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Some Aspects of Social Work Education in Belgium and in France

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SOME ASPECTS OF SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION
IN BELGIUM AND IN FRANCE

by

ANN PHAN THI NGOC-QUOI

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the School of Social
Work of Loyola University in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Social Work

June

1956

IN MEMORY OF MISS YVONNE PONCELET WHO GAVE ME
THE INCENTIVE TO STUDY SOCIAL WORK

and to

MY PARENTS AND ALL THOSE WHO HAVE HELPED ME
IN ANY WAY IN MY PERSONAL AND
FORMAL EDUCATION

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These persons exhibited an unusually high spirit of service and cooperation and gave generously of their valuable time.

Needless to say, none of the above mentioned persons is responsible for any shortcomings of the study itself, or for the opinions and conclusions expressed in it. The latter were arrived at independently by me after carefully weighing the facts at hand. I am conscious of the fact that, on the whole, the study reflects a foreign point of view, but it is my hope that this emphasis stems from my background and training rather than from a lack of sympathetic understanding of the Belgian and French scenes.

May, 1956
Chicago, Illinois

Ann Phan thi Ngoc-Quoi

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INTRODUCTION

In its origin social work may be as old as the human race, but formal social work education began only fifty-seven years ago. In 1898, the Charity Organization Society in New York organized a few courses for voluntary workers. This gave birth to the first American School of social work in 1904, which is today The New York School of Social Work of Columbia University. In Europe, Holland broke ground by founding the Amsterdam School of Social Work in 1899, the oldest school in the world. In Berlin in the same year, Dr. Alice Salomon organized a few courses each year for the training of social workers.¹ This movement for education spread rapidly throughout the world. After World War I, schools were founded in several countries of Europe, and in the United States of America. "In 1928 about 111 schools were ascertained by Elizabeth Macadam in seventeen countries."² The courses for voluntary workers given at the turn of the century evolved into schools of a vocational or professional character. In 1936 when Dr. Salomon attempted an international survey of education for social work sponsored by the Russell Sage Foundation,

¹M. Mulle, L'Ecole Centrale de Service Social. 1920-1945. Notice Historique (Bruxelles, Belgium, 1946), p. 4.

²Alice Salomon, Education for Social Work: A Sociological Interpretation based on an International Survey (Zurich, Switzerland, 1937), p. 1-2

there were 179 schools and sixty-three other schemes and courses covering some branch of social work in thirty-two countries.³ In the study made by the Department of Social Affairs of the United Nations in 1950, there were at least 373 educational institutions in forty-six countries.⁴ Another United Nations survey in 1954 received reports from 391 institutions in fifty countries out of 422 functioning institutions in reply to a questionnaire about social work education.⁵

TABLE I
COURSES OR SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK ESTABLISHED
IN THE WORLD FROM 1898 TO 1954

Year	Courses	Schools	Total	Countries
1898	1		1	1
1899	2	1	3	3
1928			111	17
1936	63	179	242	32
1950	29	344	373	46
1954	76	346	422	53

³Ibid.

⁴United Nations Department of Social Affairs, Training for Social Work: An International Survey, U. N. Publications: 1950. IV.2 (New York, September 1950) p. 18.

⁵Training for Social Work: Second International Survey, U. N. Publications: 1955. IV.9 (New York, 1955), p. 2.

Systematized social welfare is a new field and social work is a new profession. In order to understand social work education, we must first know what social work means. In 1950 when the Department of Social Affairs of the United Nations attempted to make an international survey of training for social work, thirty-three countries gave definitions of social work which could be classified as follows:

1. "Social work as individual charity," concerned solely with the relief of destitution. This is found in countries in which no organized social work activity has as yet emerged.
2. "Social work as organized activity, under governmental and non-governmental auspices, directed towards the solution of problems associated with economic dependency." Here social work is "a systematic method of providing support and/or rehabilitation of economically dependent groups, that is the unemployed, the sick, the aged, the handicapped, the mentally ill, widows and dependent children . . . " This is an activity primarily concerned with economic failure, takes many different forms and is carried out under various auspices, both public and private.
3. "Social work as professional service, under governmental and non-governmental auspices, potentially available to every member of the community, irrespective of his means,

to assist him in achieving his full potentialities for productive and satisfying living." This is a further step where the frontiers of social work are beyond the provision of assistance to economically dependent groups. Here the country engages in broad social planning for the prevention of economic insecurity and for the promotion of social well-being. As such, it may be made available to any individual, in any walk of life, with emotional or environmental problems that interfere with a normal productive life. Here also, social work is accepted as a profession by other older disciplines such as law, medicine, teaching.⁶ If social work is considered as a "new profession", it requires of its practitioners a vocation and training, skill and a body of knowledge which the schools of social work are capable of helping the students to acquire. Social work education varies in degree and in form from one country to another according to the socio-economic, political, religious background and needs of each individual country.

Since this study deals with some aspects of social work education in Belgium and in France, it is interesting to know how each country studied

⁶Training for Social Work: An International Survey, pp. 3-13.

defined social work at the time the international survey was made. In an announcement of a Belgian school, it was defined as:

Any effort having the purpose of relieving the sufferings caused by misery; replacing individuals or families in the normal conditions of living; preventing social plagues, improving the social conditions and raising the standard of living by individualized services, or by collective services, or by social and administrative action, or by social investigation and inquiries. It covers not only assistance, insurance, and social action, but also to a certain degree hygiene and education.⁷

In 1954, the same school declared that social service was "an ensemble of means used to help individuals or groups to overcome certain difficulties caused by illnesses, unemployment, financial difficulty, family problems, or psychological disturbances. A client is any individual who is facing one of these problems and cannot solve it by himself."⁸

In France, social work consisted of:

1. The protection of health and social welfare of the population.
2. The work of educating the population in all subjects conducive to its physical and moral well-being and its advance along the road of progress.
3. Material and moral assistance to the economically underprivileged and the rehabilitation of the asocial: migrants, persons physically and morally handicapped, criminals, etc.
4. Legislation and the action of the public authorities in such wider areas as housing, rural organization.⁹

⁷Announcement, Ecole Provinciale de Service Social (Liege, Belgium, 1947-51), p. 5.

⁸Announcement, Ecole Provinciale de Service Social (1954), p. 1.

⁹Training for Social Work: An International Survey, p. 107. (Definition submitted by the French Committee of Social Service, a coordinating agency which carries responsibility for, *inter alia*, collaboration with international organizations on all matters pertaining to French social work.)

In view of the national social needs of Belgium and France, this study tries to evaluate some aspects of social work education in these two countries with an emphasis on curriculum, and how each country studied trains its welfare personnel to meet these needs. It must answer certain basic questions that may be grouped into the following broad topics:

1. What brought about the establishment of the schools of social work in each country studied? What have the schools achieved? Have there been any changes in the training of social workers? What are the focuses and trends of social work education? Are the schools influenced by foreign findings and methods of social work? Where is social work education classified in the total educational program of the country?

2. What are the requirements for admission into a school of social work? How long is the training, and what subjects are required? What kind of practical experiences are offered or required? Is there any supervision in field work? Is the training generic or specialized? This is the cornerstone of any understanding of the role of a prospective social worker in the life of a country.

3. What are the conditions to become a social worker? Is there any advanced study? If so, for what and in what field? With this education what are the possible positions for a newly trained social worker? Is there any legislation related to social workers and social work?

4. After studying the above points, we must look for the character-

istics of each system, and why they are similar or different. Can each system contribute to education for social work in the "underdeveloped" countries?

This study is a sketchy one, since the lack of documents in English, except those international surveys mentioned, as well as the inaccessibility of Belgian and French documents presented a problem. However, material was obtained from the "Comite d'Entente des Ecoles Francaises de Service Social" in France and from some private and public schools of social work in each country. The schools which supplied material were pioneers or older schools. They are located in important cities and enroll a larger number of students than others. Furthermore, in both countries, all schools of social work are approved and regulated by the government, and must follow a minimum program; in each country all students must be approved by an official examining committee appointed by the government or pass a state examination. Thus, the schools in this study can be considered typical. Hence, in each country a public, a private and/or a sectarian school were selected in order to discover whether or not there were any marked differences between them, and what would be the focus of each type of school.

Several American social workers who have been in France under Educational Exchange Programs, and French and Belgian Social workers who have had contact with American social work education were interviewed. They

furnished valuable information and comparisons of social work in the countries studied.

This study is a limited attempt to describe, interpret, and evaluate certain aspects of social work education in two countries. It is hoped that the material presented may stimulate the interest of others to do more comparative research in the field of social welfare education.

CHAPTER II

SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION IN BELGIUM

A. BRIEF HISTORY OF SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

Wherever it exists, social work education comes into being in order to prepare people for a certain kind of work, to be done in a certain way, in certain kinds of setting. The need for social work arises from social forces or problems which call for specific knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to cope with them. The characteristics of social work education and its subsequent development are determined by the kind of social problems in each country, by the initiative and background of its founders, and their understanding of the social situation, and often by the efforts of governments. Social work education is a changing process because it must be responsive to social change and to the needs of the country. Therefore, it should be continuously adapting itself to these changes and using them, in turn, to advance its own purpose. How these purposes are defined and how social work education is carried out and adapted to the needs depends largely on the judgment and philosophy of its pioneers and directors.

In Belgium, as in many countries of Europe, schools of social work came into existence because of the urgent demand for social services during and following World War I. The complexity of the social problems caused by

the war, such as the shortage of labor which brought about the problem of working women, the problems of war invalids, of widows and orphans, and the need for assistance, rehabilitation and resettlement, made people aware both of the need for professional services, and of the inadequacy of existing volunteer and non-organized services. Growing social awareness and the opening of training courses or schools in neighboring countries and in the United States led certain people (such as the late Dr. Rene Sand, Miss Orban, Mr. Jean Pladet, and Mrs. Gustave Dersheid) to organize some "temporary courses of social service", in social questions, hygiene, assistance and education. The courses were given in Brussels from January to March, 1920. This was the cornerstone of social work education in Belgium, and represents the birth of the Central School of Social Work, now known as the State Institute of Social Studies in Brussels. At the first enrollment 196 persons registered, 136 of whom were women and 60 were men. At an examination held in May of the same year, the candidates had to present and defend a research project (rapport), dealing with some aspect of family welfare. Seventy of the candidates were awarded certificates, and many of them were placed in private or public agencies, such as agencies for the protection of children, orphanages and homes for girls.¹

The authorities showed a growing interest in this new form of teaching

¹Marie Mulle, p. 4-6.

and acknowledged its appropriateness to the need. Plans were made to make these temporary courses permanent in a school for social studies with the same but elaborated principles. A Royal Decree of October 15, 1920 created the Council of Schools of Social Work, and approved the Central School as a model for other schools of social work, which would be established later and would be also recognized and subsidized by the state. This school begun by private citizens, was officially founded by the Ministry of Justice in 1920 as a state school. The Royal Decree of May 27, 1922 returned autonomy to its founders, who declared the school non-partisan. It continued, however, to receive a special subsidy from the government and maintained a semi-official status. Until 1923 it gave day courses for regular students and evening courses for working people who understood the importance of these courses.² In September 1948, this school was once more taken over by the government, this time by the Ministry of Public Instruction and renamed the State Institute of Social Studies, and became fully tax-supported.³

The Royal Decree of October 15, 1920 required that the course of study should cover a period of two years, and that the students should spend at least six months for practical work in the second year. It also established the

²Ibid., p. 9.

³Programme, Institut d'Etudes Sociales de l'Etat, Ecole Technique Supérieure (A.1), (Brussels, 1953-1954), p. 5.

requirements for obtaining the social service diploma which was to be granted after an examination by a central board, appointed by royal decree, and named for each session. The board would be composed of representatives from government departments and from schools of social service.⁴

The decree of October 15, 1920 led many private groups already active in the general field of social action either to adapt their schools to the official requirements or to create new schools which would be eligible for public funds.

Belgium was and is a dominantly active Catholic country; therefore the Catholic group took over the initiative for creating schools of social service based on Christian charity and Christian social principles. In 1911-1914 and 1916-1919 the General Secretariat of Christian Women's Professional Unions of Belgium sponsored some classes on social and religious questions which were so successful that in 1920 the Secretariat opened two schools. After the Royal Decree of 1920 was announced, these two schools, founded earlier in the year, adapted their programs to the requirements of the decree, and became full-fledged schools of social work: one Flemish-speaking and one French-speaking.⁵ Both were under the sponsorship of Cardinal Mercier. This group has remained in the forefront and twelve of the twenty-one currently operating

⁴Bernice Madison, "Social Work Education in Belgium," Unpublished doctoral dissertation (University of Chicago, Chicago, 1952), p. 62.

⁵Ibid., p. 65.

schools, six Flemish-speaking and six French-speaking, were founded by different organizations within the Catholic Church.⁶ Up to 1955 all of them were subsidized by the government.

The Socialists were another important group which pioneered in social work education in Belgium. Their philosophy was fundamentally different from the non-partisan and Catholic groups. Their schools are guided by two principles:

1. that the workers' education movement must be controlled directly by the workers' organizations by and for whom it was created;
2. that workers' education must not only better equip its students in their individual struggle for existence, but it must more especially make them capable of leading the struggle for political and economic justice for the working class as a whole.⁷

They founded two schools in 1922 under the sponsorship of the Socialist Workers' Movement, whose purpose was to train militant leaders for workers' political, trade-union, and cooperative organizations.

Two other schools were opened in 1921 under the auspices of the Liberal Party and operated until 1949. This party opposed the encroachment of the Church in matters other than religious.

From 1945 to 1955, municipal, provincial, and national governments

⁶Ibid., p. 19-23.

⁷Ibid., p. 24.

opened non-partisan or non-sectarian schools for their citizens. At the present time, there are two municipal schools, two provincial, and three national schools supported by cities, provinces, or the national government.⁸

Until 1955 when the government decided to reduce subsidies all of the private schools of social work were subsidized by the government. As yet unresolved, a decision to reduce governmental support would have serious consequences for the private schools which comprised two-thirds of the total number of Belgian schools of social work.

TABLE II

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK ACCORDING
TO FOUNDING BODIES AND LANGUAGES

Founding Body	French	Flemish
National Government	2	1
Provincial Governments	2	
Municipal Governments		2
Catholic	6	6
Socialist	1	1
Liberal ⁹	1	1

⁸According to a list of Belgian Schools of Social Work furnished by the State Institute of Social Studies, Brussels.

⁹Schools closed in 1949.

In 1955, Belgium with a population of 8,798,055 people, over one-half of whom were Flemish and the remaining were Walloons,¹⁰ had twenty-one functioning schools of social work, and two post-graduate schools to train social workers for the Belgian Congo. This meant that there was a school of social work for every 418,955 inhabitants.

One reason for the large number of schools is that the country is bilingual. In fact several Flemish and French schools are under the same auspices, the same roof, and the same regulations, but have different administration and use different languages. Hence enrollment in the schools has been relatively small. The second international survey conducted by the United Nations showed that fourteen schools graduated less than 20 students, five schools graduated between 20 and 25 students, and only one school graduated 50 students.¹¹ The average number of graduates was 17 or 18 per year per school. A large percentage of graduates and student bodies were men, since some schools trained men exclusively, others were co-educational, and some schools were exclusively for women. This bilingual situation in education for social work as in any aspects of Belgian life is a result of a long

¹⁰Information given by the Belgian Consulate General, Chicago, on December 12, 1955.

¹¹U. N. Dept. of Social Affairs, International Directory of Schools of Social Work, U. N. Publications: 1955, IV.2 (New York, December 1954), pp. 10-17.

struggle, because for a long time Flemish was denied the status of an officially recognized national language which it enjoys now; therefore now each group jealously guards its prerogative to speak and preserve its own language with the accompanying tendency to a doubling of social institutions, including schools, along language lines. At the present time there are 10 Flemish schools and 11 French schools, although Flemish population is slightly higher. This might be because the Flemish were more cautious of new ideas, and social work was a new field. But the Flemish are trying to catch up because the two relatively new municipal schools are Flemish.

Another factor is that social work in Belgium embraces many aspects which in other countries belong to other fields, such as adult education, library work, and social work in industry, as is fully developed later in this study.

From their beginning until 1933, the schools of social service were under the control of the Ministry of Justice. In 1933, as full-time schools, they came under the newly-established Bureau of Technical Education of the Ministry of Public Instruction.¹² The schools of social work were then classed among "Secondary Technical Schools" (Ecoles Techniques Secondaires) such as nursing schools or schools for primary teachers. The Royal Organic Decree of February 28, 1952 classified the schools of social work among the

¹²Mulle, p. 7.

"Higher Technical Schools" (Ecoles Techniques Superieures) on the same level as Higher Normal Schools which train teachers for secondary schools. Both the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Public Instruction were provided specific and well-defined roles in the schools. The former was to exercise the scientific and pedagogical control while the complete administrative control rested with the latter, which also financed the national government schools.¹³ This Royal Organic Decree also revised the training program;¹⁴ while another of the same date established a "Conseil Superieur de l'Enseignement du Service Social", composed of representatives of governmental and non-governmental schools, and of governmental and voluntary social agencies; each group representing one-fourth of the total membership. This council is a consultative body in the service of the Minister of Justice in all matters related to teaching and practice of social work.¹⁵

B. REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION

The Royal Decree of 1952 required that in order to be admitted to a

¹³ 28 Fevrier 1952, Arrete Royal Organique de l'Enseignement du Service Sodial. Ch. II, art. 5; ch. VI, art. 33. (Extrait du Moniteur Belge du 7 Mars 1952).

¹⁴ Ibid., ch. II, art. 6.

¹⁵ 28 Fevrier 1952, Arrete Royal Portant Creation d'un Conseil Superieur de l'Enseignement du Service Social. Art. 1, 2, 3. (Extrait du Moniteur Belge du 7 Mars 1952).

school of social work with a view to obtaining the Diploma of Certified Social Worker, a student must hold either a certificate of ancient or modern humanities, which represents twelve years of study in Belgium (or the completion of junior college in the United States), or a diploma from a Normal School, or a certificate from an Agriculture Technical School, approved or organized by the Ministries of Justice or Public Instruction. Those who do not meet these requirements must pass an entrance examination prepared by the Ministry of Justice. In order to take this examination, the candidate must be at least 18 years of age,¹⁶ and present a certificate of good health. The schools provide also a preparatory section of a school-year period for those students who are under age or those who have not the educational background required, to prepare them for the entrance examination. Those candidates who are apparently qualified are admitted conditionally. At the end of the first three months of study the schools are required to give a maturity test and an eliminatory examination to determine whether the students have the necessary intellectual capacity and social awareness to profit from social work training.

C. TRAINING

The whole Belgian system of education including social work education is regulated by royal laws and decrees. Thus its academic training is stand-

¹⁶Arrete Royal Organique du 28 Fevrier 1952, Art. 7.

ardized although its basic philosophy can be very different. All schools must be founded or approved by the government, and are financed or subsidized by it. In turn the schools must follow a minimum program set up by royal decree. The central government retains the privilege of granting the degrees or diplomas and appoints boards to conduct necessary examinations.

1. Theoretical Training.

The decree of October 15, 1920 provided a two-year course, but another decree of April 15, 1929 expanded the training of social workers to three years, increased the period of "stage" or field work to fourteen months, and shifted the research project to the end of the third year.¹⁷ The Royal Organic Decree of February, 1952 specified that approximately 750 hours in the first year, 450 hours in the second year, and 80 hours in the third year be spent in classroom courses, practical work¹⁸, and visits to social agencies.¹⁹ In addition the schools have availed themselves of the right to require supplementary work of their students. These are non-official classroom courses which the schools thought essential to the training of their students and they supplement the official program. Although considered elective by the schools vis-a-vis of the government, they are compulsory to students of

¹⁷Mulle, p. 7.

¹⁸Practical work means seminars, study circles or lectures.

¹⁹Arrete Royal Organique du 28 Fevrier 1952.

individual schools. At the Catholic School of Social Service in Brussels, the elective courses were: Religion, Bible, History of the Church, Economic Problems and Social Doctrine of the Church, Recreation, Techniques of the Home Visit, etc., while the State Institute of Social Studies in Brussels offered: Penitentiary Anthropology, Child Care, Techniques and Methods of Active Education.

Students generally have had little or no preparation in the social sciences before entering the school of social work, due to the liberal program of secondary education. The schools, therefore, have concentrated on social sciences in the first year. The generic program included the subjects covering scientific knowledge relative to man and to society, technical knowledge specific to social work, and an initiation into the spirit and the ideals of social service.²⁰

²⁰Aimee Racine, "Le Cycle d'Etudes Sociales Europeen des Nations Unies a Paris", Le Service Social (May-June, 1950), p. 152.

TABLE III
SUBJECTS STUDIED IN THE FIRST YEAR²¹

Subjects	Hours per year
1. COURSES	
Introduction to Philosophy	30
Social or Moral Philosophy	30
Psychology	45
Elements of Biology	15
Elements of Anatomy and Physiology	15
Individual and Collective Hygiene	15
Social Medicine	15
Introduction to Law - Civil Law	45
Constitutional Law - Administrative Law	30
Contemporary Economic, Political and Social History	30
Human and Economic Geography of Belgium	15
Elements of Sociology	30
Political Economy	45
Introduction to Social Service and History of Assistance	15
Statistics and Demography	15
Administrative Techniques of Office Work and Bookkeeping	30
General Elements of Organization of Public and Private Agencies	30
Elective Courses	90
2. STUDY CIRCLES AND SEMINARS	120
3. VISITS (to social and allied agencies, institutions, factories, schools)	90
Total	750

²¹Programme minimum impose. Institut des Etudes Sociales de l'Etat. Bruxelles, 1954-1955, p. 1. (Typed.)

The Belgian schools do not use the credit-hour system, but require a certain amount of time per subject within the year. The credit system was unknown. The schools offer some classes weekly, and others twice a week, or bi-weekly depending upon the importance of the subjects. For this reason they may seem to have a great number of courses. The contents of these courses are of college (in American terms) and most of them would be prerequisites for a student who applies to an American school of social work. The official minimum program is 750 hours per year, but most of the Belgian schools require more courses than the official program, or spend more time on some courses. At the State Institute of Social Studies in Brussels, the program of 1954-1955 required 848 hours for the first year, while the Catholic School of Social Service in Brussels required 798 hours. The students spent approximately twenty-five to twenty-eight hours a week in classroom work. The school year for most schools is eight to nine months, with the exception of a few, which have ten or ten and a half months.²²

In the second year, the student chooses one of the five specializations:

1. Child Welfare, Assistance, Social Insurance
2. Social and Economic Questions or Social Welfare in Industry
3. Popular or Adult Education
4. Rural Welfare
5. Library Education

²²International Directory of Schools of Social Work, pp. 10-17.

Courses are divided in two parts, one is compulsory for all students, and the other is related to the chosen specialization. None of the schools offers all five specializations, but most offer two or three of them. The students spend half-time in class work and half-time in block field work of a general character.

TABLE IV

REQUIRED SUBJECTS COMMON TO ALL SPECIALIZATIONS
IN THE SECOND YEAR²³

Subjects	Hours per year
Social Legislation:	
1. Labor Legislation	30
2. Social Insurance, Pensions, Credit Unions	25
Penal Law	15
Social Economy	30
Special Problems in Sociology, Methods of Investigation and Sociological Research	30
Social Psychology	15
Developmental Psychology	15
Differential Psychology	15
Professional Techniques of Social Service:	
1. Clinical Psychology	15
2. Individual Contact in Social Service	15
3. Introduction to Social Casework	15
4. Introduction to Social Groupwork	15
Deontology	15
Child Care, Hygiene for Mother, Infant and Adolescent	15
Vocational Guidance, Selection and Re-adaptation	15
Social Aspects of Housing	15
Administration Applied to Social Agencies	15
Elective Courses	<u>90</u>
Total	400

²³Catholic School of Social Service. Brussels, 1953-1954. p. 1.
(Mimeographed)

TABLE V

REQUIRED SUBJECTS IN CHILD WELFARE -- PUBLIC ASSISTANCE -- SOCIAL INSURANCE²⁴

Subjects	Hours per year
Laws on Protection of Children, of Family, and of Public Morality	15
School Laws and System of Education.	15
Psychopatology and Mental Hygiene of Children and Adults.	30
Casework	15
Statute, Structure and Operation of Assistance Agencies and Insurance Societies	<u>30</u>
Total	105

²⁴Programme minimum impose, p. 3.

TABLE VI

REQUIRED SUBJECTS IN SOCIAL WELFARE IN INDUSTRY²⁵

Subjects	Hours per year
Business Management	15
Socio-Industrial Problems:	
1. Elements of Industrial Psychology	15
2. Industrial Problems	15
3. Industrial Social Work	15
Psychopathology and Industrial Hygiene	15
Social Security and Employment Security	15
Industrial Technology	5
Statutes, Structure and Operation of Professional Organizations and of Assistance Agencies in Service of Labor	<u>30</u>
Total	125

²⁵Ibid.

TABLE VII
 REQUIRED SUBJECTS IN ADULT EDUCATION²⁶

Subjects	Hours per year
Sociological and Philosophical Aspects of Adult Education	15
Laws and Regulations in Teaching	10
Psychology of Social Classes:	
1. Working	9
2. Rural	3
3. Middle	3
Elements of Pedagogy	15
Social Service with Groups: Youth, Workers	15
Techniques of Adult Education Media:	
1. Press	5
2. Movie	5
3. Radio, Television	5
4. Theatre	5
5. Songs, Plays, Sports	10
6. Music, Folklore, Puppets	4
7. Tourism	3
8. Introduction to Art	20
9. Miscellaneous	2
Statutes and Structure of Institutions	8
1. Recreational	10
2. Educational	6
3. Boarding	6
Total	159

²⁶Ecole Catholique de Service Social. Section Education Populaire.
 Brussels, 1953-1954, p. 2. (Mimeographed)

Most of the schools offered specializations in Child Welfare--Assistance and Social Welfare in Industry, and many offered also specialization in Adult Education which included also few courses in Library Science. Only a few schools had specializations in Rural Welfare and Library Work, which comprised also some courses in Adult Education. In many instances, Adult Education and Library Work were interchangeable with an emphasis on this one or the other.

The required subjects in Rural Welfare are: ²⁷

- Rural Law²⁸
- Rural Psychology
- Social Problems in Rural Area
- Agrarian Technology
- Rural Institutions and Agencies
- Agrarian Technology

The required subjects for Library Education²⁹ are:

- Library Science:
 - History of Libraries
 - Classification and Cataloguing
 - Organizational Technique of the Library
 - Initiation to Editing and to Sale of Books
 - Administrative and Industrial Archives
- Library Administration:
 - Furnishings, etc.
 - Manner of Expansion
 - Loan Service
 - Reference Service

²⁷Ecole Social de Namur, Namur (Belgium), p. 8.

²⁸Number of hours per subject per year not given.

²⁹Training for Social Work, an International Survey, p. 131.

History of Literature
 Legislation Concerning Libraries
 Special Libraries for Children, Adolescents, the
 Sick, the Blind, Prisoners
 Technique and Art of the Book
 Technique and Documentation
 Selection of Books
 Influence of the Librarian on the Readers

Besides these required courses, common to all or specialized, the second year students have had at least 90 hours of study circles and seminars, and 20 visits or field trips to social agencies or institutions. The official minimum program required 450 hours be spent in classroom work during the second year, but most of the schools required more than the official program. In 1954-1955, the State Institute of Social Studies program required 460 hours in class work and practical work, whereas the Catholic School of Social Service provided 585 to 600 hours of class work depending on specialization plus practical work.

Until 1955, most schools dedicated the third year to field work and the preparation of a research project; however the Royal Organic Decree of February 28, 1952 required that the third year program should include at least 80 hours of class work. The State Institute of Social Studies in Brussels proposed the following program for the school-year 1955-1956:³⁰

³⁰Programme minimum impose, p. 5.

TABLE VIII
SUBJECTS STUDIED IN THIRD YEAR

Subjects	Hours per year
A. Required for all Sections	
Seminars on Methods of Investigation and Case Studies	18
Discussions of Research Projects prepared by Students	12
Miscellaneous.	<u>24</u>
Total	54
B. Specialization in Child Welfare and Public Assistance:	
Seminar in Casework	18
C. Specialization in Social Welfare in Industry:	
Seminar in Study of Industrial Relations and the Sociology of Labor.	<u>18</u>
Total	36

In summary, the theoretical training for social work in Belgium was heavy and extensive. One school said:

The courses were to answer to this two-fold demand:

1. To give a general intellectual and cultural training to the students.
2. To help them to understand the events of their time. This could be realized through courses in history, law, economic geography, social and political economics, sociology and psychology.

The field work and the visits were not only to help the students get acquainted with the problems of their future occupation, but also with life in general.

The seminars and study circles were to help them to observe, to think, to understand, to express themselves, to have insight of their behavior and of others', either individual or collective.³¹

Field Work and Supervision

The training for social work consisted of the largely theoretical study of social sciences in the first year, methodology and some practice in the second year, and field work including research project in the third year.

The decree of February 28, 1952 required that the second year student must have five months of field work, and nine months in the third year. Each student was equipped with a "carnet de stage" a notebook of field work, the model and content of which were determined by the Ministry of Justice.³² No specific mention of field work was made for the preparatory year and the first year.

³¹Letter received from "Ecole Provinciale de Service Social, Grivegnée, Liege (Belgium)", dated February 17, 1955, p. 4.

³²Royal Organic Decree, February 28, 1952, ch. III, art. 12.

Official regulations also required that prior to the second year examination, usually held in May or June, the student must have had at least four months of field work. In order to fulfill this requirement, most of the schools encouraged their students to start their field work after their first year of study, during summer vacation, as a counselor in a vacation colony for children, or vacation camp for adults. In contrast with the great detail and precision with which the official program regulated classroom courses, its directives regarding field work were quite general. The field work was performed generally in the following agencies or institutions.

a. Child-Welfare and Assistance: private and public institutions and agencies dealing with children and assistance. This was to be accompanied by investigations and home visits.

b. Social Welfare in Industry: in large department stores, factories, trade-unions, cooperatives, and mutual-aid societies concerned with social insurance and job placement. If the students wanted to work later with the department stores, they had to work as a saleslady or salesman for three months; if they wanted to go into the trade-unions or labor movements, they had to work in a factory as a worker on the job for at least three months in order to understand labor problems. They also made home visits and investigations of workers who were sick.

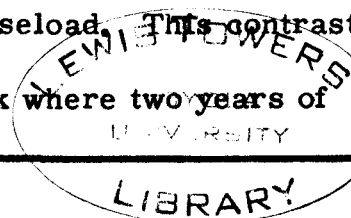
c. Adult Education: in social institutions, vocational guidance offices, playgrounds, and youth movements.

d. Rural Welfare: this specialization was new and no regulations had been worked out as yet.

e. Library Education: particularly in public libraries and in those designed especially for children, or for special groups such as the sick, the blind and prisoners.

During the second year the students spent four to six months in field work, a month in each agency so that they could have a better idea of social agencies. During this time, they were not assigned to cases nor did they do any social treatment, but rather acted as administrative clerks, observers, or assistant to the social workers. At times they worked as receptionists in social agencies.

In the third year, the students spent eight to ten months in block field work, either in one or two or more agencies depending upon the individual student and the agencies. Field work was not carried concurrently with classroom work; therefore the question of integration of theory and practice was questionable. Another factor was that the students' knowledge of theory in social work was limited, their status in placement was varied; the schools made no specific demands upon their practice; field work, therefore, depended merely upon the available help given by agencies and the students' initiative and ability to grasp it. The students tended to learn how existing agencies operated rather than how to apply theory to a given caseload. This contrasted with field work as understood in American social work where two years of



closely supervised field work are taken concurrently with classroom study so that students can integrate theory into practice as they go along.

Supervision is the link between theory and practice, a teaching method by which the supervisor helps the students to put into practice what they learn in the classroom, and to assure that the services given by the agency through the students are carried in a proper way. Supervision in this sense in Belgium was not available. Field work provided an experience of operating agencies or institutions: it did not develop skills in practice. Supervision, therefore, had another meaning and was neither frequent nor regular.

From the standpoint of the school the supervision of the students was handled by the monitors who were at the same time faculty members and social workers. The students in each year had a monitor, and maybe two in the third year. The monitor's role was twofold: (1) in collaboration with the faculty to help the students to adapt themselves to school requirements, to orient them in their choice of the specialization, to help them in their field work and in the writing of their research. (2) As a faculty member, the monitor was to help in organizing courses, lectures, visits, study circles, seminars and field work.³³ Thus the monitor played the role of an adviser-supervisor in American schools of social work. In general, the students had a very distant relationship with their monitor. They might consult him or her

³³Information in a letter from Ecole Provinciale de Service Social.

once or twice in the first year if they had questions. In the second year, contacts were also minimal unless the students had serious problems in their study or field work. The contacts were more frequent in the third year due to the writing of the research.³⁴

From the agency standpoint, there was never a faculty member assigned to supervise the students either full-time or part-time. In the agency, very often the student was not assigned to anybody, because no one had the time to supervise him (it was practice to place only one student in an agency), so he more or less shifted for himself. In almost all cases, if the student was assigned to a particular "supervisor", the quality of supervision was a matter of chance. There were no scheduled conferences between supervisor and student. The school had little control over field work placement and had nothing to say about the selection of the person, if there was one, who would be in charge of the student during the placement, neither could the school demand a certain level of supervision. In the past two years, however, great efforts have been made by the schools to obtain an "active" collaboration between the executive directors or supervisors of social agencies and the school in the practical training of the students. This was done by sending questionnaires, by individual contacts between monitors, directors of schools, and the

³⁴Information from a personal interview with a Belgian social worker in Adult Education, a graduate of the French School of Social Service in Brussels (name withheld).

supervisors of field work, by meetings of the supervisors and finally by the training of supervisors in social agencies.³⁵ All schools asked the agencies in which students were placed to send in at the end of the placement a brief report on the student's performance, but many school directors felt that these were usually too superficial and non-revealing to be of real value, because many agencies and institutions filled out the report in a routine way, with no attempt at significant or individualized evaluation, and that often the judgments were subjective and biased.³⁶ This often placed the schools in no position to know the liabilities and assets of their students.

From the student standpoint, he had varied experiences in field work, but he did not have specific expectations from either field work or supervision. As stated earlier, supervision was not a regular and continuous learning and teaching process, nor guidance in practical training. Therefore, the use of supervision in field work was an individual matter. The student, however, was obliged to write a brief report at the completion of a field work placement. This report dealt with the agency and its services, personal observations, indicated the classroom courses that had been helpful in field work, and sometimes called attention to the weaknesses and lack of classroom program as related to practical training. These reports were then discussed in study

³⁵Letter from Ecole Provinciale de Service Social.

³⁶Mulle, pp. 23-24.

circles, or sometimes individually with the monitors. Between reports, the students were encouraged to write to schools whenever they experienced difficulties or problems, and the schools tried to answer promptly. But if the students did not write, very little was known of the daily problems the student might face or the manner in which they met them.³⁷

The students were also asked to make a report of official visits to agencies and institutions during the first and second year. These descriptive and rather superficial reports were discussed in study circles and were designed to train the students' observation of the operation of these agencies, their awareness of social problems, and also to develop personal thinking in a given situation.

In summary, it may be said that in field work the students did not carry the direct responsibility for cases as social work students in the United States, and at no time did they work under the type of individual supervision that prevails in American social work. The Belgian students observed many agencies for comparatively short periods of time, often received a general, and superficial supervision, and for the most part confined their practice to the agency routines. The outstanding features in field work might be the students' evaluation and criticism in their reports at the completion of each placement; thus this helped to sharpen their thinking and observation.

³⁷Madison, p. 210.

III. Requirements for the Official Diploma of Social Worker

In order to obtain the official diploma of a social worker, the candidate:

- a. must be registered in an approved school;
- b. must have attended regularly the three or four years of study;
- c. must have passed successfully the examination at the end of each year;
- d. must have accomplished the required field works;
- e. must have written and defended an individual research on social observation at the end of the third or fourth year, before a central board of examiners.³⁸

At the end of the first year of study, there was an oral examination held before a Board of Examiners consisting of faculty members and a delegate from the Higher Council of Social Work Education of the Ministry of Justice. The examination was to test the students on the courses officially required during the first year of study. Students were examined on each of the large divisions of the program, and in order to pass, had to obtain at least 60 per cent of the maximum grade, and not less than 50 per cent in each division.³⁹

The second year examination was another oral examination held before a central board named by the Ministry of Justice among the panels proposed by the schools. It was presided over by a member of the Higher Council of Social Work Education. The students were examined on the theoretical sub-

³⁸Letter from Ecole Provinciale de Service Social, Liege.

³⁹Arrete Royal Organique du 28 Fevrier 1952, Ch. IV, art. 18.

jects in the second year and on their field work. The requirements for the passing grade was the same as in the first year examination.

The final examination which took place in Brussels in September was held before a central board named by the Ministry of Justice. The examination consisted of two parts: (1) Evaluation of the student's research by two members of the board who made available their evaluation in the form of a memorandum to the members of the board. (2) Any members of the board could ask questions about the research and the student's field work. The board then took into account both the written and oral parts of the examination. Depending upon its judgment, the student was granted the official diploma of a social worker or was refused the degree. The student was graded with "Satisfaction", "Distinction", "High Distinction", or "Highest Distinction", depending upon his average grade of 60, 70, 80, 90 per cent respectively.

Non-Belgian students did not receive the official diploma but an equivalent diploma called the "Scientific Diploma of Social Worker" which allowed them to work or accept positions in private agencies or institutions only.

The title of social worker was protected by the following sections of the Law of June 13, 1945:

Art. 1. No person may employ the title of social worker who does not possess the diploma of social worker conferred in conformity with the provisions of Royal Decrees governing its award. The title of social worker is reserved for persons of either sex who hold this diploma.

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Art. 3. No individual or organization can apply the title social

worker to persons employed, whether as volunteers or on salary, save as these persons hold the diploma envisaged in the foregoing provisions.⁴⁰

D. ADVANCED STUDY

Advanced study is open to already certified social workers who might want to practice in the colony: The Belgian Congo. It requires an additional six months' training, consisting of four months of classroom work, and six weeks to two months of field work, plus visits to agencies or institutions either dealing with or carrying on research on Belgian Congo problems. Completion of this course leads to the Certificate of Aptitude for Colonial Service. At the present time, there are two schools providing opportunities for this study.⁴¹

In the fall of 1954 the Alumnae Association of the State Institute of Social Studies began a series of evening courses during the school-year 1954-1955 for its members in order to improve (perfectionner) their professional practice. These courses dealt with: Unemployment and its Evolution; Changes of Civil Law regarding the Status of Women; Enterprise and its Organization; Elements of Dynamic Psychology, Basis of Social Contact; Questions on Dynamic Psychology.⁴² Results are not yet available, yet the fact

⁴⁰Training for Social Work, an International Survey, p. 40.

⁴¹International Directory of Schools of Social Work, p. 13.

⁴²Association Centrale des Assistants Sociaux. Annee 1954-1955. Cours du Soir (Brussels)

that such courses are given reveals a marked awareness of the importance of human behavior and growth, and psychopathology, psychosocial problems, and an interest in using the psychiatric findings in social work.

This study of social work education in Belgium shows that from its beginning until the summer of 1955, it has been growing and progressing. It is, however, still in the process of change due to new problems, or to the awareness of psycho-social problems rather than economic or environmental problems alone, and also to the influence of foreign social work, namely social casework. In the years to come, social work education in Belgium will experience trial and error, will have to challenge its methods of training before it discovers its own. Belgian social work education, however, can be considered as an example to other countries in regard to its dynamics, its adaptation to the needs, its acceptance by the government as well as by the people, its popularity, and its efficiency in recruiting students.

CHAPTER III

SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION IN FRANCE

A. BRIEF HISTORY OF SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

At the turn of the twentieth century almost insurmountable barriers existed between the rich and the poor, the intellectuals and the working classes. People of different classes ignored one another and their basic needs. Fortunately, some socially minded French citizens were aware of the existing social problems and decided to remedy the situation and bring about a change. In addition to that, the encyclical "Rerum Novarum" of Pope Leo XIII stirred up the thinking of many.

These pioneers in social welfare (such as Baroness Pierard, Madame Le Fer de la Motte, Rev. Andre Viollet) organized lectures on "Social Ideas and Social Facts", the purpose of which was not to train professionals but to make people aware of the situation. Meantime, social legislation was introduced.

In 1910 Father Viollet organized a committee of jurists to study the assistance laws. Upon their findings he also organized courses on these laws and on methods of investigations. New plans of social service were initiated but there were no people to carry them out. One realized that the best

generosity and sacrifice of self were not enough, but some social work training was necessary, and this training should be opened to all, because social action was a common action. Thus, the Normal School of Social Work, the first school, was created in 1911 by Father Viollet with this purpose: "to know the milieu to be served, to discover and promote the means to its aid." The school offered courses, study circles, study days. In 1913 it offered summer courses for the trade-unionists.

In the same year Minister Paul Doumergue, Editor of Faith and Life Review, started a series of lectures on social problems, which became the School for Practical Social Work. The length of study was two years, divided between courses, guided visits to social agencies and institutions, and "stages" or field work. He also opened a small social agency in the 14th district of Paris.

During World War I many schools of nursing and visiting nursing were founded by the Red Cross and hospitals, and gave short sessions of intensive courses. These nurses were taught not only first aid and nursing techniques, but were also orientated to social legislation and to social institutions. Their role was similar to that of social workers.

In 1917 a group of active and devoted women introduced in France what was a successful experience in England, a Technical School for Staff Counselors in Industry and Social Services, because of the problems of working women. All these above schools were flourishing after the war, due to the

needs caused by the war and also to the social awareness.¹

During the years after World War I there was a marked increase in the number of schools of social work. They were established in big cities where the effects of war had been felt most, namely, Strasbourg, Lille, Lyon. Social workers had an important role in "re-educating" the Alsatians, who had been under German occupation. By 1926 there were two principal trends among the existing schools: one was interested in family life and in the neighborhood, and the other in industry. Although their objectives were different, the schools tried to lean on one another in order to gain official acceptance. They created the "Comite d'Entente des Ecoles de Service Social" in 1928. The schools met frequently to study questions related to teaching and to keep in touch with schools of social service elsewhere in the world. The individual school still gave examination to its own students, and granted its own diploma. The Comite succeeded in arousing the interest of the government in the growing importance of social work education. The government realized the necessity of unifying examinations and programs of study. The official circles then consulted the Comite and asked the directors of schools to draw up an official program to be applied to the existing schools, and to those established in the future. The result was the Ministry of Public Health Decree

¹"Les Ecoles Francaises. Leur Origine. Leur Caracteristique." Informations Sociales, 4e Annee, 8 (April 15, 1950), pp. 491-494.

of January 12, 1932 establishing the State Diploma of Social Work.² Since that date, the individual schools of social work lost some privileges of educational independence which they had before; instead France has a centralized and standardized system of social work education, the uniformity of which was enforced by state regulations, supervision, examination and diploma for social workers. The government sets up minimum programs, appoints the boards of examinations, gives examinations, awards the degrees, approves or rejects the schools officially. This decree provided also two years of study and that the individual schools would supervise the preparation of a written paper called "Memoire", the subject of which was chosen by the student among three subjects given by the schools. This is one of the few academic freedoms the schools had. After two years of study, the student had to take a state examination. The diploma was awarded by the Ministry of Public Health only after two years of successful employment and presentation of a report of the work done in these two years.³

Until World War II, schools of social work were established throughout the country, but there was no clear definition of role and function between social work and public health. The personnel of these two professions fre-

²Ibid., p. 495.

³"L'intervention de l'Etat dans la formation du Personel de Service Social", Ibid., p. 498.

quently performed much the same function for the same families. It was also quite usual to find social workers having the position of visiting nurses in social hygiene dispensaries, or reciprocally visiting nurses employed in family agencies or social services of the factories. This was the result of the concept of many who considered that public health and social welfare were similar terms, or different terms for the same thing. To remedy this situation and to reduce the shortage of personnel of both professions, the Ministry of Public Health and Population decreed on February 18, 1938:

...there would be henceforth only one professional category, that of social worker, for the relevant area of activity, and that the schools for visiting nurses and the schools of social work would revise their programmes of study to provide combined health and welfare training to prepare for a state diploma of social work.⁴

The schools for visiting nurses thus became schools of social work and all of the schools adopted the same program of study which is heavily weighted with courses on medical subjects. In fact the entire first year of social work training in France is the same for hospital nurses and midwives. The subsequent two years are, however, made up entirely of social studies, and the graduates of the schools are clearly identified as social workers.

The result of this policy was to produce social workers who were

⁴U. N. Dept. of Social Affairs, Training for Social Work. An International Survey, U. N. Publications: 1950. IV. 2 (New York, October 1950) p. 48.

capable of functioning equally well in the fields of health and welfare. Thus, the development of social work training was to meet specific national needs.

As the government intervened more in the training of social workers, and exercised control upon it, its responsibilities became heavier. In exchange for the academic freedom of the schools, the government had to subsidize them in terms of equipment and cost of administration. Yet in fact only a small number of schools received this aid. The government also provided scholarships to students with the condition that they work for the government for a determined period of time, at least five years.

In 1932 the "Conseil de Perfectionement des Ecoles de Service Social" was created within the Ministry of Public Health and Population. It was composed of representatives of schools and ministerial officials. Its function was consultative to schools and to the Ministry.

At the time of the second international survey of training for social work in 1954 there were sixty-seven functioning schools (three of which were in Algeria and Morocco) as shown in the following table:⁵

⁵U. N. Dept. of Social Affairs, International Directory of Schools of Social Work, U. N. Publications: 1955. IV.2 (New York, December 1954) pp. 30-49.

TABLE IX
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS FOUNDED BETWEEN 1911 AND 1954

Years	Schools
1911-1913	2
1914-1918	2
1919-1928	12
1929-1938	13
1939-1945	18
1946-1954	4
No report	16
Total	67

All these schools emphasized generic social work training with emphasis on nursing during the first year. Twenty-eight schools are entirely schools of social work, while the rest of them are also schools of nursing.⁶ They are sponsored by different founding bodies: thirty-six are private, supported by churches; fourteen are related or founded by the French Red Cross; twelve are affiliated with hospitals, two with medical schools; one belongs to the Social

⁶Programme des Conditions des Diplomes d'Etat d'Assistante Sociale et d'Infirmiere, (Paris 1951), pp. 8-10.

Security Administration, and only two are public, founded by the departments of Paris and Amiens.⁷

The sixty-four schools in France had relatively small enrollment. In 1954 there were 929 graduates reported from 54 schools, ranging from 2 graduates to 80; the average number per school was 17 to 18 graduates per year. A negligible percentage of the enrolled students were men who studied to become staff counselors in industry.

The law of April 8, 1946 was important in French social work education, because it protected the title of "social worker" for those who hold the state diploma of social worker. Those who violate this title are subject to fine and even jail sentence.⁸ Through this law the profession is guaranteed trained personnel. Finally, the place of schools of social work is among technical schools in the French educational structure,⁹ that is a year shorter than the university level. Technical schools differ from universities in objectives: the former try to impart to the students certain specific techniques, while the latter aim at giving a universal knowledge of the subjects studied.

⁷"L'intervention de l'Etat . . .", p. 500.

⁸Programme des Conditions d'Obtention des Diplomes d'Etat . . . Loi du 8 Avril 1946, Exercice des Professions. Art. 1, p. 3.

⁹The Fifth International Conference of Schools of Social Work. Proceedings. Paris: July 28-29, 1950. (Brussels), p. 91.

B. REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION

Admission requirements tend to reflect the task the students will be called upon to perform, and personal qualities are weighed against eventual professional requirements.

The law provided that the candidates admitted to the schools of social work must be 19 years of age on July 1st preceding admission. The academic requirement is usually met by completion of the first part of the baccalaureate, i. e. junior college or its equivalent. The decree of November 26, 1951 required that applicants who have not completed the usual secondary education, but who appear to be qualified for social work must take a special entrance examination prescribed by the Ministry of Public Health and Population. This entrance examination tests the literary skill and the degree of maturity of the candidates. Several schools also provided a preparatory year for candidates who have not completed their baccalaureate before reaching the age of 19. Besides this, the applicant must submit several official papers, such as: application form, birth and nationality certificates, police register, a complete and elaborate health certificate with the results of all possible vaccinations.¹⁰

C. TRAINING

The decree of February 18, 1938 abolished the Diploma of Public

¹⁰Ibid., p. 125-126.

Health and unified the social work education on this basis: the two-year social work training is preceded by a year of predominantly medical training; the first year is "mixed", in the sense of being identical for future social workers, nurses, and midwives, thus making the standard training period three years.

"Some schools insist that trainees complete their nursing training before training as social workers, thus making the training period one of four years".¹¹

1. Theoretical and Practical Training

In the first year of social work education study is centered on the human physical life, illnesses, therapeutic and preventive means, legislation related to hospital administration, assistance or social security. Its purpose is to help the students to care for the sick either at home or in hospitals. It insists also on the principal symptoms and syndromes which permit the diagnosis of illnesses covered in the program.

The program consists of:

1. Important medical and surgical knowledge; care of seriously ill patients, prenatal care, and care of new-born and children; minor and major surgery.
2. Study of serious social afflictions: tuberculosis, venereal diseases,

¹¹U. N. Bureau of Social Affairs, Training for Social Work. Second International Survey. U. N. Publications: 1955. IV.9 (Holland, Oct. 1955) p. 68.

infantile mortality, cancer, etc.

- .3. Elementary notions of pharmacy.
4. Individual and familial hygiene.
5. Social legislation and hospital administration.
6. Professional ethics and lectures on psychology.¹²

The following table shows the summary and minimum schedule prescribed by the Ministry of Public Health and Population by the decree of August 4, 1954 for the first year. It is divided into two parts: theoretical training and practical training.

¹²"La Formation des Assistantes Sociales", Informations Sociales, 4e Annee, 8 (April 15, 1950) p. 512.

TABLE X
 REQUIRED SUBJECTS IN THE FIRST YEAR¹³

Subjects	Number of hours per year
A. Theoretical Training:	
Anatomy, Physiology and Microbiology	24
General Medicine and Medical Specialties	32
Surgery and Surgical Specialties	24
Obstetrics	10
Child Care and Pediatrics	27
Hygiene and Prophylaxy	26
Pharmacy	8
Social Assistance and Administration of Institutions	10
Professional Ethics	<u>8</u>
Total	169
B. Practical Training or Nursing Care:	
General Notions and Medical Care, Surgery and Surgical Specialties, Gynecology and Obstetrics, Care of Children	80
Nutrition and Hygiene	10
Pharmacy	<u>4</u>
Total	94
GRAND TOTAL	263

¹³Ministere de la Sante Publique et de la Population. Programme d'Enseignement. Etudes Preparatoires aux Diplomes d'Etat d'Infirmieres et d'Assistentes Sociales. Premiere Annee, Vol. I (Nancy, 1954), p. 2.

Of these two parts of training, the practical part is more important. It is mostly given by Monitor-Nurses. With this solid medical background French social service becomes very active in the protection of public health.

The second and third years appear more disparate because the subjects studied are so broad. The theoretical training covers the following:

1. Framework of social life: elements of sociology, demography, notions of civil, public, penal and financial law.
2. Family life: study of the family, its needs (housing, budget, savings and credit), psychology, education of children and youth, role of leisure.
3. Labor: organization of economic life, organization of life according to occupation, vocational orientation and training, labor legislation and regulations, industrial hygiene and safety.
4. Medico-social problems: emphasis on the preventive measures of social afflictions, and on the protection of children and mental hygiene.
5. Social Assistance: relief and general social security principles, social legislation and regulations, social security laws, public health protection and sanitary legislation.
6. Social Service and its implementation: history of social service, its purpose and method. General organization of social service in France.
7. Ethical or professional training of the social worker: professional ethics, responsibilities. Methodology.¹⁴

The courses studied are summarized in the following table with the amount of time reserved for each subject.

¹⁴U. N. Dept. of Social Affairs, Training for Social Work, an International Survey, U. N. Publications: 1950. IV. 2 (New York, October 1950), pp. 161-162.

TABLE XI
COURSES AND NUMBER OF HOURS GIVEN IN
SECOND AND THIRD YEARS¹⁵

Subjects	Number of hours
1. Elements of Sociology and Demography	18
2. Law	25
3. Psychology and Pedagogy	40
4. Family Problems	30
5. Hygiene	13
6. Medico-social Problems:	
Protection of childhood	15
Protection of Mental Hygiene	21
Tuberculosis	12
Venereal Disease	8
Prostitution	2
Alcoholism and Toxicology	4
Cancer	2
Rheumatism	2
7. Social Problems:	
Labor and protection of workers	61
Social assistance, social security and legislation . .	35
8. Social Service and its structure	43
9. Ethical and practical training:	
Professional ethics.	10
Methods of work	26
Total	367

¹⁵Programme d'Enseignement . . . Deuxieme et Troisieme Annee,
Vol. II, pp. 1-2.

This training is completed by study circles, research work and visits to social agencies. The object of this study is the human being with his biology, psychology, his vital needs, the milieu in which he lives and which influences him, social diseases and afflictions which disturb him and the means which he uses to overcome or face the problems.

In summary the purpose of the theoretical training is to give not only necessary knowledge, but also general ideas which clarify the student's judgment and control his activities while the practical training is to help the student to know the structure and function of social agencies as well as the methods of work.

II. Field Work and Supervision

The effective practice of social work requires not only a wide knowledge of socio-economic, psychological, medical, and social work subjects, but also an understanding of, and practical training in, the actual skills to be employed in the application of that knowledge to the solution of specific problems. Here the tendency is to give the students a broad range of experience in their placements.

In the first year, the students divide their time equally between theoretical and practical work, devoting one-half day to each. The field work is prescribed by the official program and consists of student-nurse training in the medical, surgical, maternity and children's wards of the hospitals, together with two months of social work training in a medical service.

TABLE XII
FIELD WORK IN FIRST YEAR AND TIME SPENT
IN EACH SERVICE¹⁶

	Time spent
General medicine	3 months
Surgery	1 "
Obstetrics	1 "
Pediatrics	3 "
Social Service: home visits, interviews	<u>2</u> "
Total	10 months

After three months of study and field work, the students pass an eliminatory examination of probation. If the result is satisfactory they continue further study.

In the second and third year the official program requires fifteen months of field work, three days a week, taken concurrently with classroom courses. The students are placed in a variety of social agencies and institutions for brief periods. Some placements are compulsory for all, such as two months at an Anti-Tuberculosis Dispensary and one month at an Anti-Venereal Disease Dispensary; others are selected in accordance with the community

¹⁶Programme d'Enseignement . . ., I, p. 2.

resources and the wishes and particular aptitudes of each student. Normally a student has between ten and thirteen placements within the fifteen-month period, and the time spent in each place is from one to two months.¹⁷ The following table shows the variety of experience a social work student may have:

TABLE XIII
SOME OPTIONAL FIELD WORK AND TIME SPENT
IN EACH PLACEMENT¹⁸

Agencies	Time spent
Family Allowance Fund	2 months
Court Service	2 to 3 months
Hospital Clinics	1 month
Maternal and Child Protection	2 to 3 months
Veteran Administration	1 month
School Social Work	1 month
Vocational Orientation	1 month
Public Health	2 months
Police	1 month
Social Service in Armed Forces.	2 months
Social Security	1 to 2 months
Prison	1 month

¹⁷Training for Social Work, An International Survey, p. 162.

¹⁸Information given by Mrs. Francine Joyneaux-Bouvard, a French social worker.

In field work the students' experiences are a "little more than an opportunity for extended observation of the way in which a social agency operates. They emerge from their practical training with a general view of the type of work that is performed by a particular social agency, but no experience in discharging the responsibilities that such work entails."¹⁹ In some instances the skills learned are of a "clerical rather than a professional character." In other settings, the students accompany the experienced social workers on home visits or observe the conduct of the interview but do not have the opportunity to work directly with the agency clientele. Others let the students carry limited responsibility for home visits, collection of information, and formulation of diagnoses, but do not take the further step of providing opportunities for them to carry through a plan of action with the clients served. Coupled with this kind of experience, the organized visits to social agencies or institutions by the schools help the students to learn the character of the resources available in their communities for meeting social and economic needs.²⁰

The decree of March 31, 1951 made provisions for the reduction of field work for those who have worked successfully in a social agency prior to their admission to the schools of social work, about one month of field work

¹⁹Training for Social Work, An International Survey, p. 59.

²⁰Ibid.

for one year of successful paid employment. The reductions are granted by the Minister of Public Health and Population.²¹

How are the students supervised in their training? In the first year, one or two monitor-nurses²² are assigned to the class. She has the duty to supervise the students and make reports of their performance to the schools. Each student has a "carnet de stages", a notebook on field work, in which the monitor-nurse gives her own remark of the students on each service. This "carnet de stages" is not accessible to the student. In the second and the third year a monitor²³ is assigned to each class. She is the one who conducts study-circles, organizes visits to agencies, helps and counsels the students in their study and field work. Her role is also to contact social agencies where the students are placed. At the beginning of each placement, she brings the "carnet de stages" to the director or the social worker in charge who gives a brief written evaluation of the student's performance at the end of the placement. This "carnet de stages" is then returned to the monitor. It is a means

²¹"L'Actualite Legislative: Formation des Assistantes et Assistants de Service Social", Informations Sociales, 7e Annee, 14 (July 15, 1953), pp. 864-865.

²²Registered nurse who sometimes holds also a State Diploma of Social Work, and who has had three years of successful paid employment, and has passed an examination for monitor-nurses.

²³One who has a State Diploma of Social Work and who has had three years of successful paid employment in a social agency, and has passed an examination for monitors.

of communication between different placements about the student's personality, professional capacities and weaknesses. The agencies give no systematic supervision and supervisory practice varies greatly between them. The schools have little or nothing to say about who supervises the students. At the end of the placement, the students receive no oral evaluation of their work at the agency and know practically nothing about what will be written of them in their "carnet de stages". On the other hand they have to make a detailed report of the physical set up of the placement, what they have learned, what they have been doing, and also give their own criticisms or evaluation.

The learning values of field work are rather personal matters depending upon the keen observation, curiosity and interest of the individual students. In general, students receive little help from supervision in their day by day training.

III. Requirements for the State Diploma in Social Work

The decree of March 31, 1951 required that the candidates to the State Examination of Social Work must be between 21 and 38 years of age on January 1st of the examination year; exceptions can be made by the Minister of Public Health and Population. They must fulfill the academic requirements and must be introduced to the examination by the schools they attended.

The state examination is composed of written tests, practical tests and oral tests.

1. Written tests of essay type relate to:

Hygiene, Maternal and Infant Protection, Fight against Social Afflictions (4 hours).

Assistance, Social Protection and Structure of Social Service (4 hours).

2. Practical tests on:

Sanitary and Social Protection: test to be taken in hospital-clinics, or in dispensaries before a jury composed of representatives of the services and two social workers. The candidate is to establish a record of consultant and to determine the course of action to be taken in a given case.

Social Service: a written short summary of a case is given to the candidate who after thirty minutes of thinking has to present orally the actions to be taken and the means to be used in order to have good results.

Practical Methods of Work: such as filing, establishment or destruction of records, letter writing, report, study of the budget, etc.

3. Oral tests on ten subjects (admitted are only those candidates who have one-half of the maximum mark given in written and practical tests):

Maternal and Infant Hygiene
Tuberculosis
Venereal Diseases
General Hygiene
Mental Hygiene
Notions of Law
Protection of Labor
Family and Social Legislation
Psychology and Pedagogy
Professional Ethics

The diploma is only obtained by those candidates who have at least one-half

of the maximum mark given.²⁴

The examination is thus orientated for practical purposes: the written tests are to determine the knowledge and the thinking of the students on the subjects or problems which are considered as basic for social service, and the practical and oral tests are to evaluate the capacity and the personality of the candidate in front of the concrete necessities of social work and the application of theoretical knowledge to life situation. It also helps to observe the candidates, how they confront the problems and by what means they try to meet the difficulty. Finally, being regulated by official decrees into details, it is to establish a minimum standard of knowledge for all social workers. It is to control both the techniques and the professional qualities of the candidates so that it can guarantee a necessary training for the good functioning of social service.

D. SPECIALIZATIONS OR POST-GRADUATE STUDY

In France the emphasis is stressed on the multifunctional training and the specialization is effected through the gradual integration of the worker into the agencies rather than through specific previous training. "Moreover, persons who have received their general social work diploma may, after six

²⁴"Examen du Diplome d'Etat d'Assistante Sociale", Journal Officiel, (November 15-16, 1954).

months' further training obtain a specialized certificate offered in any of these fields: factory superintendent granted by the Ministry of Labour; rural social work granted by the Ministry of Agriculture; and French Overseas Social Work by the Ministry of Overseas France,²⁵ after having passed an examination given by the relative Ministry. Generally, the time is divided as follows: one month of theoretical courses, one month of practical work, and four months of field work.

Among the 67 functioning schools, there are a few offering the specialized training as shown in the following table:

TABLE XIV
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS WITH SOME SPECIALIZATIONS²⁶

Specialization	Number of schools
Rural Welfare	8
Industry	2
Overseas	2
Child Care	2
Mental Hygiene	1
Social Security Administration	<u>1</u>
Total	16

²⁵Training for Social Work. Second International Survey, p. 60.

²⁶International Directory of Schools of Social Work, pp. 40-49.

Of the schools for child care, mental hygiene and social security administration, little information is available. The schools for child care put emphasis on field work in pediatric nursing and child welfare; in one school the degree granted is State Diploma in Child Care. The National School for Social Work of the Social Security Administration adds to the admission requirements a Psychotechnical Entrance Examination. It emphasizes social security legislation and relevant health and social services.²⁷

In summary, French social work is typically multifunctional ("polyvalent") in character. Social work education is to train people to face "the overwhelming health and welfare needs"; consequently the social worker is to "fill in the gaps wherever she finds them". The medical basis for social work training is not only because of the "high infant mortality and the incidence of tuberculosis and other diseases", but also by "offering practical counsel to families in matters of health, provides the means of building confidence in the worker on the part of the family and is the 'opening wedge' for dealing with more difficult and delicate matters."²⁸

²⁷Ibid., pp. 44-45.

²⁸Marian Newman, "A Social Worker Visits France", News Bulletin, 28 (January 1953), 27-28.

CHAPTER IV

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TWO SYSTEMS OF SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION and CONCLUDING COMMENTS

A. SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES

The purpose of social work education in Belgium and in France, as described in previous chapters, was to recruit competent persons for social work positions which sought the amelioration or solution of problems that prevent individuals or families from achieving an acceptable standard of social and economic well-being.

In both countries, the schools of social work are organized as independent educational institutions under governmental, religious, secular or political party control and auspices. They are not affiliated or attached to universities, although a considerable number of them draw their part-time teaching staff from university faculties.¹ They are technical schools, which means that they offer certain specific techniques to their students, and differ from universities which are profoundly theoretical and ambitiously universal in the scope of their teaching and in their outlook.

The duration of their course of study is customarily shorter than that of the university, and their training provides the student with considerable

¹U. N. Dept. of Social Affairs, Training for Social Work, An International Survey, p. 21

specific guidance, relies more on compulsory classroom attendance and includes assigned observation or practice. Social work is commonly regarded in both countries as a vocation or an occupation on a sub-professional level, rather than as a profession in the American sense.²

The admission requirements established by the schools include the completion of secondary school, which is called "Humanities" in Belgium, and first part of the "Baccalaureate" in France, i. e. twelve years of education or the equivalent to completion of junior college in the United States. There is a slight difference, however. With the completion of "Humanities", a student can be admitted to Belgium universities, whereas a student who has finished the first part of the "Baccalaureate" has to study one more year before being admitted to a French university. An age qualification of eighteen or nineteen years, good health, and personal suitability for the profession of social work are also required. These overall requirements are not as high as for matriculation in a university.

While the background and preparation for social work training are similar in both countries, the training itself is essentially different due to the national needs and problems.

In Belgium theoretical study is concentrated on social and biological sciences and legislation in the first year, and on specialized subjects in the

²Training for Social Work. Second International Survey, p. 50.

second year; whereas the first year in France is devoted to the study of nursing and social legislation, social sciences and social service are taught in the second and third years. The Belgian concept is to emphasize the integration of social work with social action in order to bring about changes in environmental conditions. In France, the social worker is responsible for health functions; therefore "a broad background appears essential to help the social worker meet varied problems such as bad housing, inadequate income, under-nourishment, too high incidence of infant mortality, childhood diseases." ³

In both countries the required curriculum is aimed at providing the kind of social science background which in the United States is thought of as being a part of the pre-social work training in college. In addition, "... the courses for the most part are taught according to the classical method followed by formal interrogation of the students." ⁴ This is in part due to the European pattern of teaching. It is also intended to prepare the students for the final state examination without which they cannot practice social work. Preparing for this examination necessitates imparting such intensive factual knowledge that no time seems to remain in the classroom for free discussion or for critical examination of the subject.

³Ibid., p. 55.

⁴Marian Newmann, "A Social Worker Visits France", News Bulletin, 28 (January, 1953), p. 24.

There are two aspects of the practical training: one deals with visits and study circles and seminars, the other with field work. Of the two systems, the Belgian system offers more visits to social agencies and educational institutions, and consequently reserves more time for the study circles to discuss these visits, yet both systems require their students to make critical written reports of these visits.

Although both countries place great stress on "learning by doing," the requirements for field work are quite different. The amount of time put into field work is approximately the same, but Belgium used the block placement while France offered field work concurrently with classroom courses. A social work student in Belgium has an average of five to six placements, each of one or two months' duration, except for the last one, which lasts five to eight months. In most instances, with the approval of the schools, the students can select the placements in accordance with their specialization, and some of the resultant placements are in no way in "social" agencies in the American use of the term. A French social work student on the other hand might have ten to thirteen placements, each of one or two months' duration. Most of these are required by law and leave the students little choice. The idea behind these series of brief placements is to acquaint the students with a wide variety of social welfare programs. This inevitably results in a stronger emphasis on observation than on "learning by doing." Students have neither the time nor the opportunity to undertake specific tasks in most of their placements.

The Belgian schools combine a few brief placements with one or two extended periods of full-time practical training, thus providing both an overall view of the social welfare activities of a particular community and an opportunity for continuous work in a specific program.⁵

In both countries supervision in the American sense is almost non-existent, or of minimal importance from the agency standpoint. Supervision is confined to a routine report submitted to the school by the agency at the termination of the assignment. However, the schools assume the responsibility of assigning a "monitor" to a group of students. The monitor establishes a casual relationship with the personnel of the agencies, reviews the routine reports submitted and is available to discuss any problem the students or the agencies wish to bring up.

In Belgium especially efforts have been made to interest the agencies in the teaching and training process by organizing regular meetings between faculty members and directors of social agencies.

Finally, in order to obtain the official diploma of social worker, both countries require state examinations. In Belgium an oral examination is given after each year of study by a Board of Examiners appointed by the Ministry of Justice. The purpose of the examination is to test the students' knowledge in each subject studied, the experiences in field work and in the

⁵Training for Social Work. An International Survey, p. 60.

last year, the results of a piece of research in the field of specialization. The research study, similar to a thesis, is in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a diploma.

In France the examination is less official after the first year of study, because it is conducted within and by the school, but the state examination at the end of the third year is most formal and important. It consists of written, practical and oral tests which are very much in the French educational pattern. Only students who obtain a passing grade in the examination receive the diploma, and they fail if their examination grade is below passing, regardless of how good they may have been in their class work. It is not unusual to fail the state examination; however, provisions are made for repeating the examination.

B. OUTSTANDING ASPECTS

The social work functions performed in Belgium and in France reflect the social needs and problems of these two countries. Belgium, one of the most highly industrialized countries in the world had problems between the workers and management. The two groups which pioneered in social work education, the Catholics and the Socialists, were very much concerned about labor although in different ways. They created within social work education a specialization on social welfare in industry which was to train able person-
nels for industrial relations as well as for trade unions, mutual aid societies

and cooperative societies. Out of twenty-three schools, at least fifteen of them have offered this training in their program.⁶ Their training was comparable to the industrial relations programs in American universities. Stress was placed not only on pensions and health and welfare programs for the workers, but also on labor legislation, psychopathology and industrial hygiene. Thus social work played an important role in the social and economic life of the country as well as in the life of the workers. Belgian social work education also embraced the field of adult education. Through mass communication media, it emphasized the educational aspects of leisure time in the life of people.

Finally, Belgian social work answered a long-felt need by training librarians for public and special groups, such as adolescents, the sick, the blind and prisoners. Traditionally, libraries were owned and organized by parishes or universities, with the exception of the National Library of Brussels. In consequence they were poorly established and depended upon available parochial resources and rarely were directed by trained librarians.⁷ Some of the schools had a separate section for library education, others related it to adult education.

⁶International Directory of Schools of Social Work, pp. 10-17.

⁷No written document available. Information obtained through personal interview.

French social work education on the other hand offered a generic training with emphasis on nursing during the first year to meet the health and material problems which were caused by war, destruction, malnutrition, lack of housing, unemployment and general financial and political insecurity. This training produced social workers who were also public health nurses and friendly visitors. The French strongly favored a "...practical medical basis for social workers because health problems can be the open door to other problems" and social and medical problems are inseparable.⁸ This view was also expressed by a Belgian social work educator who proposed some changes in Belgian social work education by merging the training for public health nurses and social workers, or by establishing a school of medico-social work to train multifunctional workers.⁹

Besides the emphasis on nursing in French social work, it is noteworthy that rural social work seems to be the most advanced. This specialization, which requires six months of study following completion of the course for the State Diploma in social work, has been given since 1944. It includes: (1) two months of theory, giving a general introduction to the life of the countryside and rural legislation; (2) four months of practical work, including one

⁸Jeanne Dufour, "A French Social Worker in Boston." Unpublished report to Atlantique, September, 1953, p. 9.

⁹Fernand Godefroid, "Pour la Creation d'une Ecole Medico-Sociale en Belgique." I.S., No. 7 (April 1, 1953), 412-415.

month working as a farm hand. This training is offered by eight provincial schools recognized for the purpose by the "Mutualite Agricole", which is similar to the Rural Credit Union, responsible for all rural welfare in France.¹⁰ This specialization is explained by the fact that France is in large part an agricultural country.

C. TRENDS, IF ANY

Today in Belgium and France social work education is definitely influenced by foreign ideas and national situations. In France the change is slight and gradual; casework gradually has become known and is being used in different ways. This is the result of the exchange of social workers between France and the United States, of International Conferences of Schools of Social Work, and because the United Nations has provided social advisers.¹¹ It has been proposed to use the principles of casework in the training of French social workers.¹² Although the influence of casework is still imperceptible in France at the present time, it is evident in Belgium where it is now integrated in the curriculum of many schools, although in a limited

¹⁰"The Fifth International Conference of Schools of Social Work. Proceedings", pp. 98-100.

¹¹New Trends in European Social Work. The Impact of Casework, p. 8.

¹²Ibid., pp. 49-54.

way. Casework techniques call for the awareness of the emotional components of social difficulties, the relationship between client and worker and other principles. It also requires interviewing techniques, diagnostic capacity and the formulation of treatment plans with emphasis on environmental changes. In order to practice casework, good agencies are necessary and above all, good supervision to guide the student practitioner.¹³ In both Belgium and France social work educators have expressed a lively interest in improving the quality of supervision which is so vital in the training of the students. It also has been proposed to use casework methods on student-selection, whereby the students' personality-type would at once be obvious, and the unconscious prejudices of the selector would also be revealed.¹⁴ Social work educators have realized, however, that they need to be cautious in applying casework because of the empiricism prevailing in Europe and because of the present social settings and administration, and of the lack of supervisors and study materials.

Finally, since the governmental decision in 1955 of the reduction or withdrawal of subsidies to Belgian schools of social work, many drastic changes would come about if the sole support fell upon the students, or voluntary contributions. Some schools would no longer be able to function due to the lack of funds.

¹³The Fifth International Conference, pp. 19-29.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 95.

D. WORK OPPORTUNITIES FOR TRAINED SOCIAL WORKERS

Belgian and French social workers do not constitute a liberal profession. They are not self-employed but anticipate employment by non-governmental denominational agencies, or by governmental or semi-governmental agencies, such as social security funds or child welfare agencies.¹⁵ There seems to be a relative balance between supply and demand in Belgium but the "need is greater than the demand." In France the supply of workers is reported to be very inadequate in rural areas; the situation in housing and transportation is unsatisfactory and the plan to have one social worker per district has not been fulfilled. In both countries the title of social worker is accorded by law to those who receive the state diploma in social work. French law forbids the filling of a post of social worker except by a person who has lawfully acquired that title.¹⁵ Thus the profession at large is guaranteed trained personnel.

A graduate social worker in Belgium can find employment in the following agencies or institutions: schools of social work, public assistance, social service departments of the juvenile courts or prisons, hospital mental hygiene clinic, national children's bureau, the Red Cross, social service departments in large department stores, factories, Belgian railroad companies,

¹⁵Training for Social Work, Second International Survey, pp. 69-70.

chief librarians of universities, of Parliament, and many positions in the Belgian Congo.¹⁶

A French social work graduate may find employment in the social service departments of the following agencies or organizations: maternal and infant protection agencies, anti-venereal disease and anti-tuberculosis dispensaries of the Public Health Ministry; family allowance fund, social insurance fund of the Labor Ministry; social services of the Ministries of War, Marine, Air Force, Agriculture, and social services related to the Ministry of National Education, such as school social work and regional and departmental social work.¹⁷

E. CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Social work education in Belgium and in France has not yet settled into fixed patterns, or found its boundaries, and so it sometimes overlaps other, allied disciplines. It is, however, a dynamic process that has grown out of, and is constantly influenced by, evolving social, economic, political and cultural trends, and for this very reason, can acquire a fixed pattern only at the price of failing to meet new situations.

¹⁶Programme. Institut d'Etudes Sociales de l'Etat. Brussels, 1953-54, p. 5.

¹⁷Programme des Conditions d'Obtension des Diplomes d'Etat d'Assistance Sociale et d'Infirmiere. Paris, p. 17.

. . . The training of social work students was designed to include information on the current economic and social forces at work and their historical development: social philosophy, sociology, and ethics and with considerable emphasis on health and hygiene as well as some general psychology. The curriculum also included current social legislation and the relevant facts on the administration of social agencies and institutions. Teaching methods followed the more traditional lines. Graduates of schools were well equipped for the task of enabling individuals to make effective use of existing social institutions. They understood the need for social action and for broad-scale social legislation.

As standards of living and conditions of work improved and as material needs lessened, responsible observers became aware that, despite this accomplishment, many problems still remained. They began to ask why the assistance being given was sometimes inadequate. In their search for causes, it became clear that the problems of many persons arose not only from an adverse economic environment, or from the need for money per se or for employment and opportunity for association, but from other less tangible difficulties. Improved adjustment did not always follow bettered economic conditions and seemingly appropriate environmental changes.¹⁸

It was then that social casework methods became a matter of interest, and were gradually accepted. Belgian and French social work educators realized the necessity of giving students a deeper understanding of human needs and of the nature of the helping process itself. "The most important aspect of the introduction of social casework in Europe is probably that it obliges European social work to make an effort to apply the findings of modern science to the helping process."¹⁹

¹⁸Training for Social Work. Second International Survey, p. 46.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 49.

The result of this change is not yet available, but certainly it char-
tered a new course for social work training in these two countries.

In summary, social work in Belgium and in France finds its place
wherever man is in contact with others or with society. Its aim is not to
work with him as an individual but as a member of a group. It is geared to
environmental changes rather than to individual adjustment.

These two countries indeed can offer many experiences to social
work education in many economically under-developed countries.

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