular combination of methods used, but the problem was solved by means of elimination and coordination. However, there were some social workers who could still not be traced, in spite of these efforts, and that could have influenced the findings.

The above methods netted 69 social workers. Six of the social workers had to be taken off the list because they did not match the criteria for inclusion in the survey. Two refused to participate in the research, and another six was used to pretest the questionnaire, and was not included in the final group. Fifteen social workers did not return their questionnaires sent to them, and two social workers employed in Oranjemund in the then South West Africa did not consider themselves as part of South Africa as far as the research was concerned, and did not complete their questionnaires. This left the researcher with a group of 38 social workers to work with. This could be regarded as a small sample, and one of the problems encountered by the researcher. It was however, possible to make significant deductions from the findings, regardless of the small sample.

2.2 Industries not employing social workers

Purposive, non-probability sampling was used in the case of industrial organisations not employing social workers. The sample was drawn from McCreggor's Who Owns Whom in Industry (McGregor, 1986), listing all companies on the Stock Exchange. A total of 613 companies is listed in this register and 163 companies were included in the sample. Inclusion was based on numbers of employees per firm, and the basis was all companies employing more than 500 people. Not all companies in this category could be identified, because not all entries included number of employees, and the sample was selected from those companies whose number of employees were indicated. This sample was not regarded as too small for the purposes of the research.

2.3 Welfare organizations

The list of registered welfare organisations employing social workers was

acquired from the different regional welfare boards in the country.

Purposive, non-probability purposive sampling was again used to select a sample of 211 welfare organisations in such a way that they were geographically evenly distributed.

3. THE INSTRUMENTS OF DATA COLLECTION

No standardised data collection instrument existed that could be used in this study. It was therefore necessary to design the research tools. Efforts were made to identify questions relevant to the knowledge in the field. With this purpose in mind, preliminary exploration was done by means of informal discussions with social workers employed in industry, welfare organisations, and trade unions. It helped to design the questionnaires that were used.

Four questionnaires were designed for use in the survey, of which one prepared for trade unions was not used after a very low response when test questionnaires were sent out. One questionnaire was designed to collect data on the practice of industrial social workers (Appendix N). The second one was designed to ascertain the attitude to social work of industrial organisations not employing social workers (Appendix O). The third one was designed to collect data from welfare organisations on their attitude to and knowledge about industrial social work (Appendix P). The fourth questionnaire was designed to collect information from trade unions on industrial social work. This part of the project had to be abandoned because of a lack of response from trade unions. The first questionnaire was coded after it was used, and the other two before the time. No difficulties were experienced in this regard.

The questionnaire to the industrial social work practitioners was pretested

with a small group of six practitioners, and minor corrections were made. The final questionnaire was comprehensive in order to cover a wide field with the purpose of exploring the practice of industrial social work extensively. It was sub-divided into seven sections to cover the different aspects of the social work practice of these professionals. The first section was on identifying details of the organisation employing the social worker, the second section dealt with the personal particulars of the social worker, the third section dealt with the problems of employees handled by the social worker, the fourth section provided for the tasks of the social workers, the fifth section covered organisational aspects, the sixth section was aimed at the professional and training aspects, and the final section covered contact with outside agencies. The questionnaire could be regarded as too general in nature, but in view of the fact that the research was exploratory in nature, it is not regarded as a serious problem.

The questionnaire for industries not employing social workers was sent to 40 organisations in this category, and 16 were returned. After it was pretested it was expanded in order to gain more information. It was then mailed to 163 industries, of which 63 returned their questionnaires.

The questionnaire to ascertain the attitude of welfare organisations was pretested with 30 welfare organizations. Twenty one were returned, of which 18 could be used. Minor adjustments had to be made in preparation of the final product. This questionnaire served the purpose of establishing the attitude and knowledge of private welfare organisations to and about industrial social work. Final questionnaires were mailed to 210 welfare organisations, of which 130 were returned that could be worked with.

The main purpose of this questionnaire was to establish their attitude to

industrial social work in an effort to identify conditions hindering or promoting its further development. The questionnaire asked the industries to identify their attitude towards industry accepting responsibility for the personal and social welfare of their employees, and whether the particular company accepts responsibility for dealing with the personal and family problems of their employees. It sets out further to determine who handles the personal and family problems of the employee, and the methods used to deal with them. Industry's knowledge of other industries employing social workers was tested, and whether that influenced them in their own attitude towards employing a social worker. Industries were also asked to identify the tasks they would allocate to a social worker, and personnel management functions in which they would see a role for the social worker. The final question dealt with industry's attitude towards different auspices for industrial social work.

4. DATA COLLECTION

4.1 Industrial social workers

Before any social worker employed in industry was involved in the research project, their superiors were asked for permission to involve them (Appendix F and G). No serious problems were experienced in this regard. Letters of thanks were posted to them after the completion of the research.

Although it was a costly process, as many as possible industrial social workers were visited and the questionnaires completed during a personal interview. This method was followed in the Cape Peninsula, the Goldfields area, and in the PWV area, where the biggest concentrations of social workers in industry was to be found. The reason for personally administering the

questionnaire was to obtain as many responses as possible, and that was best accomplished by personal visits. The social workers were informed about the visit by letter prior to the actual visit (Appendix H). Questionnaires were mailed to industrial social workers that could not be reached personally (Appendix I), or left at their place of employment at the time of the personal visit. An explanation of some questions on the questionnaire were left with the questionnaires, or enclosed with the mailed questionnaires.

No significant differences were found in the data provided by the social workers seen personally, and those who received mailed questionnaires. The only problem encountered was that less data was included in the mailed questionnaire. However, they could be included in the data analysis.

4.2 Industries not employing social workers

Questionnaires to organisations not employing social workers were mailed, and a return date indicated (Appendix J). Reminders were sent after the expiry of the return date, and letters of thanks sent to all respondents who returned their questionnaires. It was the experience of the researcher, though, that reminders did not increase the return rate significantly. It appears that when a respondent fails to answer the questionnaire the first time, the chances of it being answered at all, is slim, in spite of reminders.

4.3 Welfare organisations

The same method as in the case of organisations not employing social workers were followed with welfare organisations (Appendix K).

5. DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

Data processing and analysis was done by computer, using the BMDP package. This was done with the assistance of a consultant from the Department of Mathematical Statistics at Rhodes University, Grahamstown.

6. LIMITATIONS EXPERIENCED

The following limitations were experienced with the research project:

It was difficult to trace all industrial social workers in South Africa. There was furthermore no way of knowing whether all social workers have been traced. This, together with the fact that some social workers failed to return their questionnaires, could have affected the data.

It was impossible to conduct personal interviews with all social workers employed in industry, and some questionnaires had to be mailed. This could have led to problems with interpretation. It did not seem to have been the case as the questionnaire was fairly clear, as was indicated when it was pretested.

The questionnaire to the industrial social workers covered a wide field, and this perhaps caused the data to be lacking in detail. This, however, is not regarded as such a serious problem, in view of the research design used.

The source used to draw the sample of organisations not employing social workers, did not give the number of employees for all companies. The sample thus had to be drawn only from the group whose numbers of employees were listed. That might have affected the representativeness of the sample, which

was impossible to determine.

On the whole, the research had the limitations characteristic of this kind of design.

Not all literature on industrial/occupational work is available in South Africa. To get literature from overseas is both a costly and time-consuming process, which meant that not all literature could be consulted. The literature used is furthermore mostly American, and not much literature from other parts of the world, especially Europe, could be traced. In view of the fact that most other countries are non-English, language would have been a problem. The researcher admits that the literature review is thus mainly a reflection of American thinking, but that could not be helped. This had an influence on the approach adopted by the researcher in the literature review.

CHAPTER 11

PRESENTATION OF DATA ON INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKERS

In this section, the data on the nature of the practice of social workers in industry will be presented and analysed.

1. DEMOGRAPHIC PARTICULARS

The strongest concentration of social workers included in the sample were employed by organisations located in the Pretoria-Witwatersrand-Vereeniging area (PWV-area), which is South Africa's industrial heartland. The other concentrations were in the Goldfields area in and around Welkom in the Orange Free State, and in the Cape Peninsula. The smallest group was located in Natal. Some of the companies employing social workers have been doing so for more than three decades, and can be called the pioneers of industrial social work in South Africa. The largest number of social workers were employed in the mining industry, with smaller numbers employed in other sectors. In the National Survey of Occupational Social Workers of the NASW (Teare, 1978) it was established that some type of business organisation was the most popular setting for occupational social work. It is hypothesised that the same will be true for South Africa. The present study, however, only applies to industry.

The totals in the results do not reflect organisations, but individual social workers, unless otherwise stated. Because no sample was drawn, data often reflects the opinions of different social workers from the same company. Several companies employ more than one social worker at the same plant, and social workers at different plants, if there were plants situated in more than one location. It may be possible that social work services were in

existence at the company's Head Office for much longer as a result of the fact that other units or divisions of the organisations were only established later. In these cases they would have benefited from experience gained at Head Office, even though the situation and needs at any unit may differ from that at the main plant or Head Office. At least four large organisations which resort in this category formed part of the study. Examples of these are the mines with Head Offices, controlling several mines at different locations. The management of each mine, however, operates independently and has the authority to decide how the social worker is to be employed. It all depends on how centralised decision-making is.

The number of employees of the companies employing social workers varied greatly. It ranged from less than 200 employees to more than 30 000. There seems to be no correlation between the size of the workforce and the decision to appoint a social worker, since there did not seem to be a proportionate increase in the number of social workers in relation to the size of the workforce of the company. It was clear, though, that the size of the workforce plays an important role.

The composition of the workforce of the companies included in the research is a reflection of the composition of the South African population. White and Black males were the best represented.

As far as the number of social workers employed by each company is concerned, only the larger companies employ more than one social worker. This is especially the case with labour intensive industries, and where a particular company had plants at different locations. The practice with some companies seem to be to locate social workers at every plant. Of the total sample of 38 social workers who participated in the research, 23 (60,5%) were under the

age of 35. Hence the majority were employed in industry at a relatively youthful age. The Jorgensen study (1979) established that 75% of the business and industry practitioners were in the category under 40. In the NASW survey (Teare, 1978), 55,8% of occupational social workers involved in the survey were under 40 years of age.

2. DETAILS ABOUT SOCIAL WORKERS EMPLOYED IN INDUSTRY

The duration of the experience of the industrial social workers in the study was established to determine the quality of the experience the social workers in the sample had before they came to industry. This would give an indication of the skills and expertise of the social workers in industry.

More than half of the social workers in the sample (55,3%) had less than three years experience in a conventional welfare agency before they joined industry. Two (5,3%) had no previous experience at all. The results are reflected in the table below.

TABLE 1: SOCIAL WORKER'S PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE IN WELFARE AGENCY

	Years						N = 38
	0	-1	1-3	4-6	7-9	10+	Total
Numbers	2	12	7	5	3	9	38
%	5,3	31,6	18,4	13,2	8	23,7	100,0

The academic qualifications of the social workers in industry were established to determine the level of training of industrial social workers. The largest percentage of social workers in the sample (72,2%) had degrees rather than diplomas in social work, and 13,9% had a postgraduate qualification in social work.

More than 55% of the social workers in the sample qualified in the ten years immediately prior to the investigation. This means that industrial social workers are relatively young, fairly recently trained, and familiar with more recent developments in the field of social work.

Out of 38 social workers, 11 (28,9%) indicated that they have had experience in a child and family welfare organisation, 18 (47,4%) indicated that they have had experience in a state department and nine (23,7%) have had experience in a specialist private organisations. Of these respondents, some had experience in more than one kind of organisations, and some only had the practical experience gained in their training. The latter group, however, is small. It is possible that the kind and quality of experience a social worker had before moving to industry could influence their perception of the role of the social worker in industry.

3. SUPERVISION AND CONSULTATION

The question on supervision was included to determine what the present situation is, and what benefit they got from supervision in the past. Enquiries were made into consultation to determine to what extent social workers make use of this facility, especially in the absence of a social work supervisor.

A total of 19 (50%) social workers indicated that they received supervision before accepting their present job as industrial social worker. The remainder either could not remember or did not receive supervision at all. Regarding their present situation, 12 (31,6%) indicated that they receive supervision, and 26 (68,4%) indicated that they do not receive supervision. Of the 26 who indicated that they do not receive supervision, three (11,5%)

indicated that they feel that they often need supervision, 14 (53,8%) indicated that they feel that they sometimes need supervision, and 9 (34,6%) indicated that they feel they do not need supervision. From this group then, a total of 65,3% indicated that they need supervision, which they do not receive.

Reasons given by social workers who felt that they sometimes needed supervision varied. In many cases the need for supervision on an ad hoc basis stemmed from the fact that the majority of social workers in industry work alone. Some of them felt that they would appreciate supervision on an ad hoc basis as a sounding board, or to get a second opinion. Some felt that they needed assistance to implement certain sections of the social work programme and others felt that they often encountered situations for which they are not prepared. The general impression gained was that industrial social workers miss the support of colleagues. Those who said that they felt they often need it, felt that they lack experience. The felt need for supervision was related to the length of time social workers were employed in industry, the extent and quality of supervision they received before they entered industry, and the amount of previous experience. It should be noted that 50% of social workers in the sample had less than three years experience in the field before coming to industry. Of this figure, a high percentage had less than one year's experience in the field. Furthermore, 44,8% of the sample had less than three years experience in industry at the time of the investigation. This situation is aggravated by the fact that many social workers have to work alone in industry, without the support of a more senior colleague. A number of social workers are employed by companies employing more than one social worker, where they have the advantage of a senior colleague. However, the problem in these situations is often that they do not receive regular, more conventional supervision of the kind they received

in the field when they perhaps needed it the most. The reason for this situation is complex in the sense that the people responsible for social work supervision in companies employing more than one social worker, also expressed reservations about the value of supervision. In the end, the development of social work services in industry could suffer. This state of affairs regarding supervision has been identified as one of the potential problem areas concerning the practice of industrial social work.

Social workers who indicated that they do not need supervision, were in most cases those with much experience in industry, as well as other experience before coming to industry.

Of the 38 social workers in the sample, 16 (42,1%) indicated that they often make use of consultation, 21 (55,3%) indicated that they sometimes make use of consultation, whereas one (2,6%) indicated that he does not make use of consultation. The social worker who indicated that he does not make use of consultation felt that he had enough experience.

On the question of the person consulted, five (13,2) indicated that they consult their social work superiors, seven (18,4) indicated that they consult their social work colleagues, and 18 (47,4%) indicated that they consult non-social work colleagues. A further eight (21,1%) indicated that they consult both. The low percentage consulting their social work superiors can be explained by the fact that only a few organisations had social work units where there is a superior. On requesting the respondents to rank personal and family problems and work-related problems they encounter, 29 (90,6%) of the 32 respondents who answered the question, rated personal and family problems as the most serious problems handled by them. The other 3 (9,4%) rated work-related problems as the most important problem experienced by the workers.

4. THE NATURE OF THE PRACTICE OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKERS

In this section data on the most important aspects of the practice of industrial social workers will be presented. It relates to the problems dealt with by industrial social workers, referrals employed by industry, and the different tasks executed by the social workers. The respondents were asked to rate certain items related to their practice in order to establish the kind of tasks regarded as the most important by the social workers.

Respondents were asked to rate ten important personal and family problems in order of incidence. The results are presented in the table below. The mean was used to determine the relative position of each item on the list.

TABLE 2: PERSONAL AND FAMILY PROBLEMS

Problem	Mean	Rating
Family and marital relationships	2,86	1
Alcohol and drug addiction	3,02	2
Financial problems	3,15	3
Emotional problems	5,63	4
Housing problems	7,13	5
Health problems	7,15	6
Parent-child relationships	7,21	7
Legal problems	7,42	8
Death of family member	7,84	9
Physical problems	8,60	10
Other problems	12,00	11

It is interesting to note that family and marital relationships, alcohol and drug addiction, and financial problems are topping the list of problems dealt

with by social workers. Many EAP's are started as a result of the prevalence of one particular problem, and in many cases it is alcoholism. It should further be noted that many of these problems are related. In the NASW survey (Teare, 1978) alcoholism, drug addiction, marital or family problems, and mental health were listed by the respondents as problems of the highest importance in the workplace.

TABLE 3: WORK-RELATED PROBLEMS

Problem	Mean	Rating
Sick leave	4,42	1
Conflict with supervisor	4,94	2
Dissatisfaction with the work	5,34	3
Disruptive relationships	5,39	4
Adjustments to demands of job	5,55	5
Early retirement	6,28	6
Retirement	6,55	7
Tardiness	6,84	8
Other	10,0	10

Problems with sick leave, in many cases the misuse of it, is at the top of the list. In many cases, the misuse of sick leave is symptomatic of conditions like alcoholism. It is interesting to note that in the NASW survey (Teare, 1978) job-related problems were generally rated much lower in importance than the more personal problems dealt with by the respondents.

On the question that respondents should give an indication which methods are used to deal with listed problems, the majority stated that most problems were being dealt with on an individual basis. One respondent stated that

there is no time for the application of any other methods, because management expects results as soon as possible. In a few cases, problems like alcoholism, drug addiction, preparation for retirement, early retirement and sick leave are being dealt with on a group basis. Some of these groups are educational or informative, rather than therapeutic in nature.

Problems dealt with on a community level are housing, arranging holidays for children of employees and day care centers. An increasing number of companies provide housing projects with other facilities attached for their employees. To an increasing extent day care provisions are being made for children of employees. One company operates a creche on a 24-hour basis, which is rather unique. Also, companies operating in so called "company towns" often accept more responsibility for community development projects because of the large percentage of inhabitants employed by that company. Similarly, when labour intensive industries are situated in small, isolated communities, there is extensive "social involvement" by the employing company. In cases like these, industries are instrumental in establishing or stimulating the establishment of community resources they feel will be used by their employees. This may happen specifically in the case of community welfare organisations.

On the question of the prevalence of certain problems with particular groups, no clear, reliable picture emerged, although the young worker seems to be the focus of attention more than any other group. Other groups mentioned were artisans and operators, with Black workers apparently also faced with problems like consumer ignorance, housing, financial problems, and alcohol abuse. It seems that certain target groups could be identified, if more accurate and reliable methods were used. This will help the industrial social worker to plan services more adequately in terms of real needs. The

impression was gained that although some groups of employees are identified as having special needs, the main focus remains the individual.

4.1 Kinds of referrals employed in industry

Respondents were asked to list nine (9) kinds of referrals according to the incidence by which they occur. The mean score is again used to rank the relative importance of each kind of referral.

TABLE 4: REFERRALS

Type of referral	Mean	Rating
Referral by supervisor	2,63	1
Self-referral	2,86	2
Referral by management	4,94	3
Referral by family members	5,18	4
Referral by family doctor	5,81	5
Referral by co-worker	6,23	6
Referral by welfare agency	6,65	7
Referral by trade unions	8,34	8
Other	10,0	9

Most of the referrals are internal, with supervisors and co-workers the most common sources of referral. Referrals from outside are the lowest on the list, with welfare agencies and trade unions at the bottom.

4.2 The tasks of the industrial social worker

The respondents were asked to rate certain categories of tasks of the industrial social worker in order of importance, and then to rate the tasks

in each category in the same way. The reason for this was to determine exactly how the social worker is engaged in his job. The mean score is again used to determine the relative importance of the different categories of tasks as well as the tasks in each category.

TABLE 5: CATEGORIES OF TASKS

Tasks	Mean	Rating
Tasks directly related to helping troubled employees with personal and family problems	1,37	1
Tasks related to working with the community of employees as a whole and the outside community	3,34	2
Tasks related to establishing and promoting your position and role as social worker in the organisation	3,55	3
Social work administration	3,77	4
Non-social work, general administration	4,63	5
Reearch	5,29	6

TABLE 6: TASKS DIRECTLY RELATED TO HELPING TROUBLED EMPLOYEES WITH PERSONAL AND FAMILY PROBLEMS

Tasks	Mean	Rating
Counselling employees with problems on an individual basis	1,58	1
Identification of personal problems of employees	3,13	2
Communicating with other staff members, e.g personnel people, doctors and nurses, in connection with problems of workers	4,45	3
Dealing with families of clients in connection with problems of worker	4,52	4
Communicating with welfare organisations on behalf of employees	5,05	5
Interviewing supervisors on behalf of clients	5,34	6
Referring clients to outside agencies	6,05	7
Other	5,29	6

TABLE 7: TASKS RELATED TO WORKING WITH THE COMMUNITY OF EMPLOYEES AS A WHOLE AND THE OUTSIDE COMMUNITY

Tasks	Mean	Rating
Identification of groups with special needs (e.g. immigrants, young workers, retirees)	4,18	1
Identification of specific needs of the community of employees as a whole	4,39	2
Prevention of problems through educational programs.	4,66	3
Educating supervisors about the meaning of human needs and problems	5,03	4
Interpreting to management the effect of some company policies and working conditions on the worker	5,08	5
Identification and liaison with community resources which can be brought to bear on the problems of employees	5,60	6
Interpreting the community to the organisation and the organisation to the community	6,31	7
Interpreting your role to outside agencies	6,39	8
Other tasks	9,92	9

TABLE 8: TASKS RELATED TO ESTABLISHING AND PROMOTING THE POSITION AND ROLE OF THE INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKER IN THE ORGANISATION

Tasks	Mean	Rating
Interpreting your role to the employee	1,97	1
Interpreting your role to managers, supervisors and other staff members	2,05	2
Interpreting your role to welfare organisations and the rest of the community	3,16	3
Interpreting your role to the trade union	4,55	4
Other tasks	5,73	5

TABLE 9: SOCIAL WORK ADMINISTRATION

Tasks	Mean	Rating
Record-keeping	2,20	1
Planning and organising your work	2,68	2
Writing letters to and on behalf of clients	4,5	3
Writing monthly and annual reports	4,52	4
Keeping statistics	4,66	5
Serving on specialist committees	5,08	6
Reviewing your work	5,28	7
Other tasks	8,66	8

TABLE 10: RESEARCH TASKS

Tasks	Mean	Rating
Evaluating of existing services	3,26	1
Establishing the need for a service	3,34	2
Exploration of skills and methods necessary to deal with human problems in industry	3,92	3
Investigation of effects of working conditions on employees	4,50	4
Assessment of the relevance of applied social work processes	4,66	5

To get a clear picture of the relative importance of each task of the social worker in industry, it is necessary that each individual task be viewed in relation to the whole list as well, and not only in relation to the tasks in its category. This is perhaps not a very reliable method, but it gives some indication of the attitude of the social worker to the particular task.

TABLE 11: TIME SPENT ON RESEARCH

N = 26

% Time spent	0	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-30	31-40	41 +
Number	7	3	9	3	3	0	1	0
%	26,9	11,5	34,6	11,5	11,5	0	3,8	0

It is assumed that the 12 (31,6%) social workers who did not answer this question spent little or no time on research. This is congruent with the low, overall rating of research.

5. ORGANISATIONAL ASPECTS

5.1 Location of the social worker in the organisations

The majority of 27 social workers in the sample (71,1%) are based in either the personnel or industrial relations division of the company. They are also accountable to the personnel manager.

In cases where the organisation has its own social work section, the social worker is accountable to the head of that section, with the section again accountable to the personnel manager, or the manager of the industrial relation unit.

Other, individual cases are based in the security section, administrative services, health and welfare section, or community services. It must be accepted that the social work unit will be located where, according to management, it functionally fits in the best. That will be determined by the particular way in which the organisations is structured. A wide variety of departments where the social workers were located, were listed in the NASW

survey (Teare, 1978).

5.2 Relationship with non-social work colleagues

On the question of whether they get the necessary co-operation from their non-social work colleagues in the organisation, the majority of 29 (76,3%) stated that they do, while the remaining 9 (23,7%) had reservations. They felt that they do not get adequate co-operation, or they do not get it all the time, or they felt that they do not get it from all their non-social work colleagues.

Respondents were also asked to list any problems experienced by them as far as co-operation is concerned. Twenty (52,7%) listed problems, which meant that 9 (23,7%) of the respondents who reported that they get the necessary co-operation nevertheless had some reservations about this co-operation. The following problems were reported in this regard:

- Problems with evaluation of the social work unit. This refers to standards used to assess its functioning;
- Slow feedback about results of intervention from colleagues;
- Unequal use of service by different sections of the organisations;
- Lack of co-operation from personnel and transport section;
- Lack of empathy;
- Personnel officers feel threatened by the social worker in the beginning;
- Resistance to referrals by other personnel specialists.

These problems either cause the social work unit not to be utilised properly, or are symptomatic of a lack of credibility. Therefore, it is regarded as of the utmost importance that industrial social workers be skilled in the use of tactics to improve the chances of survival of the unit, and the use of skills to enhance the credibility of the social work section.

5.3 The function of social work in industry

There was a great similarity in the responses to the question on the objectives of social work in the organisation. Of the total sample, 17 (44.7%) stated that it was directly related to productivity. Other individual answers were as follows: a happier and stable workforce; service to the employee; attention to specific personal and family problems like alcohol, financial and marital problems; to help management understand the needs of the worker; and to counsel. It is obvious that whatever the purpose, the ultimate goal will be improved production. In the NASW survey (Teare, 1978) the highest single number of respondents (40,1%) saw their current employment function as the rendering of direct services.

The next, related question was what the reasons were for appointing a social worker in the organisation. The purposes of this question was to determine the initial motivation for appointing a social worker. The following is a summary of the answers given:

- The majority of social workers responding to this question (36%) stated attention to specific problems as the reason.
- In some cases, the social worker was appointed to attend to specific projects running at the time. Examples of these are to coordinate the community services programme of the company; appointment as a result of a need identified after the completion of a community project; assessment of the adjustment of pensioners after retirement; to establish a more comprehensive manpower programme, or to add to a team of specialists, or to combat the abundance of problems consuming much of management's time.
- One respondent stated that it was done for humanitarian reasons.

Many of the respondents could not answer this question clearly because the information pertaining to this question was not readily available, or properly documented. However, the reasons given tie in with the reasons described in the literature, namely that social work or EAP's are often

introduced to deal with a particular problem like alcohol abuse or drug addiction. Some of these reasons appear to be similar to the corporate social responsibility projects (Cf Chapter 8)

5.4 The duration of the existence of social work services in industries

Social work services existed in the organisations where respondents were employed for a period of 1 - 30 years at the time of the investigation. Industrial social work has existed in S A for more than 30 years in some companies. It is also the best developed in these companies, and these organisations also employ several social workers in units with their own head. A breakdown of the length of time that social work services were in existence in the companies involved in this study would look as follows:

TABLE 12: LENGTH OF TIME SOCIAL WORK SERVICES HAVE EXISTED

Years	1 - 5	6 - 10	11- 15	16 - 20	21 - 25	25+	Total
* Comp	7	8	1	1	2	3	22
%	31,9	36,5	4,5	4,5	9,0	13,6	100,00

N = 22

* This includes all units of industrial social work, regardless of whether more than one are found in the same company.

It is interesting to note that a total of 68,4% companies have been employing social workers for less than 10 years, with 31,9% employing social workers for less than five years. There is a relatively small middle group with well-established industrial social work units. There is thus little established expertise in this field of practice.

6. PROFESSIONAL ASPECTS

This section of the survey sought to establish the relationship of social workers in industry with the rest of the profession, and with colleagues in other industrial organisations.

6.1 Professional associations

Thirty (81,1%) of the 37 social workers who answered the question indicated that they do belong to a professional social work association, while seven (19,9%) indicated that they do not belong to a professional social work association. Of the group who said that they belong to a professional association, 15 (50%) gave reasons which can be summarised by stating that it helps to keep abreast with developments in the profession and in the literature, and it is a way of remaining in contact with colleagues. The latter implies that it helps to counter isolation from the mainstream of social work.

Of the 37 industrial social workers who responded, 19 (51,4%) indicated that they totally support a separate professional association for industrial social workers. Another 14 (37,8%) support the idea partially, and 4 (10,8%) do not support the idea. In the light of the above, it seems as if industrial social workers feel that they have a separate identity from that of other social workers, although there seemed to be uncertainty in this regard.

6.2 Relationship with colleagues

To the question of isolation from the main stream of conventional social

work, 4 (10,5%) indicated that they feel completely isolated, 22 (57,9%) felt partially isolated, 12 (31,6%) did not feel isolated at all. Not every respondent motivated their response. Reactions of those who motivated their responses, could be classified as follows:

Those who said that they do not feel isolated gave the following reasons for their statement:

- Enough opportunity exists to maintain contact if utilised properly;
- The purposes of social work remain the same, regardless of the setting for practice;
- Referrals to and from welfare agencies provide some opportunity to stay in contact.

Those respondents who felt that they are partially isolated, gave the following reasons for their answers:

- Predominantly they felt that the partial isolation stems from the unique character and nature of industrial social work. The particular setting in which they practice, creates barriers with the outside social work fraternity.
- Some industrial social workers felt that their specialisation also isolates them from certain aspects of social work, like court work. They thus do not come into contact with the broad spectrum of social work practice.
- Another reason relates to the professional relationship with outside agencies. It was felt that outside agencies do not always see the importance of co-operation about shared clients. Another reason given was that outside social workers sometimes fail to understand the nature of industrial social work practice.
- One social worker stated that feelings of being isolated are heightened by being the only social worker in the company.

The only reason given by those who felt totally isolated from the mainstream of social work is also related to the unique character of industrial social work. It is assumed that this degree of isolation felt by the two different groups for the same reason, is related to the quality of contact with the outside social work community. Some industrial social workers may isolate themselves through their own lack of action to counter isolation. One

industrial social worker stated that some of them isolate themselves by not attending any meetings of social work associations.

On the question of isolation from other industrial social workers, six (16,2%) indicated a feeling of total isolation, 19 (51,4) experienced partial isolation, 12 (32,4%) did not experience isolation at all. There were no uncertain answers, and one respondent did not answer the question. Answers to these question would have been determined by the geographic location of the industrial social worker with reference to other industrial social workers. Some industrial social workers will experience isolation, because of the remoteness of the locality of the company they are working for. Social workers employed by companies in the PWV-area are in close proximity to one another, as are those in the Goldfields areas, and the Cape Peninsula. The rest are situated in less concentrated, sometimes isolated areas, of the country.

Respondents who felt that they did not feel isolated, motivated their statements as follows:

- Deliberate efforts are made to keep in contact with colleagues at other companies;
- The Forum for Industrial Social Workers provides a means to stay in touch;
- Workgroups and workshops arranged also help to stay in touch with colleagues.

The Forum for Industrial Social Workers only functioned in those areas in the Transvaal where the largest number of industrial social workers were the most heavily concentrated. Industrial social workers from other areas could not avail themselves of this facility, although efforts were made to get the same kind of body established in the Cape Peninsula.

Motivations of respondents feeling that they were partially isolated from other colleagues in industry, may be classified as follows:

- There is no regular or sound contact with social workers from other industries. This may be attributed to the fact that social workers in industry do not realise the importance of contact, or are too isolated to make contact;
- There are differences between companies, which reduce the common ground;
- Contact made through the Forum for Industrial Social Workers is not adequate, because not all industrial social workers are members of the Forum;
- One response was that the attitude of other industrial social workers does not encourage contact;
- Another respondent stated that there was no formal body in their area to belong to.

The respondent who felt totally isolated, gave the fact that there were no other industrial social workers in the area as reason.

6.3 Reasons for accepting a job as industrial social worker

Industrial social workers were asked to rate the reasons for accepting their job as industrial social workers. The results are presented in the table below.

TABLE 13: REASONS FOR ACCEPTING JOB AS INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKER

Reasons	Mean	Ranking
Interest in a career in an industrial setting.	2,37	1
Financial reasons	3,58	2
A need to be of assistance to the industrial worker	4,42	3
Dissatisfaction with conventional social work	4,50	4
The perceived status of the job of industrial social worker	5,08	5
Other reasons	5,84	6

It is interesting to note that financial reasons are high on the list. Possibly it should occupy the first position, but respondents were reluctant to admit it for fear of being accused of deserting the basic mission of social work. Industry is normally associated with money and high salaries, and this image may draw social workers to industry. A further problem is that few social workers are formally trained for industrial social work. Little clarity on the true nature of industrial social work could have existed exist in the minds of social workers prior to moving into industry. In fact, it is difficult to make a career decision, based on knowledge of social work in industry.

6.4 The maintenance of social work purposes, principles and values

On the question whether they were satisfied that industrial social work is in keeping with the purposes, principles and values of social work, the responses were as follows: Twenty (57,1) of the group of 35 who responded to this question felt that the above is always the case, 13 (37,1) felt that it is sometimes the case and two (5,7%) felt that it is never in keeping with social work values, purposes and principles of social work. Respondents who

felt that it is always in keeping with purposes, principles and values of the profession, motivated as follows:

- The actual practice of industrial social work is in accordance with the true character and philosophy of social work. Especially the purposes remain the same;
- Management allows it to be practiced according to its own philosophy, especially as it gets more and more accepted;
- Its principles are still valid, although it is sometimes undermined by the profit motive.

Respondents who had reservations on this point, gave the following as reasons for their point of view:

- Industrial setting sometimes make it difficult to maintain social work values and philosophy, because of a different set of values prevailing in the workplace;
- Conflicts sometimes arise between the goals of social work and that of industry.
- The profit motive is sometimes an obstacle.
- Clerical work must sometimes be done which is not in line with social work activities

The main problem in this regard seems to be the difference in values between social work and industry. This indeed is a difficult problem, because industry is the secondary setting where the most pronounced difference between social work values and that of the host is found. This causes tensions to a greater or lesser extent. This is also a problem mentioned as an issue in the literature (cf ch 9).

The only respondent who stated that social work is never practiced according to social work values and purposes, stated that it is a new field of practice for which social workers had no previous training. The last part of the answer is true. Only two universities offer a post-graduate course in industrial social work. However, many universities do incorporate industrial social work into their undergraduate courses. This, however, is not

sufficient, considering the demands of this setting.

6.5 Training aspects

The respondents were asked whether the practice of industrial social work warrants specialised training. Thirty seven answered the question and the results were as follows: A majority of 33 (89,2%) felt that it warrants specialised training, 3 (8,1%) did not think so, and one (2,7%) was uncertain. The motivations of those who felt that it warrants specialised training can be divided into the following categories:

- It is essential that the setting of industry be understood;
- The worker as a specific group needs to be understood;
- It is a specialised field of practice.

Those who felt that specialised training should not be necessary motivated their responses as follows:

- Generic knowledge should be enough;
- Exposure to in-service-training should be sufficient.

They were, as already stated, in the minority. The uncertain response was not motivated.

Two (5,7%) of the 35 respondents who answered the question felt that training for industrial social work practice should occur on the undergraduate level, nine (25,7%) felt that it should occur on the postgraduate level while the majority of 24 (68,6) felt that it should occur on both levels. This might serve as an indication that practicing industrial social workers feel that their training is inadequate for the demands made by practice.

Social workers were asked to rate the areas of knowledge they thought an

industrial social worker should be familiar with. The results are displayed in the following table.

TABLE 14: AREAS OF KNOWLEDGE RELATING TO INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

Areas of knowledge	Mean	Ranking
Industrial relations	3,68	1
Industrial psychology	3,92	2
Personnel management	4,00	3
Management practice	4,79	4
Industrial sociology	5,26	5
Organisational theories	5,47	6
Business administration	5,82	7
Other areas	7,81	8

The above rating is significant, especially the first four. These are the areas of practice with which the social worker in industry comes into closest contact. Surprisingly, business administration received such a low rating, considering the fact that many industrial social workers "ply their trade" in a business environment. The above breakdown can also serve as an indication of the "specific knowledge" that social workers in industry feel they should have. A further surprise was that no need was felt for industrial law. In the NASW survey (Teare, 1987) more than 40 areas of skills, knowledge and education were desired by the respondents.

On the question whether they would attend workshops on industrial social work, 23 (62,2%) of the 37 who answered the question said they would do so regularly. Fourteen (37,8%) stated that they would sometimes. Workshops and conferences are useful methods to improve and refine industrial social work practice, and the above results indicate that there is a need for workshops on industrial social work. The Forum for Industrial Social Work did arrange

workshops and seminars on topics related to industrial social work. In this regard, universities can also play a significant role within the framework of continuing education programmes.

7. CONTACT WITH WELFARE ORGANISATIONS

On the question of whether they use the services of outside welfare organisations, 17 (47,2%) of the 36 who answered the question said they do so on a weekly basis. The same number said they do so on a monthly basis, and the remaining 2 (5,6%) said they do so annually. This could be regarded as a reflection of the number of times industrial social workers feel they do not either have the skills or resources to assist people with their problems. It could also, however, be determined by a negative attitude towards outside welfare organisations. The fact that the majority of industrial social workers (52,8%) use outside welfare organisations on a monthly basis or less may deprive the client of an outside resource. Much depends on the assessment of the particular employee's problem by the industrial social worker.

On the question of the usefulness of these contacts, 32 (91,4%) of the 36 who responded, reported that they often found these contacts useful, two (5,7%) seldom found it useful. The topic did not apply to one (2,9%), and 3 did not answer the question.

Those respondents who said that they often found these contacts useful felt that they need the assistance and resources of outside agencies for the following reasons:

- It ensures better service to clients;
- It serves as a standard for own professional conduct;
- It provides resources lacking in industry;

- They need the background information;
- The team approach is both needed and appreciated;
- Outside problems can be dealt with.

The minority who felt that they seldom find it useful gave the following reasons:

- They have problems with the attitude of welfare organisations, because they suspect that they feel threatened;
- They do not always get the necessary feedback after a referral.

On the question of whether they receive the necessary co-operation, from outside agencies, 25 (69,4%) industrial social workers stated that they get the necessary co-operation, while 11 (30,6%) stated that they sometimes get the necessary co-operation. Two did not answer the question.

Those respondents reporting good co-operation reported a positive attitude and good results from welfare organisations. Respondents who felt that they do not always get the co-operation they wished mainly stated that delays were often caused in dealing with referrals and that large caseloads were often the reason for this. Another view was that outside social workers did not often ask for assistance from industrial social workers. One respondent felt that outside social workers often fail to understand why two social workers have to work with the same client.

On the question of the degree of acceptance of their role by outside agencies, 25 (69,4%) felt that their role is totally accepted, 10 (27,8%) felt that their role is partially accepted and one (2,7%) was uncertain. Two respondents did not answer the question.

The majority of respondents reporting total acceptance felt that acceptance is indicated by either good co-operation that exists, or the fact that their services are used by outside social workers. In some isolated communities, industries employing social workers supplement community welfare services, and relieve some of the burden from outside welfare agencies.

The tendency amongst those who felt that they are only partially accepted, was to ascribe it to ignorance about their role, and outside social workers feeling threatened by the industrial social worker.

SUMMARY

In spite of the fact that industrial social work in South Africa has been in existence for more than three decades already, little has been published about it.

Industrial social workers are mostly located in the busiest industrial centers in the country, while some are also employed in the more remote parts of the country.

The focus of the social worker in industry is still very much on the individual and the family, with the EAP model the most appropriate model on this level.

There is a need for further training in industrial social work, and many industrial social workers are employed without being prepared for it properly.

CHAPTER 12

PRESENTATION OF DATA ON INDUSTRIES NOT EMPLOYING SOCIAL WORKERS

1. DEMOGRAPHIC PARTICULARS

The data on industrial organisations not employing social workers will be presented in this chapter. The main reason for this part of the survey was to determine the attitude of industries not employing social workers to social work, and their commitment to the welfare of their employees, in order to determine the kind of atmosphere for the possible expansion of industrial social work services.

The greatest percentage of organisations included in the sample (83,9) were located in the Transvaal, which had the highest concentration of industries. Then followed the Cape with Natal third on the list, with no industries in the Free State.

TABLE 15: DISTRIBUTION OF COMPANIES BY PROVINCE

Province	Transvaal	Cape	Natal	Free State	Total
Number	52	10	1	0	63
Percentage	83,9	16,00	1,6	0	100

N = 163

The largest percentage of companies in the sample had less than 5 000 employees, followed by those companies with between 5 000 - 10 000 employees. It is difficult, however, to determine whether this picture is representative of the South African situation, as result of the way in which the researcher had to select the sample. There are, however, more smaller than larger companies in South Africa, and it is thus to be expected that the number of

companies in the sample will increase as the numbers of employees decrease.

2. THE RESPONSIBILITY OF INDUSTRY FOR THE WELFARE OF ITS EMPLOYEES

Of the total number of respondents, 44 (69,8%) expressed the opinion that industry should accept responsibility for the personal and social welfare of their employees. A further 11 (17,5%) felt that industry should not accept responsibility for the welfare of their employees, and the other 4 (6,3%) were uncertain. The majority of the respondents were thus in favour of accepting responsibility for the welfare of their employees, expressing a concern for the well-being of their staff.

TABLE 16: REASONS WHY COMPANIES ACCEPT RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE WELFARE OF EMPLOYEES

Reasons	No	%
It will lead to better execution of social responsibility.	3	6,3
It will lead to improved industrial/labour relations	18	37,4
It will lead to more and improved personal guidance to the worker	0	0,0
It will help prevent problems from interfering with productivity	12	25,0
It will be supportive to outside agencies	0	0,0
It has moral responsibility to the workforce	10	21,0
Any other reasons (specify)	3	6,3
No reasons given	2	4,2
Total	44	100,0

N = 40

Forty four (68,8%) of the respondents gave reasons why their companies accept responsibility to deal with the personal and family problems of employees.

Improved industrial relations tops the list of the three items with the highest score. The presence of trade unions has led to the need for improved industrial relations, and it can be suggested that the demands of trade unions indirectly give rise to the need to appoint a professional social worker. It is also significant that moral responsibility got the lowest score of these three items. It is furthermore clear that responsibility for social and personal welfare of employees is expressed for the sake of the company and not so much for the sake of the worker. Two of the "other" reasons expressed were as follows:

- It is done for optimum productivity and motivation;
- It leads to an improved image of the company in the eyes of the employee.

Of the 11 companies not accepting responsibility for personal and social welfare of employees 4 (36,4%) felt that it is the responsibility of outside agencies, and one (9,1%) felt that it will not be cost-effective. Under "other" reasons were the following:

- Employees should not be treated in a paternalistic manner;
- Employers should reward employees sufficiently for employees to make their own arrangements;
- It is the responsibility of the employee.

On the question of whether the company accepts responsibility for dealing with personal and family problems of employees, 52 (82,5%) of the companies in the sample answered in the affirmative, while 11 (17,5%) did not. The four (6,3%) respondents who expressed uncertainty about industry's responsibility for the personal and social welfare of employees indicated that they do accept responsibility for dealing with the family and personal employees of their workers. This indicated a readiness to accept this responsibility even in view of uncertainty or reservations in this regard.

3. STAFF DEALING WITH EMPLOYEE PROBLEMS AND METHODS EMPLOYED

On the question of which staff member deals with most of the personal and family problems of employees, three (5,8%) stated the welfare officer, 11 (21,2) stated the line manager, 23 (44,23%) stated the personnel officer, three (5,8%) stated the occupational welfare nurse, two (3,8%) stated the industrial psychologist.

The two highest scores indicate that the personnel officers and line managers mostly deal with the personal problems of employees. The personnel officers are normally identified as representing the "human" side of industry, which explains why 50% of the respondents identified this staff member as dealing with the problems of employees. Line managers are in daily contact with the line workers and this increases the chance that they will be the first to either identify or having the problem reported to. Of the 52 (82,5%) respondents who stated that they accept responsibility for dealing with personal and family problems of employees, 46 (88%) identified the staff members dealing with the problems of employees. The other 12% either did not answer the question, or answered in such a way that it could not be processed properly.

The 11 (17,5%) companies not accepting responsibility for the personal and family problems of their employees, suggested the following people: The employee himself 5 (55,6%), the family 1 (11,1 %), outside welfare agencies 2(22,2%), and other 1 (11,1%). Two (22,2%) did not answer the question satisfactorily.

Of the total number of 52 companies who indicated that they do accept responsibility for personal and family problems of their employees, 46

(88,5%) identified the methods they normally employ to deal with these problems. They are presented in the table below.

TABLE 17: METHODS EMPLOYED BY COMPANIES TO DEAL WITH EMPLOYEE PROBLEMS

Methods used	Comp	%
Discussion and counseling	46	100,0
Home visits	9	20,0
Disciplinary action	5	11,0
Referral to outside sources of help	35	78,0
Loans and advances on salary	29	64,0
Other methods	2	4,0

A variety of procedures were reported to be used to deal with personal and family problems experienced by employees of which discussion and counselling, referral to outside sources and loans and advances on salaries are the most frequently used. The fact that such a large number of companies make use of outside help, give welfare organisations the opportunity to be of assistance.

Two respondents indicated "other" reasons. One was a company which makes use of the services of the Chamber of Mines.

4. THE APPOINTMENT OF SOCIAL WORKERS

On the question of whether companies in the sample plan to appoint a social worker, 7 (11,1%) answered in the affirmative, while the remaining 56 (88,9) were not planning to appoint a social worker. A small minority were thus planning to appoint a social worker which might be indicative of social work making some progress in industry. It might be deduced that a certain percentage of those companies accepting responsibility for the personal and family problems of their employees, have resolved that a social worker is suitable for the task.

Those not planning to appoint a social worker, were asked for their reasons for doing so. The following table reflects their reasons.

TABLE 18: REASONS GIVEN BY COMPANIES FOR NOT APPOINTING A SOCIAL WORKER

Reasons	No	%
Present economic climate	1	2,0
Have staff with social work qualifications	6	12,0
Have welfare officers	3	6,0
Problems are dealt with effectively by present staff	28	50,0
Present procedures have proved to be effective	24	48,0
Social work services not responsibility of company	7	12,5
Workforce does not need a professional helping person	1	2,0
Other reasons	3	6,0

No totals are given, because respondents gave more than one reason. It is clear from the above that the two most important reasons for not appointing a social worker are that companies feel that they have the resources to deal with the problems reported to them. From what was previously stated, it can be assumed that problems would be largely those affecting productivity and labour relations. The attitude the company would adopt towards human problems will be determined, to a large extent, by the management philosophy, and by those people in the executive positions.

It should also be noted that eight (12,7%) of the companies in this survey have people with social work qualifications in their employ. Perhaps they

do not see the necessity of appointing a social worker, because they feel that this person can handle problems encountered by the organisation. It is true that a career in the personnel field particularly has traditionally been regarded by qualified social workers as an option. The disadvantage of this situation, however, is that no proper attention can be given to personal and family problems, mainly because it would be over and above the job descriptions of such positions.

One of the "other" reasons given was that employees are referred elsewhere.

5. AWARENESS OF OTHER INDUSTRIES EMPLOYING SOCIAL WORKERS

Industries were also asked if (1) they are aware of other industries employing social workers, and (2) if so, whether this would affect their opinion about appointing a social worker. Fifty one (81,9%) of the sample indicated that they were aware of other companies employing social workers while the other 19 % did not know of other companies employing a social worker. A large majority (96,8%) of the companies who answered this question stated that knowledge of other companies employing a social worker did not affect their attitude towards appointing a social worker. This clearly means that companies make their own decisions in this regard and competition can be ruled out as a factor in the development of industrial social work services. This differs from the feelings expressed by some of the participants at the National Conference on Social Work Practice in Labor and Industrial Settings in New York City (Akabas,et al 1978:15) that the example of the competition is one of the reasons for appointing a social worker.

6. ROLES OF THE SOCIAL WORKER

Fifty four of the companies (85,7) indicated that they are aware of the roles a social worker can play in industry. One other (1,6%) did not know and the remaining 8 (12,7%) were uncertain. The respondents claiming to be aware of the role social workers can play in industry identified the following tasks for the social worker:

TABLE 19: TASKS FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKERS IDENTIFIED BY COMPANIES

Tasks identified for social workers	No	%
The eliminating of domestic problems of employees	14	26,0
Prevention of problems affecting productivity	32	57,0
Professional handling of social and emotional problems of employees	44	79,0
Help with the execution of social responsibility programs.	22	39,0
Early detection of social and emotional problems of employees	35	63,0
Other	1	2,0

No total is given, because companies identified more than one role for the social worker. Apart from the eliminating of domestic problems, relatively high percentages were scored in respect of each listed task that would be allocated to the social worker. This again is a clear indication of how industry perceive the role of the social worker. These tasks are in line with the values and purposes of social work. The relatively low frequency that was scored with the handling of the domestic problems of the employees, could be interpreted as a reluctance of industry to get involved in domestic problems of employees. This might also limit the helping technologies, methods and models the social worker uses in industry. The high frequency scored with the task of handling the social and emotional problems of employees is a clear indication that this was regarded as an important task of the social worker in industry.

One "other" task indicated for the social worker is lifestyle enrichment educational programmes.

Industries were asked whether they would use the services of social workers allocated to industry by outside welfare organisations. Of the 61 respondents who answered this question, 42,6% said that they would, 23,6 % said that they would not, and 34,4% indicated uncertainty. The respondents who answered positively, probably had positive experiences with welfare organisations in the past, or their attitude towards the welfare of their employees is positive. The negative answers may indicate reservations about welfare organisations, a lack of commitment to the welfare of their employees, or negative experiences with welfare organisations. It may even signify ignorance of the roles welfare organisations play. They might also feel that they can deal with the problems themselves, as a certain percentage in fact indicated earlier.

7. ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKER IN THE MANPOWER FIELD

TABLE 20: PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES INVOLVING THE SOCIAL WORKER

Activities	No	%
Manpower planning	5	12,7
Recruiting	5	12,7
Screening and selection	12	19,0
Training and development	13	20,6
Improving the quality of working life	33	52,4
Evaluating employee performance	6	9,5
Maintaining emotional and physical health	48	76,2
Motivation	17	27,0
Administration of employee benefits and services	22	34,9
Industrial relations	15	23,8
Other: Please specify	2	3,2

No total is given, because companies listed more than one personnel management activity. To varying degrees, industry was prepared to grant social workers a role in the whole spectrum of personnel management activities. Involvement in personnel or manpower management must however be viewed on two levels, as far as social work is concerned. If the social work section has more than one staff member, the social worker will have a personnel management function in respect of that section. However, as a member of the personnel management team, the social worker will have an important consultative function. From the evidence it looked as if the social worker will be granted a role of expert in emotional and physical health. Other prominent functions would be improving the quality of work life, as well as administration of employee benefits and services. One of the two respondents who listed "other" activities added health services to

the list. The other respondent felt that social work is a source discipline for human resource management.

8. AUSPICES FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

TABLE 21: SUGGESTED AUSPICES FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

Auspices	No of comp	%
Management	17	33,3
Trade union	0	0,0
Industrial councils	2	3,9
Welfare organisations	15	29,4
Combination of the above:	17	33,3

Fifty one companies (81,0%) provided the above information. It is clear that the popular choices were welfare organisations and management. Interesting though, that nobody suggested trade unions. A possible reason for this is as one respondent said in the pilot study "they are still too immature". The most commonly suggested combination was also management\welfare organisation.

SUMMARY

A sizeable percentage of industries either realise that they have a responsibility for the welfare of their employees, or accept that responsibility already.

Each company employs a variety of techniques for dealing with the personal problems of their employees, and some have people qualified as social workers on the staff, although they are not used in that capacity.

There seem to be a lack of knowledge of the role social workers can play in industry, although some companies stated that they would use the services of an outside social worker if one would be available.

CHAPTER 13

PRESENTATION OF DATA ON WELFARE ORGANISATIONS

This section will be used to present and analyse the data collected on welfare organisations in the country. The main purposes of this part of the survey was to determine their attitude to industrial social work, and to establish their approach to the worker as client.

1. DEMOGRAPHIC PARTICULARS

The majority of 47 (36,2%) welfare organisations in the sample were located in the Transvaal, 41 (31,5%) in the Cape, 18 (13,8%) in Natal, and 24 (18,5%) in the Orange Free State. The largest group of 55 (42,3%) welfare organisations served both rural and urban areas, 34 (26,2%) serve mainly urban areas, and 41 (31,5%) serve mainly rural areas.

The welfare organisations serving both rural and urban areas are in all probability the group in the closest proximity to industries employing social workers, although a few industries have plants in rural areas. It can be expected that a closer relationship would exist between welfare organisations in rural communities, and industries employing social workers. It seemed as if industries and welfare organisations are pooling their manpower and facilities in isolated rural communities because of a lack of resources in these areas. This appears especially to be true of rural mining towns, of which there are a few in South Africa.

Ninety (69,2%) of the welfare organisations in the sample were Child and Family Welfare organisations, and the remaining 40 (30,8%) were specialist organisations.

2. PROVISION OF WELFARE SERVICES TO INDUSTRY

Welfare organisations were asked whether they consider industry to be deprived of welfare services. This question was asked to determine their knowledge about the provision of welfare services to industry, and their attitude in this regard.

Fifty six (43,1%) welfare organisations felt that industry is deprived of welfare services, while 49 (37,7%) felt industry is not deprived; and 25 (19,1%) were uncertain. The tables below reflect the reasons for the different attitudes of welfare organisations.

TABLE 22: REASONS GIVEN BY WELFARE ORGANISATIONS FEELING THAT INDUSTRY IS DEPRIVED OF WELFARE SERVICES

Reasons	No	%
Little attention is given to the personal development of worker, his life experiences, & family background	21	37,5
The person in his work role is neglected	1	1,8
Industry does not employ social workers, only outside social workers are available	11	19,6
Problems experienced by employees warrant more attention	9	16,1
Employees have problems of access to proper services	13	23,2
Other	1	1,8
Total	56	100,0

N = 56

The first two reasons given in the table above imply that industry is not human enough in its approach to the employee. The implication is that social workers are needed to humanise the workplace. The third reason reveals that there are social workers who were not aware that industry does employ social

workers. The next reason indicates an attitude that problems experienced by employees do not get the proper attention in industry, and the fifth reason implies that obstacles exist in receiving proper services.

TABLE 23: REASONS GIVEN BY WELFARE ORGANISATIONS FEELING THAT INDUSTRY IS NOT DEPRIVED OF WELFARE SERVICES

Reasons	No	%
Employees can make use of outside agencies	34	69,4
Industry is adequately equipped to deal with their problems	7	14,3
It is not the task of industry to render welfare services	2	4,1
No reasons given	3	6,1
Other	3	6,1
Total	49	100,0

N = 49

Most people in this group felt that the existing services were adequate, and that employees could make use of them.

3. EMPLOYEES AS A TARGET GROUP

The respondents were asked whether they have identified employees as a target group with special needs in order to establish their awareness of the employee as a client with special needs. Thirty (28,5%) welfare organisations indicated that they have defined employees as a specific client group, while 93 (71,5%) said that they did not. This confirms Perlman's (1968, 1982) views that social workers have neglected the worker as a client. Most of the organisations that indicated that they have accepted the employee as a target group with special needs were involved in out-house employee assistance programmes, and rendered preventative as well as rehabilitation services.

TABLE 24: REASONS GIVEN BY WELFARE ORGANISATIONS FOR ACCEPTING EMPLOYEES AS A TARGET GROUP

Reasons	No	%
The employee cannot be reached effectively through established family welfare services	9	30,0
Industry needs the skills of social worker	25	83,3
Other	4	13,3

In view of the fact that some respondents gave more than one answer, no total can be given, and each response is calculated out of 30. The main reason for accepting employees as a target group by 83,3% of the respondents is the belief that social work skills are needed in industry and that employees will benefit from these skills.

Three of the "other" reasons given for accepting the employee as a special target group cannot be listed, because the respondents were not asked to specify. One that was described stated that employees with hearing impairment need specialised services.

Nineteen (63,3%) of the 30 welfare organisations that indicated that they have defined the employee as a specific target group, described their programmes offered. The main organisations in this group were the S A National Council for Alcoholism; Mental Health Societies, The Family and Marriage Society of South Africa (FAMSA), and the South African National Council for the Deaf. Other organisations in this group were the individual Child and Family Welfare societies, and the South African National Tuberculosis Association.

Services and programmes offered were EAP's, life skills programmes, early

identification of tuberculosis, preparation for retirement, "burnout" programmes, family orientation courses for apprentices, parent education, assertiveness training, stress management, time management, team building, managing personal growth, and education of employees regarding the needs of the deaf.

TABLE 25: REASONS GIVEN BY WELFARE ORGANISATIONS FOR NOT ACCEPTING THE EMPLOYEE AS A TARGET GROUP

Reasons	No	%
Services are rendered to all members of the community, including the employee	73	78,5
Manpower shortage experienced by welfare organisations	19	20,4
No reasons given	1	1,1
Total	93	100,0

N = 93

Welfare organisations felt that their services were equally accessible to all members of the community, including the employee. It is therefore not necessary to define the employee as a target group. The unique needs of the individual as an employee did not seem to be singled out for specific attention.

4. ENHANCED POSITION OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN INDUSTRY IN HANDLING EMPLOYEE PROBLEMS

One hundred and ten (85,4%) of the sample felt that industrial social workers were in a better position to handle the problems of employees, 14 (10,0%) felt that they were not in a better position, and six (4,6%) were uncertain. The reasons for the different answers are reflected in the tables below.

TABLE 26: REASONS WHY INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKERS ARE REGARDED AS BEING IN A BETTER POSITION TO HANDLE PROBLEMS OF EMPLOYEES

Reasons	No	%	
Industrial social worker has firsthand knowledge of problems of employees	25	22,7	
Industrial social work has the advantage of specialization	18	16,4	
Industrial social worker has easier access to the employee	39	35,5	
Industrial social worker has more direct contact with employee	27	24,6	
Other reasons	1	,9	
Total	110	100,0	N = 110

All the above reasons are related to the position of the industrial social worker in industry, and specifically to the fact that this unit is an integral part of industry. The one respondent who indicated "other" reasons felt that all the reasons reflected in the above table are valid.

TABLE 27: REASONS WHY INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKERS ARE NOT IN A BETTER POSITION TO DEAL WITH EMPLOYEE PROBLEMS

Reasons	Org	%	
Outside social workers can render the same service to employees	7	50,0	
Industrial social workers are isolated from outside resources	0	0	
Industrial social workers have a different perspective of problems	3	21,4	
Other: Please specify	4	28,6	
Total	14	100,0	N = 14

Only a small percentage of respondents felt that the industrial social worker was not in a better position to render services to the employee.

The larger percentage felt that outside social workers could render equivalent services to employees. A similar reason was given by the group not accepting the employee as a specific target group.

The other reasons given were:

- They will need training in marriage guidance and counseling;
- The social worker in industry will not be in a position to understand the employee with special needs without training and orientation;
- The job can be done by outside social workers provided that they can provide input on management level;
- The discussion of personal problems at work is embarrassing to the employee.

5. SUPPORT FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

One hundred and twenty two welfare organisations (94,6%) in the sample support the idea of social work practice in industry, while 3 (2,3%) did not support the move, and 5 (3,1%) were uncertain. The reasons for the different responses are presented in the tables below.

TABLE 28: REASONS WHY WELFARE ORGANISATIONS SUPPORTED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE IN INDUSTRY

Reasons	No	%
It is part of social work's responsibility	13	10,7
The needs manifested in the workplace warrant it	13	10,7
It would be a natural development in the course of expansion of social work service	23	18,9
The employee is not effectively reached by "traditional social work"	24	19,7
The social worker will have easier access to management	8	6,6
Preventative measures can be developed because of familiarity with the workplace	19	15,6
The advantage of closer access and greater proximity to the worker	21	17,2
Will provide more employment opportunities for social workers	1	0,8
Other	0	0,0
Total	122	100,0

N = 122

Most of the reasons given above relate to the fact that the industrial social worker was regarded to be in a better position to reach the worker as client.

An interesting reservation of one of the respondents was that the introduction of social work in industry may be to the detriment of private welfare organisations. Industry will use the money that is normally granted to welfare organisations to fund their own social work service to employees.

The two highest scores achieved seem to be closely related because if it is accepted that the worker is not effectively reached by "traditional social work", it is logical to assume that industrial social work would be a natural development. More respondents supported social work practice in industry

than those who felt that industrial social workers are in a better position to attend to the problems of the worker.

Reasons given by those not supporting social work moving into industry were as follows:

- It will not guarantee better services to the employee;
- It will erect barriers between industrial social work and the rest of the profession;
- Industrial social work is not social work.

Of the sample of 130 welfare organisations, 94 (72,9%) felt that industrial social work is in keeping with the values and purpose of social work, 15 (11,6%) felt it was not, and 21 (15,5) were uncertain.

If it is assumed that the success of social work in industry depends to a large extent on the acceptance and support it can get from outside agencies, then the responses reflected above are significant.

6. CONGRUENCE OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK WITH VALUES AND PURPOSES OF SOCIAL WORK

A majority of welfare organisations felt that industrial social work is in keeping with the values and purposes of the profession. It thus means that it is not being perceived as separate or divorced from the nature of traditional social work practice. Further information on this is reflected in the tables below.

TABLE 29: REASONS WHY WELFARE ORGANISATIONS FEEL THAT SOCIAL WORK IN INDUSTRY IS CONGRUENT WITH SOCIAL WORK VALUES AND PURPOSES

Reasons	No	%
Social work has universal principles applicable in all settings	53	56,4
Generic social work roles can be applied in industry	8	8,5
The main focus remains that of people	15	16,0
If industry permits, the principles should remain the same	6	6,4
Maintaining social work principles should be a prerequisite for moving into industry	11	11,7
Other reasons given	0	0
No reasons given	1	1
Total	94	100,0

N = 94

It is clear from the above that most respondents acknowledge the value of the generic basis of social work in industry.

Reasons why welfare organisations felt industrial social work is not in keeping with the values of social work are as follows:

- Profit motive of industry would not permit social work values to be maintained;
- Tasks assigned to social workers by industry not social work tasks;
- Social workers are not employed as social workers by industry;
- Exploitation of workers by industry runs counter to social work values;
- Industry would use social work for its own purpose.

The reasons listed above reflect a suspicion towards industry and is in line with what is also reported in the literature, (Jorgensen, 1981) namely that not everybody is equally convinced about the feasibility of industrial social

work. It is also indicative of existing tension between the values of social work and that of industry.

7. INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK AS A SPECIALISED FIELD OF PRACTICE

Of the 130 welfare organisations in the sample, 110 (84,6%) acknowledged industrial social work as a specialised field of practice, 16 (11,6%) did not, and 4 (3,9%) were uncertain.

TABLE 30: REASONS FOR SUPPORTING INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK AS A SPECIALISED FIELD OF PRACTICE

Reasons	No	%
It is unique because it has a different focus	20	18,2
It is different because of its focus on the worker as a person	14	12,7
It has particular tasks and demands unique to the field	43	39,1
It is a different kind of social work	3	2,7
It has different principles, methods and techniques	3	2,7
It warrants special knowledge about industry	27	24,5
Total	110	100,0

The acknowledgement of industrial social work as a specialised field of practice is clearly demonstrated in the above display. The main reasons given for this acknowledgement is the uniqueness of industrial social work practice.

The reasons why welfare organisations do not regard industrial social work as a specialised field of practice are as follows:

- It only represents an extension of traditional social work;
- It is no longer social work;

- The same principles, techniques, and methods apply.

One respondent who was uncertain about whether industrial social work constitutes a specialised field of practice felt that the parameters of industrial social work were not yet clearly defined.

8. AWARENESS OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

Welfare organisations seem to be fairly well aware of industrial organisations employing social workers. Seventy eight (60%) of the 130 welfare organisations in the sample indicated that they are aware of industries in their own areas employing social workers, while 52 (40%) said that they did not know of any. Ninety eight (75,4%) of the welfare organisations indicated that they knew of industries in other areas employing social workers, while 32 (24,6%) said they did not.

The high degree of awareness amongst voluntary welfare organisations of organisations employing industrial social workers can be attributed to the fact that a large percentage of welfare organisations in the sample are situated in urban areas where most industrial social workers are to be found.

Of the 114 respondents stating that they know of industries in either their own or other areas employing social workers, 68 (59,6%) indicated that knowledge of organisations appointing social workers prompted them to acquire more knowledge about this field of practice. The remaining 46 (40,4%) indicated that it did not prompt them to gain more knowledge about this field of practice. In this regard it would seem as if there was little contact between these two fields of practice.

TABLE 31: REASONS FOR NOT ACQUIRING MORE INFORMATION ABOUT INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

Reasons	No	%	
Lack of interest	10	21,7	
Too little time to enquire about this field of practice	26	56,5	
Lack of concern	2	4,3	
Not relevant to own practice	6	13,0	
Other: Please specify	2	4,3	
Total	46	100,0	N = 46

The first reason might be seen as social work in industry not exciting the interest of other social work practitioners. There is also a sizeable percentage of social workers who feel that their work is too demanding for them to enquire about industrial social work. Quite surprising, however, is the percentage who felt that industrial social work has no relevance to their own field of practice. This indicates a rather narrow approach to their own practice, and a lack of appreciation of industrial social workers as resource persons. In addition the fact that most of the clients of social workers are workers.

Only one of the two respondents who indicated "other" reasons described it and stated:

- The social workers of the agency are competent enough to deal with all the needs of the client.

8. NEED FOR SPECIALISED TRAINING FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

Seventy eight (60%) of the respondents agreed that there is a need for specialised training for industrial social work, 41 (31,5%) felt that there

is no such need and 11 (8,5%) were uncertain. This again confirms the recognition of industrial social work as a specialist practice. It also acknowledges the fact that generic knowledge is not adequate for industrial social work practice. A breakdown of the reasons for the different answers is given below. Seventy three of the 78 who indicated that there is a need for specialised training in social work listed reasons.

TABLE 32: REASONS GIVEN BY WELFARE ORGANISATIONS IN FAVOUR OF SPECIALIZED TRAINING FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

Reasons	No	%
Different area of practice with its own demands	31	42,5
It is a new situation for social workers	2	2,7
It is an area in its own right	8	11,0
Knowledge about worker and workplace necessary	28	38,4
Other reasons	4	5,5
Total	73	100,0

N = 73

The reasons given above serve as an acknowledgement of the "unique" nature of industrial social work.

TABLE 33: REASONS GIVEN BY WELFARE ORGANISATIONS NOT FAVOURING SPECIALIZED TRAINING FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKERS

Reasons	No	%
Uncertain of whether it constitutes a specialized field of practice	3	7,3
Knowledge about setting could be gained from other social workers in the field	0	0,0
Knowledge could be gained through in-service-training	38	92,7
Other reasons	0	0,0
Total	41	100,0

N = 41

A belief in the effectiveness of staff development programmes as far as industrial social work is concerned, is expressed in the above display. A problem in this regard is that frequently only one social worker is employed by management, and there would be no one to implement staff development programmes.

9. AUSPICES FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

TABLE 34: VIEWS OF WELFARE ORGANISATIONS ON THE AUSPICES FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

Auspices	No	%
Trade unions	2	1,5
Management	53	40,8
Industrial councils	12	9,2
Welfare organisations on a contractual basis	26	21,8
Combination of the above	26	21,8
No indication given	11	8,5
Total	130	100,0

N = 130

The two most favourite choices are those of management and welfare organisations which paves the way for possible contractual agreements between welfare organisations and management. It is interesting that trade unions were not even considered as an option.

SUMMARY

The biggest group of welfare organisations felt that industry is not deprived of welfare services, because employees have access to community welfare

services.

There is a groundswell of support for social work in industry amongst welfare organisations, with a large number in favour of the idea. Welfare organisations also acknowledge the fact that the social worker in industry is in a better position to be of service to the employee.

A small number of welfare organisations have defined employees as a target group and are rendering external EAP services.

**SECTION D: DISCUSSION CONCLUSIONS
AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

CHAPTER 14

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The findings of the empirical investigation will be discussed in this chapter. The discussion is divided into three sections, each related to the different samples used in the investigation. Although the discussion is organised into three different sections, according to the samples, cross references will be made where appropriate.

A. INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKERS

1. DEMOGRAPHIC PARTICULARS

The distribution of industrial social workers in the sample is to a large extent representative of the distribution of industries in South Africa. Industries employing social workers are found in clusters in and around the major industrial centres in South Africa. The main centres are the PWV-area in Transvaal, the Goldfields area in the Orange Free State, and the Cape Peninsula. There are however, social workers in more remote areas where companies employing them have plants. It seems to be mainly the labour intensive industries that employ social workers. It is doubtful, however, whether strictly numbers are used as a basis for a decision to employ social workers. It is more likely determined by the incidence of problems, which is mainly determined by the characteristics of the workforce. This seems to confirm that no standardised criteria are used to decide on the appointment of industrial social workers. This state of affairs is also reported in the literature review (p.80). When the reasons that were given by social workers are closely analysed, however, it seems as if social workers were appointed for humanitarian or economic reasons. It could be hypothesised that social

workers are likely to be viewed as instruments to improve production where they are appointed for economic reasons. This could have the effect that in cases like these, they would not have the same freedom to develop their practices according to social work principles.

It is assumed that the expectations management holds about the social worker will be related to the reasons for appointing a social worker. This can lead to the wrong expectations about the role of the social worker, which can be corrected through education of management about the true role of the social worker.

The fact that the composition of the workforce of the companies in the sample is a clear reflection of the composition of the South African population, implies that particular attention be paid to the needs of the Black workforce. Cognisance need to be taken of the circumstances affecting the Black worker, especially community needs. Social workers employed by companies with a large Black workforce, which represents the majority of industries in South Africa, will have to get more involved in the communities where the workers reside. This clearly establishes a foundation for seeking the co-operation of especially the Black trade unions who also seem to be concerned about the conditions in the communities where their members stay. The presence of large numbers of Black industrial workers makes cross-cultural social work an issue. White social workers, because of their Westernised training, are not adequately equipped to deal with many of the problems of the Black worker (client). Appointing black social workers, as many of the companies do, would not necessarily solve the problem, because the Black student is exposed to the same kind of training as his white counterpart. He accepts the values on which the training is based, and in the process get alienated from his community. This poses a problem,

especially for the universities, because at this stage there is inadequate focus on "indigenous" social work, which has implications for the whole field of social work.

The social workers in industry tend to move there at a relatively young age. That means that a large portion of their career life lies ahead of them. This has implications for job satisfaction, because industrial social work positions do not leave much scope for vertical mobility. The position is not much better in companies employing more than one social worker, because limited opportunities for promotion in the unit exists. Horizontal mobility will then be the result with concomitant negative consequences for industrial social work, because social workers will then have to leave the social work unit, and useful skills and experience might be lost.

2. THE PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN THE SAMPLE

More than half of the social workers in the sample had less than three years experience in a registered social welfare organisation before they joined industry, and a small percentage had no experience at all. This may not be a problem if a senior colleague is available to provide the necessary guidance. If the social worker has to work on his own, without any opportunity for either supervision or in-service-training, it may cause problems. Both the professional development of the social worker, and that of the social work unit could be hampered, and eventually the image of social work in industry as a whole may suffer. It must be stressed that management's perception of industrial social work will be determined by their observation of the performance of the social worker employed by their company. If social workers do not live up to expectations because of inadequate or non-existent professional guidance, it could result in the job of the social worker

becoming redundant. The researcher is aware that this actually happened at one company that was approached during the exploratory stage of this project. The damage done in cases like these should not be underestimated. Staff members of companies employing social workers do communicate, and they do share information. In the process, industrial social work could get a bad reputation. Another potential problem is that a particular company may start using the social worker for other purposes, especially in the peripheral areas claimed by nobody in particular. In such cases, the social worker may be lost to the profession.

The social workers in the sample had experience in child and family welfare organisations, state departments, and specialist organisations. It is possible that the kind and quality of experience a social worker had before moving to industry could influence their attitude and perception of the role they should fulfill in industry. This again will contribute to different industrial social workers perceiving their role differently, with a resultant lack of uniformity. A wide variety of roles for social workers in industry is reported by Googins and Godfrey (1987), which is perhaps the result of great uncertainty regarding the direction social work should take in industry during a phase of exploration. On the other hand, it might also be a reflection of the unique circumstances at a particular company.

Industry seems to favour those social workers with experience in the mental health and related fields. This could be interpreted as a reflection of a preoccupation in industry with problems of individual workers.

3. SUPERVISION AND CONSULTATION

A problem reported in the investigation was the sizeable number of social workers in industry needing supervision that they do not receive. This is a problem placing undue stress on social workers because they must find their way on their own. It is even more serious in cases where no proper job description exist. Uncertainty as a result of this will lead to a lack of professional self-confidence the social worker will need when working in the secondary setting of industry, where he is exposed to people from other disciplines.

If the reasons suggested for a need for supervision by social workers in the sample are analysed, it is clear that there are needs for the implementation of the educational, administrative and supportive functions of supervision. Especially social workers working alone will need considerable support and guidance to implement the social work programme. The general lack of supervision is a serious problem, considering the importance with which supervision in social work is viewed by Kadushin (1985:30-45). This situation is also aggravated by the lack of specialised training many social workers in industry have, which again reflects on the nature of social work education in South Africa. The question could be asked whether field placements of social work students training in industrial\occupational work increases the need for people with specialised training, which in turn would increase the demand for training programmes in occupational social work.

A problem arising from social workers working alone in industry is that a performance appraisal of the social worker by a social work supervisor cannot be done. The professional development of the social worker then cannot be guided as a result of this. The fact that some companies employ more than one social worker does not necessarily solve this problem, because they may be in different locations not in close proximity. If no performance

appraisals can be done, the employees (clients), the company, and the social worker will be deprived of the advantages of evaluation (Kadushin, 1985:331). It should be obvious that this again will only be to the detriment of this field of practice in social work.

Social workers in the sample did make use of consultation to a varying extent. They consult their social work superiors, colleagues, and non-social work colleagues. To some extent, the problems in relation to supervision also apply to consultation. Few social workers will have social work superiors to consult, but may consult a colleague in another company or in the same company. Consulting a colleague, will not place such a burden on the person consulted, because it is done more on an ad hoc basis, by more experienced professionals. If a colleague is not available, somebody from a different, but related field may be consulted with good results. Problems may be presented, however, by the inexperienced social worker who has to consult with a non-social work colleague, because a social worker is not available. Consultation satisfies other, different needs than those satisfied by supervision. This means that the inexperienced social worker who must consult a staff member from another discipline, may not have his professional needs met. The guidance he will receive, will thus be inadequate. A problem in this regard is that the social worker may be influenced by the other professional's value system, with its concomitant implications for the practice of the industrial social worker.

4. THE NATURE OF THE PRACTICE OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKERS

4.1 Problems dealt with by industrial social workers

The largest majority of respondents (90,6%) rated personal and family

problems as the most serious problems handled by them, in comparison to work-related problems. This indicates that the majority of social workers in industry define their role as attending to personal and family problems of the employee. It furthermore indicates that that is the way in which others in industry view the social worker, because they deal with problems referred to them by people who defined their role as professionals dealing with personal and family problems. It furthermore indicates that social work in industry is still very much pitched at the individual employee and his family - an EAP model. The three most important problems listed were family and marital relationships, alcohol and drug addiction, and financial problems. All the other problems listed, though, are connected to the family, and either aggravated in the family, or have implications for the family. Many of the programs reported on in the literature focus on the individual and family (cf. ch 6). It is possible that this is the result of the fact that many social workers employed by industry came from settings with a focus on the individual and family. The skills that a social worker possesses will also determine his focus. Social workers possessing skills in working with individuals and families will tend to concentrate on individuals and families.

Problems dealt with by social workers in this study are very similar to the problems dealt with by social workers in projects reported in the literature (Gould and Smith, 1988; Googins and Godfrey, 1987; Feinstein and Brown, 1982; Ozawa, 1980).

The fact that there is such a wide difference in the number of social workers regarding personal and family problems as the problems they deal with the most compared with the number of social workers who regard work-related problems as the ones they deal with the most, is significant. This implies

that by far the majority of social workers define referred problems as personal and family problems, and not as work-related problems. The problem formulation will determine the approach used, and it appears that social workers prefer not to formulate problems in terms of its manifestation in the work behaviour or performance of the employee. It might also be that work-related problems can be dealt with by others such as supervisors, section heads, personnel officers, etc. As a result of this, the social worker might feel that these problems fall outside his area of expertise. The researcher is of the contention that the trend will be to define problems as personal problems if the social worker defines his role as paying attention to the employee as a person and not vice versa.

The majority of problems are being dealt with on an individual basis, but certain problems like alcoholism, drug addiction, preparation for retirement, early retirement, and sick leave are being dealt with on a group basis. Some groups are therapeutic, while others are informative and educational. Not much is said in the literature on group work in industry which makes it difficult to appraise the work in industry that is done in group context.

Certain community problems like housing, arranging holidays for children of employees, and day care centres are also receiving attention. There thus seems to be signs of social workers involved in the broader context of occupational welfare or fringe benefits (ch 2).

Particular groups with special needs identified are artisans and operators. The Black worker is faced particularly with consumer ignorance, and as a result of that financial difficulties. Other problems in this group are housing and alcohol abuse. Some social workers seem to succeed in taking a systems approach when the workforce is viewed, but this was not a very strong

tendency.

4.2 Sources of referrals used by the industrial social worker

The two most important sources of referral are line supervisors and the worker himself. It is to be expected that the supervisor will be the most important source of referral. He is in daily contact with the worker, and will be the first person to observe changes in behaviour in the worker. The supervisor is also responsible for productivity levels, and it is natural that he will attempt to deal with any event that might effect production. This also means that the supervisor is a key staff member in industrial social work practice in South Africa. He will be the most important source of information to the social worker. This confirms the importance of the supervisor for training for EAP's as well. The supervisor also features prominently in the literature with reference to the task of the social worker in building up a referral system (ch 5). The fact that the supervisor was found to be the most important source of referral confirms the importance of involving him in the training programme when the social worker establishes the social work programme in the organisation. He should be part of the circle of allies the social worker will need.

It is interesting to note that the number of self-referrals seem to be regarded as a good indication of the success of an EAP, and self-referrals were fairly high on the list of sources of referral. The relative weight of each of the sources of referrals listed in chapter 11 (p. 222) reveal 1) something about the relationship of the social worker with each of these resources, and 2) the knowledge these resources possess about the role of the social worker. It could serve as an indication to the social worker as to how his educational programmes should be focussed, considering the importance

of referral in bringing the employee in contact with the social worker.

The fact that referral by trade unions is lowest on the list of sources of referral implies that the importance of trade unions are not appreciated by industrial social workers, or that trade unions are either not aware of the services of the social worker, or does not care about the personal-, family-, and job-related problems of the worker. This can hardly be the case, considering the kind of problems experienced by especially the Black worker. It is also possible that social workers are perceived by Black trade unions as agents of management that cannot to be trusted. It is also possible that the opposite could be true, that the social workers have negative views of trade unions. It should also be realised that trade unions never featured prominently in the evolution of social work in industry. Social workers were mainly appointed by management. There has been traditional mistrust between industrial social workers and trade unions. This was mainly the result of the fact that social workers were regarded as the handmaidens of management because of the roles they were given to play.

4.3 The tasks of the industrial social worker

4.3.1 Tasks directly related to helping troubled employees with personal and family problems

This rating of this category of tasks was first on the list, and is in line with the reported emphasis on the individual and the family. In this category, most of the time of the social worker is taken up with counselling employees on an individual basis. Identification of personal problems of employees was placed second on the list of tasks. One might expect this item

to be placed first, considering the steps of the helping process. It should be kept in mind, however, that many problems are identified by supervisors, and referred to the social workers to deal with. This would explain the position of this item. This, however, highlights the importance of preparing the supervisors for the task of identifying the personal problems of employees. It ties in with the training task of the social worker in building up a referral system (p. 109).

Dealing with "significant others" in the handling of the problems of the employee occupies a fairly important place on the list of tasks. Social workers thus make use of a network of different kinds of staff members in the execution of their tasks. The relative weight of this task stresses the importance of teamwork for the social worker in industry, and makes skills in this regard imperative. The social worker must be comfortable with the team concept, and must know how to relate to the other team members.

The task of dealing with families of clients in the execution of their tasks is in a surprising fourth position on the list. This confirms the impression that the emphasis is very much on the employee as an individual. To a certain extent it signifies a denial of the important link between the family of the employee and the workplace. This is also reflected in the absence in the literature of adequate reference to work with families of employees. This will lead to an incomplete treatment of the problem of the employee. Changes brought about at work may be undone at home if a family focus is not maintained.

There are signs that this situation is improving, judging from the increased frequency with which attention is paid to the very important work-home link in contemporary psychology and industrial sociology textbooks. This dimension should be incorporated in any model of industrial social work, as well as in the EAP policy of the organisation.

The next task on the list is communicating with welfare organisations on behalf of employees. If the position of this task is compared with the reported frequency with which contact takes place, which will be referred to at a later stage, then contact with welfare organisations is not a priority. The importance to use an ecosystems approach regarding available services must be stressed again. The industrial social worker should link the occupational welfare system with the community welfare system for the sake of the employee and his family. In doing so, gaps between these two systems could be identified.

Interviewing supervisors on behalf of clients is in the next slot. If the position of this task on the list is compared with the position of supervisors as the most important source of referral, one comes to the conclusion that the position and role of the supervisor in the total helping process is not properly acknowledged. This again reflects on inadequacies in or absence of a conceptualisation of the team concept by the social worker. This implies shortcomings in the perception of a "total environment" which will also cause shortcomings in "total social work". The researcher again wants to refer back to what has been

said about the importance of the supervisor in the training programme, and about the training function itself in chapter 5.

Referring clients to outside agencies is last on the list. It appears as if everything else is tried first before the client will be referred. It can also be accepted that the industrial social worker will work with the employee for a while before referring him to outside agencies. An issue in this case is the criteria used to decide when a referral should be made. This was not established in the investigation, but it can be assumed that the industrial social worker's perception of the competence of agency staff will play a role, as well as the relationship between industry and the outside welfare organisations. This clearly indicates the need for guidelines in this regard. If different social workers working for the same company, or successive social workers use different criteria, no uniformity and standardisation will be established with undesirable consequences for the client\employee.

4.3.3 Tasks related to work with the workforce as a whole, and the outside community.

The fact that this group of tasks was rated second to that of direct services to individual employees again highlight the focus on the individual employee. This implies the use of the traditional casework model in industry, and a lack of a holistic view of industry by the social worker. It must be kept in mind that a certain percentage of social workers employed by industry had previous experience in a community welfare organisation. The social work approaches used in these organisations will influence the

perception the social worker has of her role in industry. The schools of thought on which the person's training was based, will also play a role. It is also natural that a social worker will use that practice model he feels most comfortable with, but it might not be the practice model most appropriate for practice in industry.

The tasks in this category occupying the first three positions on the list relate more directly to the workforce and its needs, and under normal circumstances would be used to plan social work services for the work force as a whole. The "service planning" aspects of industrial social work seem to get priority above the more "indirect" tasks related to the maintenance of the social work unit. The perception seems to be that the more indirect the task is, the less important it becomes, judging from the rating the different tasks received from industrial social workers. It is interesting to note that the further the task removes the social worker from direct contact with the employee, the less important it is regarded to be. This orientation is characteristic of the earlier phases of development of industrial social work with the emphasis on direct services. Less emphasis on systemic intervention and contact with the outside community seem to be the order of the day. Googins (1987) regards organisational intervention as the last stage of development in the evolution of occupational social work.

The tasks of identification and liaison with community resources which can be brought to bear on the problems of the employees, can lead to the start of a social responsibility project, because inadequacies in existing services can be identified in such a

process. It is thus important for the social worker to utilise an ecosystems model in implementing the social work program. By using this model, the social worker can identify the connections of the individual employee with the significant entities in industry and in the community. This will also assist in moving away from a focus on the individual employee.

It is interesting that contact with welfare agencies outside does not occupy a very high position, which may leave the impression that either the social workers in industry do not realise the importance of such a task, or that little confidence is vested in the outside organisations. If this is in fact true, there are serious shortcomings in the relationship between industrial social workers and outside agencies. The employee is in such a case deprived of a valuable resource in the community.

4.3.4. Tasks related to establishing and promoting the position and role of the industrial social worker in the organisation

The task rated first in this category is that of interpretation of the role of the social worker to the employee. If the strong emphasis on the employee is considered, it is to be expected that this task will take priority. The relative weights allocated to this group of tasks validates a previous interpretation about the relationship between the "directness" of the task and the distance from the employee.

The task that was rated second on the list, that of interpretation of the role of the social worker to managers, supervisors, and other

staff members establishes the basis for a team approach in industry. This task must be executed to develop a network of allies, in order to make the industrial social worker an effective staff member. It will also help to familiarise other staff members with the role of the social worker.

The next task is that of interpretation of the role of the social worker to welfare organisations and the larger community. The position allocated to this task is surprising, especially if it is kept in mind that this category of tasks was placed third on the list. That means that this particular task does not occupy a very important overall position. This confirms the fact that contact with outside agencies is not regarded as that important, which might be regarded as a serious shortcoming. The interpretation of the task of the social worker to the trade union occupies the last slot. If this is viewed in conjunction with the position of trade unions as a source of referral, it can be concluded that trade unions are not regarded as very significant allies in service to the worker. It might be that the often adversarial relationship between management and the trade union is carried over to the relationship between the industrial social worker and the trade union.

The overall position of this group of tasks on the rating list however, implies that a weak relationship is perceived between these tasks and those of providing effective services to individual and groups of employees. Social workers in industry should devote considerable time to the establishment and maintenance of their position on a continuous basis, because it

will improve their credibility.

4.3.5 Administrative tasks of the industrial social worker.

Management and administration of the unit enjoys a low priority. The writing of monthly and annual reports, and the keeping of statistics are recognised systems of accountability, especially to management. If this is not done, management may not have a clear idea of the functioning of the social work unit. This may become an obstacle in getting the support of management, and in requesting improved facilities and resources. Administration takes up a lot of the time of the social worker in general, and constitutes an integral part of the helping repertoire of the social worker. It will not be different in industry, and it could be argued that neglect in this area of practice will hamper the efficient and effective execution of the social work task in industry. If the social worker wants to maintain and expand his role, the reporting function is crucial. Jansson and Simmons (1986:339) refer to the asking and presenting strategies that should be used with high-level administrators. It thus means that the social worker must be ready to do a lot of "paperwork" to maintain a foothold in the organisation.

General administration is rated lower than social work administration, and refer to the kind of administration that related to the organisation in general, and not specifically to social work. Dissatisfaction about this kind of administration was expressed by some social workers. The reason for this is

that it is not regarded as contributing anything to obtaining social work goals. It is most likely, however, that social workers in industry fail to see the relevance of general administrative tasks to their professional role.

4.3.6 Research tasks of the industrial social worker

The research tasks of the industrial social worker was placed last on the overall list of categories of tasks. This is a reflection of a general apathy amongst social workers towards research. This is confirmed by the indication given by 26 (68,4%) social workers in the sample of the time spent on research. Seventy three percent of this number indicated that they spent less than 10% of their time on research. This figure is not very encouraging, considering the nature of the tasks in this category. It includes the evaluation of an existing service, establishing the need for a service, the exploration of the skills and methods necessary to deal with human problems in industry, the investigation of the effects of working conditions on employees, and the assessment of the relevance of applied social work processes. These tasks all relate to the effectiveness and the efficiency of the social work service. If they are not carried out, the social worker is left without an important method of feedback about the quality of the professional social work service.

5. THE LOCATION OF THE SOCIAL WORKER IN THE ORGANISATION

The social workers in the sample are located in different sections of the organisations employing them. In spite of individual differences, are most social workers based in some or other "people section" of the organisation. It must be accepted that the social work unit will be based where, according to management, it functionally fits the best. The status of the section where it is based, will also determine its own status.

6. CO-OPERATION WITH NON-SOCIAL WORK COLLEAGUES

Certain problems concerning cooperation from non-social work colleagues were reported. It relates to matters like evaluation of the social work unit, feedback about results of intervention from colleagues, unequal use of services by different sections of the organisation, lack of cooperation from personnel who might feel threatened by the social worker, and resistance to referral by the personnel division. These problems can cause the social work unit not to be used optimally, or can be regarded as being symptomatic of a lack of credibility. It can therefore be regarded as of the utmost of importance that industrial social workers are skilled in the use of tactics to improve the chances of survival of the unit, and the use of skills to enhance the credibility of the social work section. This is the kind of situation where the hostility towards the social worker that Jones (p.79) talks about, is generated. The solution to this problem lies in the suggestion that the social worker should respect the roles of the other professionals in the same setting.

7. OBJECTIVES OF SOCIAL WORK IN THE ORGANISATION

A strong trend seem to be to define the objectives of social work in industry as related to productivity. Even the other, individual responses, can

eventually be linked with productivity.

The interpretation of social work's objectives will shape the expectations held about its role, and will determine the tasks allocated to him.

The reasons for appointing a social worker were diverse, and largely determined by circumstances and policies at the particular companies. Some of these reasons appear to be similar to Corporate Social Responsibility projects described in chapter 8. The message here is that there are numerous ways to get a "foot in the door" in industry. Essentially it results from the ability to respond to a need prevailing at the time.

Considering the length of time social work services were in existence in the different companies, it is evident that it has been functioning for a relatively long time at certain organisations like Iscor and Sasol. It thus had the chance to establish itself in these companies. It is, however, regarded as unfortunate that South Africa has long experience in this setting, but that to a large extent, little by way of research and publications appeared. It could have boosted social work in industry, and could have contributed to the body of industrial social work knowledge. This should be seen in relation to the reluctance of the industrial social worker to do research.

8. RELATIONSHIP WITH OTHER COLLEAGUES

There appears to be a need amongst industrial social workers to have contact with colleagues, as evidenced by the sizeable majority who indicated that they are members of professional associations. The reasons given for membership also indicate that they want to keep abreast of developments in

the profession.

The support for the idea of a separate professional association for industrial social workers indicates that they feel that they have common interests that are different from the mainstream of social workers, and that they share a separate identity. This is in spite of their expressed need to stay in contact with their colleagues in the rest of the profession.

Professional associations played a crucial role in the development of social work in South Africa. Industrial social work is a specialised area of practice in social work in South Africa, and a professional association for practitioners in this field will serve a clear purpose. It will promote the interests of this group of social workers, and will serve the purpose of countering isolation felt by some industrial social workers. One problem with the maintenance of such a society is the fact that some industrial social workers work in remote areas, which will make it impossible to attend meetings. Googins (1987:37) refers to the existence of an Employee Assistance Society of North America, and the International Association of Industrial Social Workers. Separate societies for industrial social workers and EAP staff are thus not uncommon.

The degree of isolation from the rest of the social work fraternity is seemingly related to the quality and nature of contact with the outside social work community. Some industrial social workers may isolate themselves through their own inertia to counter it. One industrial social worker admitted that they isolate themselves by not attending meetings of social work associations.

There is also the problem of isolation from their colleagues in industry.

Some industrial social workers are faced with the problem of physical remoteness. As indicated earlier, industries appointing social workers are found in clusters which provide the opportunity for contact with colleagues in close proximity to oneself. However, social workers employed at plants in remote areas of the country will be deprived of contact with their industrial social work colleagues. A Forum for Industrial Social Workers has been established some years ago, providing a means to stay in touch. However, not all social workers in industry were members of the Forum, and it would seem to be in the doldrums.

9. MOTIVES FOR ENTERING THE INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKER FIELD

The two most important reasons given were interest in a career in industry, and financial reasons. Although financial reasons were placed second, it might even be supposed that it could have been first, were it not due to a reluctance to admit it for fear of being accused of deserting the basic mission of social work. Financial reasons could very well be the very reason for the interest in a career in industry. Salaries in social work are generally poor, and the nature of practice demanding. Industrial social work may be seen as a way of overcoming these conditions. Dissatisfaction with conventional social work did occupy fourth place on the list, which confirms the presence of this motive. The perceived status of the job of industrial social work received an even more insignificant rating. It could perhaps even be hypothesised that industrial social work is regarded as being a more attractive option to social work practice outside of industry, even in the absence of specific knowledge about this setting.

In the Jorgensen study (1979) reasons given to the same question were in order of priority personal satisfaction, job challenge, possibility for growth

and advancement, financial benefits, and developed program.

Few social workers are formally trained for industrial social work. No clarity on the true nature of industrial social work could exist in the minds of social workers prior to moving into industry. It is thus difficult to make a clear career decision, based on knowledge of social work in industry.

10. THE VALUES AND PRINCIPLES OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

There seems to be a general feeling that industrial social work is in keeping with the purposes, principles, and values of social work, although some workers felt that it is not always the case, while a smaller group felt that it never happens. It is perhaps illuminating that those who had reservations about the preservation of social work values and purposes in industry, argued that different values prevail in the workplace, that conflict may arise between the goals of social work and that of industry, and that the profit motive is sometimes an obstacle. Another complaint was that clerical work sometimes had to be done which is not in line with social work activities. These matters are also identified in the literature as issues in industrial social work, (ch 9) as was explained in this chapter.

11. SPECIALISED TRAINING FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

A general feeling existed amongst industrial social workers that the practice of industrial social work warrants specialised training. The reasons for this point of view were related to the uniqueness of the industrial setting.

The biggest majority of industrial social workers felt that training for industrial social work practice should take place on the undergraduate as

well as postgraduate level. This means that the qualified social worker who prefers to seek employment in industry after obtaining his first degree will not be completely unprepared for practice in industry. A postgraduate course will provide for the needs of the social worker who either wants to equip himself with more advanced knowledge about industrial social work before accepting a position in industry, or who is already employed in industry, but wants to upgrade his expertise. A postgraduate qualification in industrial social work must enhance social work practice in industry.

There is a clear need amongst social workers for more knowledge about industry-related disciplines, or fields of practice. That also serves as an indication of the "specific knowledge" that social workers in industry feel they should have. The most important areas mentioned in this regard were industrial relations, industrial psychology, personnel management, and management practice. The more theoretical disciplines like industrial sociology and organisation theories were not given the same priority. Business administration also received a low rating. The fact that industrial psychology was placed high on the list should serve as an indication of the need to understand the employee and his needs in industry. In the Jorgensen study (1979), it was found that business management and economics were the most important elective courses to the practice of industrial social workers included in that study's sample. Third and fourth were industrial psychology and political science.

The majority of industrial social workers in the sample indicated that they would attend workshops on industrial social work. This can be taken as an expression of a need to improve knowledge and expertise about this field of practice. Universities can play a crucial role in the training of industrial social workers by providing for that within their programmes of

continuing education. Respondents in the Jorgensen (1979) study identified business management, administration, alcoholism counselling and industrial psychology as their main interest for purposes of continuing education.

12. CONTACT WITH OUTSIDE WELFARE ORGANISATIONS

Regarding the use of the services of outside welfare organisations, more than 50 % of the sample uses outside welfare organisations on a monthly basis or less. This may deprive the client of an outside resource. The majority of industrial social workers indicated that they found these contacts useful. It could be expected that more use should be made of outside welfare organisations if these contacts were experienced as so useful. The majority of industrial social workers in the sample also reported that they receive the necessary cooperation from their outside colleagues. It is difficult to evaluate these responses properly because it was not established what the actual expectations of the industrial social workers were regarding the outside welfare organisations. The majority of industrial social workers indicated that their role was accepted by outside agencies. It is crucial that sound co-operation exists between industrial social work units and community welfare organisations. As stated earlier, the occupational welfare system and community welfare system should be integrated. Contact between industrial social workers and those in the community will be instrumental in achieving this aim.

B. DISCUSSION OF DATA ON INDUSTRIES NOT EMPLOYING SOCIAL WORKERS.

1. ACCEPTING OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR PERSONAL AND SOCIAL WELFARE OF EMPLOYEES.

The majority of companies in this sample (69,8%) felt that industry should accept responsibility for the personal and social welfare of their employees. When the reasons given for this point of view are analysed, and the three highest scores considered, it becomes clear that companies' acceptance of responsibility for the welfare of their employees are motivated by self-interest. The reason registering the highest score was that the acceptance of responsibility for the personal and social welfare will lead to improved industrial relations. The presence of trade unions has led to the need for improved industrial relations, and it can be suggested that the demands of trade unions indirectly give rise to the need to accept responsibility for the welfare of employees. The reason second on the list was that the acceptance of responsibility for the personal and social welfare of employees will help prevent problems interfering with productivity. The reason third on the list of the highest scores states that acceptance of responsibility for the social and personal welfare of the employee is a moral responsibility towards the worker.

More companies than those who felt that industry has a responsibility for the social and personal welfare of employees, indicated that they do accept responsibility for dealing with the personal and family problems of their employees. This means that companies are ready to accept this responsibility, even if they have reservations about it. The reason for this might be that they experience pressure in this regard from their employees. The fact that companies generally realise that they have a responsibility for the welfare of their employees, may be regarded as an expression of internal social responsibility, and should contribute to the development of the occupational welfare system.

It is difficult to say what the differences are between the companies who are

employing social workers, and those accepting responsibility for the welfare of their employees, but who are not employing social workers.

2. WAYS OF DEALING WITH PROBLEMS OF EMPLOYEES.

Personnel officers and line managers were the most frequently mentioned as staff members normally dealing with problems of employees. This is to be expected in view of the roles and functions of these staff members. Personnel officers are normally identified as representing the "human" side of industry, which explains why it will be expected of them to deal with the personal problems of employees. Line managers, on the other hand, are in daily contact with the employees and will be the first person to either identify or having the problem reported to. In this regard, the researcher wants to refer back to the fact that management (personnel section and supervisors) was listed as a source of referral of employee problems to social workers in industry. This means that in companies not employing social workers, personnel officers and line managers will have to carry out some of the tasks that should be carried out by the social worker. This clearly illustrates the necessity for the social worker to negotiate her role and is proof of Jones's statement (1983:17) that "many people in the organisation would have already informally been carrying out various social work functions."

Personnel departments play an important role in handling the personal problems of employees. Similar findings were made in the Jorgensen study (1979) that established that personnel departments were listed the most as the department handling the personal problems of employees. The same department was listed as the "conscience" of the company. This makes it the most natural place for the social work unit to be located.

Companies employ a variety of methods for dealing with problems of employees. Apart from discussion and counseling used, outside agencies are also employed. This suggests that organisations does not always have the people with the necessary skills to deal with the problems of employees, and thus have to refer them to outside sources. This present outside organisations with the opportunity to develop and initiate industrial social work services from outside, a possibility referred to earlier (p.69/70).

3. APPOINTMENT OF SOCIAL WORKERS

It was discovered that a small group of companies in the sample were, at the time of the investigation, planning to appoint a social worker. From this, the deduction can be made that those companies have resolved that a social worker is suitable for the task of dealing with the personal and family problems of the employees. The most common reasons given for not appointing a social worker were that problems are dealt with effectively by the present staff, and that present procedures have proved to be effective. These companies thus feel that they have the resources to deal with the problems referred to them, and that they are equipped to deal with them effectively. As long as this assessment is maintained, it is unlikely that a social worker will be appointed. It is perhaps interesting to note that a certain percentage of organisations in the sample indicated that they have staff with social work qualifications who can handle the problems encountered by the organisation. These perceptions indicate a need to promote industrial social work, and to market the skills of the industrial social worker. This is a task to which universities can make a considerable contribution.

The three most important attitudinal obstacles to social workers practicing in the world of work identified by industrial social workers in the Jorgensen

study (1979) were that business and industrial administrators do not know the value of social worker's expertise, that they have not been informed of the social worker's function in their settings, and that the practice of social work is nontraditional in the business and industrial setting. In the same study, a variety of "other" reasons are given, which is illuminating.

The fact that organisations in the sample are not influenced by companies employing social workers to do the same, rules out the role of competition as a reason for appointing a social worker. Organisations seem to prefer to make their own decisions. It is possible that they would not admit that they are influenced by other companies, because that would reflect on their independence. It was stated earlier (p 79) that personal relationships or the example of the competition could stimulate a decision to appoint a social worker.

4. ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN INDUSTRY

The majority of the organisations in the sample claimed to be aware of the roles social workers can play in industry. Industries seem to have a fairly accurate idea of the tasks of a social worker, although the scores that some tasks got, seem to indicate that industry might be ignorant about the potential role the social worker can play in the world of work. This is a perception needing correction, and it is similar to some of the findings of the Jorgensen study (1979) referred to above.

The variation in the responses to the question of whether industries would use the services of social workers allocated to industry by outside welfare agencies, is proof of mixed attitudes towards welfare organisations. Many factors may contribute to these responses. The attitude of industries to the

welfare of its employees may be one, while the experiences with welfare organisations may be another. Knowledge about the role welfare organisations can play in promoting the welfare of their employees will also influence the responses of industry towards welfare agencies. The perception of their own abilities to deal with personal and social problems of employees will influence the need they perceive for assistance by welfare organisations.

Industry seems to be willing to grant social work a role in a wide spectrum of human resource management (HRM) activities. This is significant, considering the fact that the area of HRM seems to be the turf for social work in industry. The highest score was achieved in the area of maintaining emotional and physical health, with significant scores also obtained in other areas. The reactions of the different respondents may perhaps be best summarised by a respondent registering a response in the "other" category. He indicated that social work serves as a source discipline for HRM. That seems to indicate that a consultant's role for the social worker in HRM would be acceptable. This will take the social worker into the area of organisational development, a role for the social worker still to be explored more fully. It must also be accepted that the present economic climate is not very conducive for the further development of industrial social work. Industry cannot be expected to allow experimentation with a social worker in non-traditional functions in the company. At the moment, survival of many companies might be at stake, not leaving much room for appointment of social workers, something which might be regarded as a luxury.

5. AUSPICES FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

Considering the views on appropriate auspices for industrial social work, it is interesting that not one organisation in the sample suggested trade

unions. One respondent indicated that "they are still too immature". Management seem to be favoured, together with welfare organisations. A sizeable group also suggested a combination of auspices. The fact that not one company indicated trade unions as appropriate auspices for industrial social work should be seen in relation to the fact that the industrial social work practitioners did not regard trade unions as an important source of referral of employees experiencing problems. This seems to indicate a reluctance to accept the trade union as a partner in promoting the personal and social welfare of employees. A possible explanation for this is that trade unions are not viewed as being concerned about the welfare of their members. It is true that especially the Black trade unions seem to be more concerned about political change than change on the micro-level.

C. DISCUSSION OF DATA ON WELFARE ORGANISATIONS

1. THE ACCESSIBILITY OF WELFARE ORGANISATIONS TO INDUSTRY.

The welfare organisations in the sample were divided on the issue of whether industry is deprived of welfare services or not, and some were uncertain. Welfare organisations will be influenced by industry's perceived access to welfare services, and this will determine their policy regarding the rendering of welfare services to industry. Their opinion in this regard is thus critical, because they also have a responsibility to link the community welfare system with the occupational welfare system.

The most important reason why welfare organisations felt that industry is deprived of welfare services is a belief that little attention is paid to the worker as a person, and his family. This refers to the humanising role of social work in industry. Another reason is that some welfare organisations

believe that industry does not employ social workers. This is evidence of ignorance amongst social workers concerning developments in their own profession. It highlights the need for industrial social workers to make their services better known to the rest of the social work fraternity. The third important reason was that it is believed that employees have problems of access to proper services.

The high percentage of respondents who believed that industry is not deprived of welfare services, can be attributed to a belief that the worker is also a family member, and that he can be reached through the existing family welfare services. This indicates a lack of understanding of the nature of the workplace. Practical difficulties like shift work may make it impossible for the employee to see a social worker from outside. However, there are welfare organisations who have accepted the employee as a target group with special needs. Most of these organisations are involved in external EAP's, and render preventative as well as rehabilitation services. The most important reason given for accepting employees as a target group, is a belief that social work skills are needed in industry, and that employees will benefit from these skills. This attitude could be regarded as conducive to the education of industry about social work expertise and skills.

In spite of the fact that a large number of welfare organisations fail to accept the employee as a target group, because of a belief that their services are accessible to all, they admitted that the industrial social worker is in a better position to handle problems of employees. This position is strengthened by the observation that more respondents supported the idea of social work practice in industry than those who felt that industrial social workers are in a better position to attend to the problems of the worker. This means that some social workers who had reservations

about the fact that industrial social work is in a better position to serve the worker, nevertheless support the idea of social work in industry. From the foregoing it appears as if a considerable groundswell of support for industrial social work exists in the profession. This should be used to expand on services to industry from outside, like EAP's, services rendered on contract to industry, and other preventative programmes.

2. VALUES AND PURPOSES OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK.

Another positive observation, related to the above, is the fact that the majority of welfare organisations felt that industrial social work is in keeping with the values and purposes of social work. Although this reaction was more a response to the concept of social work in industry, it is significant though, because perceptions held about industrial social work will determine the attitude formed about this field of practice.

There were, however, also those who felt that industrial social work is not in keeping with the values and purposes of social work, which reflects a caution towards industry. This is in line with what is reported in the literature, (Jorgensen, 1981) namely that not everyone is equally convinced about the feasibility of industrial social work. The reason for this caution could be that some social workers believe the profession should not associate itself with industry, because of the latter's emphasis on profit, and a perceived absence of respect for human needs.

3. INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK AS A SPECIALISED SETTING

Industrial social work is also acknowledged by a large percentage of welfare organisations in the sample regarding it as a specialised field of practice.

This is also reflected in the reasons given why this particular point of view is supported. Many of these reasons stress the uniqueness of the nature, tasks and demands associated with this field of practice. This may be the cause for viewing industrial social work as a remote field of practice in social work, which may give rise to attitudinal obstacles in the way of mutual understanding between industrial social work and the rest of the profession. This is perhaps an area needing the attention of industrial social workers.

4. AWARENESS OF INDUSTRIES EMPLOYING SOCIAL WORKERS

A high degree of awareness of industries employing social workers were found amongst welfare organisations in the sample. The reason for this is that many of the welfare organisations in the sample are situated in urban areas where most industrial social workers are to be found. However, differing degrees of curiosity about the nature of industrial social work was found amongst welfare organisations in the sample. Considerable indifference was expressed in that nearly half of the organisations stating that they knew about industries employing social workers in their area were not interested in gaining more knowledge about this field of practice. The majority of this latter group indicated that they have too little time to enquire about this field of practice. Another surprising response was that 13% of this group indicated that industrial social work has no relevance to their own practice. This attitude can be termed as being counter productive, because an industrial social worker can be a valuable ally and resource person to the community welfare organisation. This is another gap that should be bridged, for the sake of unity in social work.

5. NEED FOR SPECIALISED TRAINING FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

Further recognition for industrial social work is found in 60% of the sample who felt that there is a need for specialised training in industrial social work. It acknowledges the fact that generic knowledge is inadequate for industrial social work practice. The reasons given for this opinion are similar to those of the group of respondents who acknowledged industrial social work as a specialised field of practice. There is such a close relationship between these two variables that it is to be expected that there will also be a close similarity between the reasons suggested for the support of these positions.

6. PREFERRED AUSPICES FOR INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK.

The two most favoured auspices for industrial social work chosen, was those of management and welfare organisations. This is much in line with the practical situation in that the majority of social workers in industry are employed by management, and the most common alternative is welfare organisations involved in external EAP's.

CHAPTER 15

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusions and recommendations flowing from the empirical study will be discussed in this chapter.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The existing literature on social work in industry deals with selected aspects of this field of practice in an unsystematised way. No clear model that can be used has emerged yet. The same finding was made by Jorgensen (1979) more than a decade ago. If this is kept in mind, theoretical development in this specialized area of social work practice is slow.
2. There are indications that social work in industry still finds itself in the earlier phases of development if the views of the various authors in this regard are considered. Industrial\occupational social work will have to find solutions to many of the issues affecting its development and practice, many of which are related to the relationship between social work and industry. There is an urgent need for more research on the practice of social work in the workplace.
3. Social work seems to be well established in South Africa in a small group of industries. There has been a steady increase in the companies employing social workers over the last decade after a relatively long period during which there was little growth in this area of social work practice. The pioneers in industrial social work in South Africa have been employing social work for more than three decades. These companies have the best established social work units amongst the group of industries employing social workers.

Social work services also exist in organisations like the South African Defense Force and the South African Police, but they were not part of this study. There seem to be fluctuations in the development of social work in industry in South Africa, as evidenced by the changing patterns in the appointment of social workers by industry. Over the long term, social work in industry in South Africa seem to follow the same pattern that it had in other Western countries, although there are perceptible differences between countries in especially Western Europe. At the moment, a decline in the number of social workers appointed seem to be taking place in South Africa.

4. Industrial social work practitioners in South Africa fail to publish any material about their work. They do not seem to realise the value of published material for the purposes of promoting their practice, or they do not regard their role in industry as sufficiently important that it warrants publicity.

5. Social work practice in industry in South Africa still seem to be very much on the micro-level, characterised by a focus on the employee as an individual, or in the personal problem phase of Googins's (1987) model. There are signs, however, that a service model may be emerging with attention to the consequences of shift work, retirement, housing problems, and consumer problems amongst Black workers. It is however too early to say whether it will become a trend.

6. The research done did not indicate any active involvement of industrial social workers in either organisation development or corporate social responsibility. The literature review, however, identified a potential role for industrial social workers in CSR. In spite of this, research by Harnett (1991) indicates some involvement by social workers in industry in CSR

programmes. This seems to indicate that there is a progressive enlargement of the scope of industrial social work in South Africa.

7. Members of the Black workforce in industry in South Africa were for a long time affected by restrictive legislation and labour regulation measures, the legacy of which will still be felt for a considerable time to come. This will be reflected in the workplace and it is imperative for social workers in industry in South Africa to pay particular attention to the needs of the Black worker, particularly their community needs. The social worker could be instrumental in identifying needs amongst particularly the Black workforce that could be met by CSR programmes.

8. The peripheral position and the size of the social work units in industry present complicated problems. Few organisations can provide experienced social work leadership for young, inexperienced social workers, because often there are no senior social workers available with continuity problems as a result. Social work records, which can be used to ensure this continuity, does not seem to be regarded as very important. This problem is aggravated by the fact that social workers employed by industry had prior experience in different kinds of organisations. This may result in different approaches to social work in industry. This situation is compounded by the fact that many social workers in industry never had the advantage of a specialised training in the field of practice, and are thus deprived of a common socialising experience provided by training.

9. Evidence was found of a rift between the social workers employed by industry and community social workers. This seems to be caused on the one hand by a failure on the part of the industrial social workers to realise that their service system must be linked with the community service system.

The community social workers do not always seem to grasp the effect of the parameters of the workplace on the functioning of the industrial social worker. They are not assisted in this process, because there seems to be a general lack of education of the community about the role of the social worker in industry. A feeling of "separateness" seems to prevail.

10. The theoretical knowledge of social workers in industry seem to be inadequate. There is a need for more industry-related knowledge, which at the same time helps with the process of integration of social work into industry.

11. Although social work seems to be established in a small number of industries in South Africa, many other industries are without social workers. These organisations do not necessarily regard the appointment of social workers as the appropriate step to take in order to solve the personal and family problems of their employees. This may be due to the fact that social work does not do enough to explain the value of the expertise of the profession to industry.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Interest in industry as a field of practice for social work should be stimulated in South Africa. There is a general ignorance about this field of practice, a situation that deserves to be improved.
2. More research on industrial/occupational social work should be done. Many social workers at present employed in industry are equipped with social work models and approaches that are inadequate for the situations faced in the world of work.
3. Social workers presently employed in industry should be encouraged to publicise their work. This should lead to an increased awareness amongst the social work fraternity about this field of practice.
4. More use should be made of industry for the purposes of fieldwork placements by universities. This will stimulate the development of this area of social work practice, and will make industry aware of the potential value of social work.
5. Social workers in industry should not be satisfied with merely a "casework role". They should look for opportunities to expand their role into new areas, and to offer their expertise in whatever way it will assist towards humanising the workplace.
6. A conference on social work in industrial/occupational settings in South Africa should be held. It will bring practitioners together, and provide the opportunity for the exchange of ideas.

7. Social workers in industry can make their effort more relevant by increasing their understanding of the needs and problems of the Black worker. Amongst others, the relevance of "Western" social work to the needs of the Black worker should be investigated. Programmes specifically focused on their needs should be launched. Suggestions in this regard are preventative programmes on alcoholism, budgeting, consumer behaviour, street law, Aids, etc. Programmes to upgrade the quality of life of these employees could be launched by means of community development, and CSR.

8. Preparation of social workers for their role in industry seems to be a problem. Social workers move into industry without a model to work from, because of a general lack of training facilities for industrial social work. The contribution of Universities already training social workers for practice in occupational settings is acknowledged, but more should be done on different levels. Attention will have to be paid to the training needs of social workers presently in industry by means of shorter refreshers courses. They should be kept abreast of developments in social work, and also in topics directly related to industrial social work. For these purposes, use should be made of workshops, continuing education, and short courses.

9. Steps should be taken to solve the problems related to the absence of social work supervision for industrial social workers working on their own. In this regard, expertise could be pooled, and peer group supervision arranged by social workers of groups of companies located in close proximity. Industrial social workers could also request companies to purchase supervision services on a contractual basis from outside. Another possibility in this regard is supervision provided by universities.

10. Isolation of industrial social workers from the rest of the profession

should be countered by establishing more regular contact with other practitioners in the field. This could in the first place be done by becoming a member of a professional association, and speaking at their meetings. A better way still, would be to offer to participate in in-service-training programmes of welfare organisations to make social workers aware of the nature of industrial social work services.

11. The problem of the social work unit not being utilised properly could be overcome by making social work services known in every section of the organisation. The social worker should identify attitudinal obstacles that may be the cause of this problem. Quite a lot of time must be spent by the social worker on relationship building. A good working relationship should be developed with the head of every division. Sound, non-threatening relationships with supervisors in the various divisions will help to develop the social worker's position. More attention should be given to establishing the role of the social worker in industry.

12. Relationships with outside welfare organisations should be fostered by visiting them regularly, and coming to agreements on working together. Attending AGM's of welfare organisations will promote co-operation, and sending annual reports on the work of the social work unit will foster more open relationships.

13. The role that social work can play in industry should be explained to industry, and the use of social workers propagated. Private welfare organisations can do a lot to improve the image and understanding of industry about social work. Certain methods can be followed in this regard. Welfare organisations have vested interests in industry accepting a greater welfare responsibility in connection with its own workforce. It will lighten their

load, and improve the services to the employee. A general principle to be observed in this connection is to use every opportunity to establish a relationship and common understanding with industry regarding the needs of its workforce and the services that can be offered. A formal letter of introduction to the human resources manager, outlining the services that can be offered to industries by welfare organisations can be used. Annual reports can be sent to the major industries in a given area, and business people can be elected onto the executive committees of welfare organisations. When requests are made for grants from industry, feedback on how the money is being spent, must be given regularly. In short, good public relations will go a long way.

14. Research needs to be done on industry's awareness and understanding of industrial social work, in order to correct misperceptions.

15. Social workers in industry should entrench their roles by exploring ways in which they indirectly can be of service to the employee by getting involved in broader human resource management functions. This indicates the extension of the consultant's role of the social worker in industry to as many human resource management functions as possible. The social worker should try to identify the situations where his expertise could make an improvement.

16. Social workers in industry must make every effort to integrate their services as far as the natural systems boundaries allow, with the network of community social work services. This can be done by an agreement to joint action with local welfare organisations in the cases of clients who are also employees of the particular company, and by a willingness to serve on the executive committees of welfare organisations.

17. Social workers in industry should explore their roles in organisational development more thoroughly. Attention should specifically be paid to the human subsystem of the organisation, in order to make it more responsive to the needs of the employees. Social workers should get familiar with models for organisational assessment and analysis in order to determine their role in OD.

18. Social workers should identify the decisionmakers regarding the CSR programmes of the organisation, and offer their help and assistance in designing and executing these programmes. The practitioner should not wait to be asked, but must follow a dynamic and assertive approach in establishing his role in areas in industry not generally regarded as social work turf.

APPENDIX A

Department of Social Work
Rhodes University
P O Box 94
GRAHAMSTOWN
6140

Dear

SOCIAL WORKERS IN INDUSTRY

I am at present busy with doctoral research on social work practice in industry. This implies that I must trace all social workers employed by industry. For greater detail about the project, please see attached sheet.

You are indicated on my records as a social worker employed by industry. It would be appreciated if you would be so kind as to confirm this on the separate sheet, designed for this purpose. Please indicate on the same sheet whether you are willing to become involved in this project and whether you will need permission to do so. If you know of any other persons employed as social workers in industry, would you please provide me with their names and work addresses.

You are thanked for your assistance without which this research cannot be completed. I believe that the results could be of interest to all social workers as well as to the profession as a whole. You will be contacted again in due course.

Yours faithfully,

P RANKIN

APPENDIX B

SOCIAL WORKERS EMPLOYED BY INDUSTRIAL ORGANISATIONS

1) Name and address of social worker

2) Name and address of employing organisation:

.....
.....
.....
.....

3) I confirm that I am/am not employed as a social worker by the above organisation.*

4) I am willing/not willing to provide information about my role as social worker in industry.*

5) I must get permission to become involved in research/permission not necessary.*

(If permission is to be granted, please give name and address of person to be approached.)

.....
.....
.....
.....

6) I am aware of the following social workers employed by industry.

<u>Name</u>	<u>Work address</u>
-------------	---------------------

* Delete if not applicable.

APPENDIX C

Department of Social Work
Rhodes University
P O Box 94
GRAHAMSTOWN
6140

The Secretary
Regional Welfare Board
.....

Dear Mr/Mrs/Miss

RESEARCH: INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

Enclosed please find more detail about the above project. It will be appreciated if you could assist me to trace people employed as social workers in industry in your area of jurisdiction.

Please provide the necessary information on the enclosed form, and mail it back to me in the envelope provided for that purpose.

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours faithfully,

P RANKIN

APPENDIX D

REGIONAL WELFARE BOARDS

REGIONAL WELFARE BOARD:

We are aware of the following social workers employed by industry in our area of jurisdiction:

<u>Name of social worker</u>	<u>Work address</u>
1.
2.
3.
4.

APPENDIX E

Department of Social Work
Rhodes University
P O Box 94
GRAHAMSTOWN
6140

Tel: 0461-22023 X 348

The Editor

Dear Sir

TRACING OF SOCIAL WORKERS EMPLOYED BY INDUSTRY

I am at present busy with doctoral research on the practice of social work in industry in South Africa. This implies that all persons employed as industrial social workers in South Africa need to be traced, as I would like to involve them in my research. A serious problem in this regard, however, is the absence of a central register of these people, which makes it difficult to trace them. For this reason, various methods are to be utilised by me, one of which is an appeal like this to the press.

I would appreciate it if you could be of assistance in this regard by publishing this letter to enable me to communicate with all social workers employed by industry. I would like them to contact me at the above address, either in writing, or by phone. The only particulars I require are their names and addresses of the organisation employing them. If they know about other social workers employed by industry, they could also give me their particulars. Social workers employed by trade unions are also asked to respond to my request. Those with whom I already had personal contact, need not respond, because I have them on record already. Every response from social workers in industry will be followed up. I will be indebted to all social workers responding to my call. Without their co-operation, it will be difficult to complete my research, which will also be in their interest.

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours faithfully

P RANKIN

APPENDIX F

Department of Social Work
Rhodes University
P O Box 94
GRAHAMSTOWN
6140

Dear

PERMISSION TO INVOLVE SOCIAL WORKERS IN RESEARCH

If I have been in contact with you in the above connection in the past, you probably know that I am at present doing research on the role and task of industrial social workers in South Africa. A list of social workers employed by industry has been compiled by me for this purpose. Social workers employed by your organisation appear on this list, and I therefore hereby formally ask your permission to involve them in my research.

Their participation in this project means that information pertaining to their role and task and employee problems with which they deal will be collected from them by means of a questionnaire. The questionnaire will be mailed to them, or completed during a personal interview. Data collected will be treated in the strictest confidence and all possible care will be taken not to embarrass your organisation in any way.

I hope that it will be possible for you to grant permission, and you are thanked for your co-operation in this regard. If your permission is granted, I will be in contact again to make further arrangements with your social workers.

Yours faithfully

P RANKIN

APPENDIX G

ORGANISASIE/ORGANISATION:

* Toestemming om maatskaplike werkers by navorsing te betrek, word toegestaan/ kan nie toegestaan word nie.

* Permission to involve social workers in research is granted/not granted.

OPMERKINGS/REMARKS:

.....

.....

* Skrap wat nie van toepassing is nie

* Delete what is not applicable

APPENDIX H

Department of Social Work
Rhodes University
P O Box 94
GRAHAMSTOWN
6140

Dear

RESEARCH: INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

As you probably know, I am presently conducting research on industrial social work in South Africa. The project entails that personal interviews be conducted with as many as possible social workers in industry. The purpose of these interviews is to gather data on their role and functioning in the world of work.

The time at my disposal during which I can conduct these interviews is from to . I would like to have an interview with you during this time. It is, however, not possible for me to make final arrangements with you for an interview, mainly because I am not familiar with the local conditions. I intend, however, to be in your area on and will phone you at a later stage to arrange a suitable time for an interview.

Where necessary, permission to involve you in the research project, has been obtained from your superiors. This may not have been finalised in all cases, but this should not be the case at the time of my visit.

.....
.....
.....

I am looking forward to meeting you.

With kind regards

Yours faithfully

P RANKIN

APPENDIX I

Department of Social Work
Rhodes University
P O Box 94
GRAHAMSTOWN
6140

Dear

QUESTIONNAIRE IN CONNECTION WITH SOCIAL WORK IN INDUSTRY

I have recently started to collect data needed for my research by means of a questionnaire. I am attempting to contact as many social workers as possible in industry personally. This however, is not always possible, mainly because of time, and the geographic location of a specific industry. In such cases, I am forced to make use of a mailed questionnaire.

Attached, please find such a questionnaire for your attention. Would you please be so kind as to complete it and return it to me in the enclosed stamped, and addressed envelope. It is important that every questionnaire be returned. Your co-operation in the matter will thus be highly appreciated.

Permission for your involvement in this project has already been obtained from your superiors, and there should not be any problems in this regard.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours faithfully

P RANKIN

APPENDIX J

Department of Social Work
Rhodes University
P O Box 94
GRAHAMSTOWN
6140

The Director: Personnel

Dear Sir

RESEARCH: INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

I am presently conducting research on the above topic with a view of clarifying the true nature of industrial social work in South Africa.

Good progress has been made with the investigation, thanks to the kind co-operation of everybody involved in the project up to this stage. Social workers employed by industry have already been interviewed. The attitudes, opinions and knowledge regarding industrial social work of businesses and organisations not employing social workers should also be established. Your company is on my list of companies not employing social workers, and you are therefore included in my sample of organisations from which data is to be collected. If you are employing a social worker, accept my sincere apologies for incorrect information.

The data needed can only be collected with the aid of a questionnaire, and I thus take the liberty of asking you kindly to complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me in the addressed envelope before .

Your kind co-operation for the successful completion of this project is appreciated.

Yours faithfully

P RANKIN

APPENDIX K

Department of Social Work
Rhodes University
P O Box 94
GRAHAMSTOWN
6140

The Senior Social Worker

Dear Mr/Mrs

RESEARCH: INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

I am presently conducting research on the above topic. The main purpose of this project is to clarify the nature of industrial social work practice in South Africa, a field presently characterised by rapid developments.

One of the objectives of this project is to establish the attitude and perception of welfare organisations to industrial social work in view of the interdependency between the private welfare organisation and the social worker in industry. The industrial social worker needs the support of welfare organisations in the community, and the community welfare organisation must co-operate with the industrial social worker on behalf of the common clientele.

Your organisation is included in the sample of welfare organisations from which data must be collected. It will thus be appreciated if you would be so kind as to take 30 minutes of your time to complete the attached questionnaire and return it to me in the addressed envelope on or before

Your friendly co-operation in this matter is appreciated.

Yours faithfully

P RANKIN

APPENDIX L

INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK: AN INVESTIGATION AND ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE IN INDUSTRY IN SOUTH AFRICA

BACKGROUND INFORMATION IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT.

The title above is that of a proposed doctoral thesis on the role and function of social work in South African industry. The following are some of the motivations for the research project.

a) During the last 3-4 years there have been an apparent increase in the number of social workers employed by industry, if advertisements in newspapers can be used as a standard. Little however is known about the tasks and functions of these people mainly as a result of a lack of comprehensive research.

b) The researcher is of the opinion that social work can justify its existence in industry through its system of values, and the services it can render in connection with human problems of individuals and groups of employees.

The primary purpose of this investigation is to analyse the nature and role of social work in industry. Apart from a review of the literature on the topic, an attempt will be made to trace all social workers employed in industry, which is a vital, but complicated task in view of the absence of a proper register of social workers employed by industry.

In order to remove this obstacle, use will be made of different methods and the researcher will have to rely on the generous co-operation of several bodies and persons in an attempt to trace all industrial social workers. Industries known to employ social workers will be contacted directly. Other bodies to be approached will be the different professional associations of social workers, universities, and the various regional welfare boards.

If any of the above organisations apply to you, it will be appreciated if you can assist me in tracing industrial social workers. Without your assistance it will be difficult to proceed with this project.

Your assistance will make it much easier.

THANKS FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE!

P RANKIN

APPENDIX M

JOB DESCRIPTION OF AN INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKER

- **Title:** Occupational welfare officer.
- **Department:** Personnel. Reports to Deputy Director General
- **Job Description Abstract:** Identifies problems in the areas of welfare and social problems of individuals, families and groups of workers, helps to solve the problems of the clients and promote mutual commitment between the workers and the organisation. Social service work includes the help and support given to the needy to enable them to cope on their own, while being provided with the necessary resources whether at the place of work and/or with the aid of outside community services.
- **Job Activities: Counseling and Advocacy:** (1) Treats sick or injured employees. Keeps contact with the sick employees, with their families and their physicians. Helps the families of the sick and the injured to cope with problems which arises as a consequence of the illness or accident. (2) In charge of rehabilitation of workers after illness or accident. The rehabilitation may take place by returning them to work inside or outside the office. (3) Treats the families of deceased employees. Keeps in touch with the family of the deceased and helps it when needed with regard to funeral arrangements and its financial or other rights. (4) Provides short-term emotional support to employees suffering personal and interpersonal difficulties. Referring the needy to professional agencies for longer and deeper periods of treatment. In charge of the follow-up of their cases. (5) Treat problems and difficulties which arise in the family of employees. Helps in the solution of marital and interpersonal difficulties; helps in problems of children and their educational needs. In charge of referring the employee and members of his family to appropriate professional agencies, and at the same time keeping in contact with them. (6) Helps the employees living in low housing conditions to improve their homes. Advocate the employees needs and interests before government companies which deals with housing. Members of a department committee, which provides loans for improving housing conditions. (7) Represents the needy employee in the civil commissioner's interdepartmental committee devoted to welfare needs of employees.

Administrative Methods

1. Heads and operates a special department fund, financed mutually by government and the workers. Money allocation of this fund is decided upon by a committee of the department's representatives working with the occupational welfare officer.
2. Aids the personnel manager and line managers in socialising new employees at place of work. Helps the new employees through emotional support, by introducing them to the office and the workers and through solving adjustment problems. Pays special attention to the socialisation of new immigrants.

3. Helps, hand-in-hand with all parties involved, in solving conflicts and interpersonal problems which arise amongst workers and between supervisors and workers.
4. In charge of pre-retirement preparation of employees. Sends the employees to courses and seminars dealing with retirement plans. Provides written material related to retirement. In charge of retirement ceremonies and of follow-up with retirees.
5. Advises managers in all areas related to the welfare of employees and their families.
6. Cooperates with management and the union in promoting cultural and social activities for the workers.

Planning and Policy Making

1. Takes part in all the department's forums which deal with conditions of work and employee's welfare
2. Initiates and takes part in programs for the solution of problems of special groups of workers, such as day care for employee's children, or rehabilitation of handicapped.
3. Initiates and supports the generation of policy with regard to conditions of work and employees' welfare
4. Diffuses the information regarding the role of occupational welfare among managers and workers. Active in publishing, lecturing and promoting programs of training and education with regard to employees welfare.
5. Establish and maintain a network of "liaison people" chosen from supervisors and personnel officers in the various departmental units. The task of the liaison people is to locate employees suffering from problems and refer them to the occupational welfare officers.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR AN ANALYSIS OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE IN SOUTH AFRICA

A. PARTICULARS CONCERNING THE ORGANIZATION EMPLOYING SOCIAL WORKERS

1. Name and address of organization:

.....

2. Organization type:

Trade union	Manufacturing industry	Service industry	Mining	Other
-------------	------------------------	------------------	--------	-------

3. Number of employees / size of trade union

4. Breakdown of employees:

	White	Black	Coloured	Indian	Other (specify)
M					
F					

5. How many social workers are employed as social workers by your organization:

B. DETAILS ABOUT SOCIAL WORKER(S) EMPLOYED IN INDUSTRY:

1. Name Age

2. What is your job title:

3. Length of experience as social worker in

(a) a conventional agency: years

(b) in industry: years

4. Highest academic qualifications (degree, diploma):
 obtained in (year):

5. Kind and length of practical and other experience prior to obtaining your position as industrial social worker:

	Child and family welfare agency	State department	Specialist organization e.g. Cripple Care	Training institutio
years				

6. Please indicate the approximate total time and frequency of supervision received prior to accepting your present job:

PLEASE MARK APPROPRIATE ANSWERS WITH AN "X"

7. Do you receive supervision now? Yes No

8. If "No", do you have a need for it? Often Sometimes Never

Please motivate your answer:

.....

9. Do you make use of consultation? Often Sometimes Never

10. If you do, whom do you consult?

11. If you do not, please give reasons:

.....

C. EMPLOYEE PROBLEMS DEALT WITH BY INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKER

1. Please rank the following two categories of problems in order of incidence:

Personal and family problems Work-related problems

2. Please rank the problems in the following two categories in order of incidence

(a) Personal and family problems

	Order
Family and marital relationships	
Parent-child relationships	
Financial problems	
Legal problems	
Alcoholism and drug addiction	
Emotional problems	
Housing problems	
Health problems	
Physical problems	
Death of family member	
Any other problems: (please specify)	

(b) Work-related problems

	Order
Adjustment to the demands of the job	
Dissatisfaction with job	
Conflict with supervisor	
Disruptive relationships with peers	
Tardiness	
Misuse of sick leave	
Early retirement	
Retirement	
Any other problems: (please specify)	

3. Is it possible to indicate which of the listed problems are dealt on an individual and family, group and community level respectively?
4. Please indicate, if possible, whether a greater incidence than usual of any problem occurs in any particular group of employees (e.g. young workers, Black workers, workers on verge of retirement, immigrants, etc.)
5. Please give the following types of referral a ranking based on the incidence by which which they occur.

	Order
Self-referral	
Referral by supervisor	
Referral by co-workers	
Referral by family members	
Referral by management	
Referral by family doctor	
Referral by welfare agency	
Referral by trade unions	
Other (specify):	

D. THE TASKS OF THE INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORKER

1. Rank the following categories of tasks in order of importance:

	Order
Tasks directly related to helping troubled employees with personal and family problems	
Tasks related to working with the community of employees as a whole and the outside community	
Tasks related to establishing and promoting your position and role as social worker in your organization	
Social work administration	
Non-social work, general administration	
Research	

2. Please rank the tasks in each of the following categories in order of frequency:

(a) Tasks directly related to helping troubled employees with personal and family problems:

	Order
Identification of personal problems of employees	
Counselling employees with problems on an individual basis	
Counselling people with problems within a group context	
Communication with welfare agencies on behalf of employees	
Dealing with families of clients in connection with problems of worker	
Interviewing supervisors on behalf of clients	
Communicating with other staff members, e.g. personnel people, doctors and nurses, in connection with employees	
Referring clients to outside agencies	
Other tasks	

(b) Tasks related to working with the community of employees as a whole and the outside community:

	Order
Identification of specific needs of the community as a whole	
Identification of special groups with special needs (e.g. immigrants, young workers, retirees, etc.)	
Interpreting to management the effect of some company policies and working conditions on the worker	
Educating supervisors about the meaning of human needs and problems	
Prevention of problems through educational programmes	
Interpreting your role to outside welfare agencies	
Identification and liaison with community resources which can be brought to bear on the problems of employees	
Interpreting the community to the organization and the organization to the community	
Any other tasks	

(c) Tasks related to establishing and promoting your position and role as social worker in your organization:

	Order
Interpreting your role to managers, supervisors and other staff members	
Interpreting your role to the employee	
Interpreting your role to the trade union	
Interpreting your role to welfare agencies and the rest of the community	
Other tasks	

(d) Social work administration

	Order
Record-keeping	
Writing monthly and annual reports	
Serving on specialist committees	
Planning and organizing your work	
Writing letters to and on behalf of clients	
Keeping statistics	
Reviewing your work	
Other	

(e) Non-social work, general administration

	Order
Administration of fringe benefits	

(f) Research

	Order
Establishing a need for a service	
Evaluation of existing services	
Assessment of the relevance of applied social work processes	
Exploration of skills and methods necessary to deal with human problems in industry	
Investigation of effect of working conditions on employees	

Percentage of time spent on research	
--------------------------------------	--

E. ORGANIZATIONAL ASPECTS:

1. In what section of the organization are you based?
.....
2. To whom are you accountable?
3. Do you get the necessary co-operation from your non-social work colleagues?
4. Any problems experienced in this regard?
5. What seems to be the main objective of social work in your organization?
.....
6. What were the main reasons for appointing a social worker(s) in your organization?
7. For how long have social work services existed in your organization?
.....

F. PROFESSIONAL AND TRAINING ASPECTS:

1. Do you belong to any professional social work association?

Yes	No
-----	----

Please motivate your response:
2. Do you support the idea of a separate independent society for industrial social work?

Totally	Partially	Not at all
---------	-----------	------------

Please motivate your response:

3. Do you feel that as an industrial social worker you are isolated from the main stream of conventional social work?

Totally	Partially	Not at all	Uncertain
---------	-----------	------------	-----------

Please motivate your answer:

.....

.....

.....

.....

4. Do you feel isolated from other industrial social workers?

Totally	Partially	Not at all	Uncertain
---------	-----------	------------	-----------

Please motivate your answer:

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.....

.....

5. Please rate, in order of importance, the following reasons for accepting your job:

	Rating
Dissatisfaction with conventional social work	
A need to be of assistance to the industrial worker	
The perceived status of the job of industrial social worker	
Financial reasons	
Interest in a career in an industrial setting	
Any other reason (specify):	

6. Are you satisfied that industrial social work is in keeping with social work purposes, principles and values?

Always	Sometimes	Never	Uncertain
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Please motivate your answer:

.....

.....

7. Should industrial social workers receive specialized training?

Yes	No	Uncertain
-----	----	-----------

Please motivate your answer:

8. Should training be on

(Mark the appropriate option)

undergraduate level	
post-graduate level	
both levels	

9. Apart from social work, which of the following areas (in order of importance) should the industrial social worker be familiar with?

	Order
Organizational theories	
Business administration	
Management	
Industrial sociology	
Industrial psychology	
Industrial relations	
Personnel management	
Other (specify):	

10. Would you attend regular workshops on industrial social work?

Never	Sometimes	Always
-------	-----------	--------

(Mark the appropriate response).

G. CONTACT WITH OUTSIDE AGENCIES (Please mark appropriate response with an "X")

1. If you make use of outside agencies, how often does this happen?

Weekly	Monthly	Yearly	Do not use them
--------	---------	--------	-----------------

2. Do you find this contact useful?

Often	Seldom	Never	N/A
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Please motivate your answer:

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3. Do you get the necessary co-operation of outside agencies?

Always	Sometimes	Never
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Please motivate your answer:

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4. To what extent do you feel that your role is accepted by outside agencies?

Totally	Partially	Not at all	Uncertain
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Please motivate your answer:

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THE END

INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ORGANISATIONS NOT EMPLOYING SOCIAL WORKERS

1. Name and address of company:

Response no.

For office use

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01 - 03

04

2. Number of employees:

1	2	3	4	5
0 - 5000	5001-10000	10001-1500	15001-20000	20000 +

05

4. In your opinion, should industry accept responsibility for the personal and social welfare of their employees?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Uncertain

06

If "yes", which of the following would you regard as the main reason for your answer? Mark only one please.

It will lead to better execution of social responsibility.	1
It will lead to improved industrial/labour relations	2
It will lead to more and improved personal guidance to the worker	3
It will help prevent problems from interfering with productivity	4
It will be supportive to outside agencies	5
It has moral responsibility to the workforce	6
Any other reasons(specify)	7

07

If "no", indicate below which statement best reflects your opinion. Mark only one please.

It is in contrast with the profit goal	1
It is the responsibility of outside agencies	2
It will not be cost effective	3
Stigma attached to the service	4
Other (Please specify)	5

08

5. Does your company accept responsibility for dealing with personal and family problems of employees?

1 2

Yes	No
-----	----

09

If "yes", indicate the staff member who handles most of the personal and family problems of employees. Mark only one please.

Welfare officer	1	Company doctor	4
Line manager	2	Occupational welfare nurse	5
Personnel officer	3	Industrial psychologist	6
Other (please specify)			7

10

If "no", which one of the following would be the most appropriate to accept such responsibility? Mark one.

Employee himself	1
Church	2
Family	3
Outside welfare agencies	4
Other (please specify)	5

11

6. If your answer to question 5 was "yes", please indicate the methods most often used to deal with employee problems.

Discussion and counselling	1
Home visits	2
Disciplinary action	3
Referral to outside sources of help	4
Loans and advances on salary	5
Other methods. Please specify.	6

	12
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7. Are you planning to appoint a social worker?

1	2
Yes	No

	18
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If "no", please indicate the most important reasons for your decision.

Present economic climate	1
Have staff with social work qualifications	2
Have welfare officers	3
Problems are dealt with effectively by present staff	4
Present procedures have proved to be effective	5
Social work services not responsibility of company	6
Workforce does not need a professional helping person	7
Other reasons. Please specify:	8

	19
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	23
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	26

8. Are you aware of other industries employing social workers?

1	2
Yes	No

 27

9. Does this affect your attitude regarding employing a social worker?

1	2
Yes	No

 28

10. Are you aware of the role(s) a social worker can play in industry?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Uncertain

 29

If "yes", which of the following tasks would you regard as appropriate responsibilities for such a person?

The eliminating of domestic problems of employees	
Prevention of problems affecting productivity	
Professional handling of social and emotional problems of employees	
Help with the execution of social responsibility programs.	
Early detection of social and emotional problems of employees	
Other. Please specify:	

 30 31 32 33 34 35

11. Should an outside welfare organisation allocate one or more social workers specifically to render service to industry, would you use such a facility?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Uncertain

 36

12. Textbooks and research on the topic indicate that the most appropriate place for the social worker in industry would be in the personnel/industrial relations division. If this is assumed to be correct, in which of the following personnel management activities would you see a role for the social worker?

Manpower planning	1
Recruiting	2
Screening and selection	3
Training and development	4
Improving the quality of working life	5
Evaluating employee performance	6
Maintaining emotional and physical health	7
Motivation	8
Administration of employee benefits and services	9
Industrial relations	10
Other: Please specify	11

<input type="checkbox"/>	37
<input type="checkbox"/>	38
<input type="checkbox"/>	39
<input type="checkbox"/>	40
<input type="checkbox"/>	41
<input type="checkbox"/>	42
<input type="checkbox"/>	43
<input type="checkbox"/>	44
<input type="checkbox"/>	45
<input type="checkbox"/>	46
<input type="checkbox"/>	47

13. Under which of the following auspices should social welfare services be rendered to the employee in industry? Please indicate the appropriate response.

Management	1
Trade union	2
Industrial councils	3
Welfare organisations	4
Combination of the above: Please specify	5

<input type="checkbox"/>	48
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INDUSTRIAL SOCIAL WORK

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY WELFARE ORGANISATIONS

1. Name and address of welfare organisation:

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For office use

Response no.

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01-03

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04

2. Geographical area served:

1 2 3

Rural	Urban	Both
-------	-------	------

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05

3. Type of welfare organisation:

Child and family welfare	1
Specialized: Please specify	2

--

06

4. In your opinion, are employees in industry and commerce being deprived of welfare services?

1 2 3

Yes	No	Uncertain
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07

If "yes", which one of the following is the most applicable?. Mark only one please.

Little attention is given to the personal development of worker, his life experiences, & family background	1
The person in his work role is neglected	2
Industry does not employ social workers, only outside social workers are available	3
Problems experienced by employees warrant more attention	4
Employees have problems of access to proper services	5
Other	6

--

08

If "none", mark the most relevant one from those below:
Please mark one.

Employees can make use of outside agencies	1
Industry is adequately equipped to deal their problems	2
It is not the task of industry to render welfare services	3
Other	4

09

5. Has your organisation defined employees as a specific target group with special needs?

1	2
Yes	No

10

If "yes", mark the most relevant one from the following:
Please mark one only.

The employee cannot be reached effectively through ordinary family welfare services	1
Industry needs the skills of social workers	2
Other	3

11

If "no", which of the following is most applicable:
Please mark one only.

Services are rendered to all members of the community, including the employee	1
Manpower shortage experienced by welfare organisations	2

12

6. If your organisation accepts the employee as a specific client group, briefly describe the program offered, if any:

7. In your opinion, should a social worker in industry be in a more favourable position to attend to the problems of employees than the outside social worker?

1 2 3

Yes	No	Uncertain
-----	----	-----------

 13

If "yes", please indicate the most applicable response from the following list. Please mark one only.

 14

Industrial social worker has firsthand knowledge of problems of employees	1
Industrial social work has the advantage of specialization	2
Industrial social worker has easier access to the employee	3
Industrial social worker has more direct contact with employee	4
Other: Please specify	5

If "no", which of the following would you regard as the main reason for your answer? Please mark one only.

 15

Outside social workers can render the same service to employees	1
Industrial social workers are isolated from outside resources	2
Industrial social workers have a different perspective of problems	3
Other: Please specify	4

8. Do you support the idea of social work moving into industry?

1 2 3

Yes	No	Uncertain
-----	----	-----------

 16

If "yes", please mark the most applicable response on the following list. Please mark one only.

It is part of social work's responsibility	1
The needs manifested in the workplace warrant such a move	2
It would be a natural development in the course of expansion of social work service	3
The employee is not effectively reached by "traditional social work"	4
The social worker will have better access to management	5
Preventative measures can be developed because of familiarity with the workplace	6
The advantage of closer access and greater proximity to the worker	7
Will provide more employment opportunities for social workers	8
Other: Please specify	9

17

If "no", which of the following would you regard as the main reason for your answer. Please mark one only.

Social workers do not belong in industry	1
It would not guarantee better services to the employee	2
People really needing the services of social workers would be neglected	3
Would erect barriers between industrial social worker and the rest of the social work field	4
Industrial social work is not social work	5
Other (please specify)	6

18

9. In your opinion, is social work in industry in keeping with the basic values and purposes of the profession?

1 2 3

Yes	No	Uncertain
-----	----	-----------

 19

If "yes", which of the following would you regard as the main reason for your answer. Please mark one only.

 20

Social work has universal principles applicable in all settings	1
Generic social work roles can be applied in industry	2
The main focus remains that of people	3
If industry permits, the principles should remain the same	4
Maintaining social work principles should be a prerequisite for moving into industry	5
Other: Please specify	6

If "no", please indicate the most applicable response from the following list. Please mark one only

 21

The profit motive of industry would not permit social work values to be maintained	1
Tasks assigned to social workers by industry are not social work tasks	2
Social workers are not employed as social workers by industry	3
Exploitation of workers by industry runs counter to social work values	4
Industry would use social work for its own purposes	5
Other: Please specify	6

10. Do you acknowledge industrial social work as a specialized field of practice for social work?

1 2 3

Yes	No	Uncertain
-----	----	-----------

 22

If "yes", please indicate the most applicable response from the following list. Please mark one only.

It is unique because it has a different focus	1
It is different because of its focus on the worker as a person	2
It has particular tasks and demands unique to the field	3
It is a different kind of social work	4
It has different principles, methods and techniques	5
It warrants special knowledge about industry	6

 23

If "no", please indicate the most applicable response from the following list. Please mark one only.

It represents only an extension of "traditional" social work	1
It is no longer social work	2
The same principles, techniques and methods apply	3
Other: Please specify	4

 24

If "uncertain", please state reasons.

11. Are you aware of businesses/industries employing social workers?

- (a) in your area 1

Yes	No
-----	----

 2
- (b) elsewhere in the country 1

Yes	No
-----	----

 2

	25
	26

If you answered "yes" to any of the above questions, has this ever prompted you to acquire more knowledge about this field of practice?

Yes	No
-----	----

	27
--	----

If "no", please indicate the main reason for your answer from the following list. Please mark one only.

Not sufficiently interested	1
Demands of own work does not leave enough time to enquire about this field of practice	2
Does not concern me	3
It has no relevance to my own practice	4
Other: Please specify	5

	28
	29
	30
	31
	32

12. Do you think that industrial social work practice warrants specialized academic training?

1 2 3

Yes	No	Uncertain
-----	----	-----------

	33
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If "yes", please indicate the most applicable response from the following list. Please mark one only.

Different area of practice with its own demands	1
It is a new situation for social workers	2
It is an area in its own right	3
Knowledge about worker and workplace necessary	4
Other: Please specify	5

	34
--	----

If "no", please indicate the most applicable response from the following list. Please mark one only.

Uncertain of whether it constitutes a specialized field of practice	1
Knowledge about setting could be gained from other social workers in the field	2
Knowledge could be gained through in-service training	3
Other: Please specify	4

35

If "uncertain", briefly state your reasons:

13. Should industrial social work services be rendered by:

Trade unions	1
Management	2
Industrial councils	3
Welfare organizations on a contractual basis	4
Combination of the above: Please specify them in this space	6

36

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT

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