

ATTITUDINAL PROFESSIONALISM AMONG
SOCIAL WORK LICENSE HOLDERS IN CHINA

by

NING TANG

BRENDA D. SMITH, COMMITTEE CHAIR
TYRONE CHIWAI CHENG
LAURA HOPSON
DEBRA NELSON-GARDELL
FEI SUN

A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the School of Social Work of
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA

2016

Copyright Ning Tang 2016
ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

ABSTRACT

The social work profession has become a crucial political tool in China's welfare and social service delivery system. In the *Mid- to Long-term Planning of Building Social Work Professional Community (2011-2020)*, the state calls for 1,450,000 professional social workers by 2020. The social work licensure exam has become the most convenient path to create a large amount of professional social workers within a short period of time. Yet little is known about the characteristics and the professionalism of the social work license holders.

This study aimed to examine the relationships between formal education, professionalism, and bureaucracy level experienced by the social work license holders from Shunde, Guangdong. The population of social work license holders in Shunde was invited to participate in an online survey. A total of 256 social workers completed the survey, representing sixteen percent of the population. Regression models were conducted to assess associations with level of professionalism, educational background, and experiences with organizational bureaucracy. The findings of this study demonstrated that the majority of social work license holders had not received social work formal education; formal education failed to predict greater professionalism; some aspects of bureaucracy were positively associated with some aspects of professionalism; and the professional socialization occurring in the field may be more effective than current formal social work education in cultivating practitioners' attitudinal professionalism.

Four suggestions were drawn from this study to promote social work professionalism: encourage social work educators and researchers to be more active in the field, create more

social work positions/titles in the traditional social service delivery system, strengthen the functions of professional associations, and enforce continuing education among social work license holders. These suggestions may also be useful for other countries that lack educational resources to develop social work profession.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the Chinese social work pioneers and practitioners, who dedicate themselves to helping and empowering people amid drastic social changes.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

- a* Cronbach's index of internal consistency
- df* Degrees of freedom: number of values free to vary after certain restrictions have been placed on the data
- F* Fisher's F ratio: A ration of two variances
- M* Mean: the sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
- SD* Standard deviation: a measure of the extent of variation for a group as a whole, calculated as the square root of variance.
- p* Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
- r* Pearson product-moment correlation
- t* Computed value of t test
- < Less than
- = Equal

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to thank my dissertation committee members for their support, encouragement and constructive feedback during the creation of this dissertation.

I would like to express my deepest appreciation to Dr. Brenda Smith. Dr. Smith's unwavering belief in me has been the main source of my confidence in my research. She was always concerned with my well-being and made sure that I did not miss any opportunities to grow and to shine. Her supportive, encouraging, inspiring and honest words motivated me to do the best I could. Without her guidance and persistent help this dissertation would not have happened. She is a true role model to me.

Dr. Debra Nelson-Gardell has also been a great mentor to me since my first year in Alabama. Whenever I felt lost, helpless or stuck, she was always there for me. Thanks to her interest in Chinese social work development, I was able to get great resources and connections through the school to pursue my passion. I miss walking with Debra in the Quad talking about Forrest Gump, Chinese culture, food, Chinese social work and many other things. I thank her for making me feel important and special.

Dr. Tyrone Cheng was the person who introduced me to quantitative research and data analysis. Dr. Cheng provided me the best opportunities to learn as well as conduct research and publish papers with him. He has always been kind, patient and supportive of me. Also, I appreciate him for inviting Chinese students for dinner every year to celebrate Chinese festival.

Dr. Fei Sun is my mentor, my friend and my best work partner. Dr. Sun has been so supportive to my work in promoting social work development in China. He devoted a large

amount of time and knowledge to our research and work projects. He never hesitates to share his information and resources with me to assist my work.

Dr. Laura Hopson is an immensely kind person and an outstanding researcher. Her optimistic attitudes towards life and work, her way of respecting and nurturing students as well as her friendliness and kindness are unforgettable.

In addition to my committee, I also need to thank my family and my friends, who have always believed in me and supported me. Special thanks to Fay Hobbs, my friend, my family, my mentor. She loved me like I was a member of her family and provided me with her best support. I will forever miss her. A thank you to Guo Lesheng, the vice-president of Shunde Association of Chinese Social Workers, and Zou Qiaoyin, the deputy secretary-general of Shunde Social Service Network, who introduced me to the group of Shunde social workers and helped me generously in research designing and data collection.

In the last, I would like to thank my wonderful husband James, whose support helped me feel joyful and relaxed during my times of tedious writing. I also want to thank our cat, Shoey, who has been my best study buddy providing me constant companionship while working on my dissertation.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xv
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background and Problem Statement.....	1
Introduction to the problem.....	1
Background of the study.....	5
Statement of the problem.....	8
Purpose of the Study.....	8
Research Questions.....	10
Significance of the Study.....	10
Chapter Summary.....	11
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	12
The Professionalization of Social Work in China.....	12
The process of professionalization.....	12
The process of professionalization of Chinese social work.....	14
Social Work Higher Education in China.....	18

Background	18
Formal educational programs	19
Educational outcomes	22
Social Work Post Setting in China.....	24
Governmental and quasi-governmental organizations.....	25
Non-governmental organizations.....	30
Social Work Licensure System in China	34
Licensure exam	34
Continuing education	38
Professional social workers.....	39
The Professionalism of Social Workers.....	40
Professional Socialization.....	45
Pre-socialization.....	47
Formal socialization.....	47
Professionalism and educational background.....	48
Practice after formal socialization	51
Professionalism and bureaucracy.....	51
Study hypotheses	55
Chapter Summary	55
METHODS AND PROCEDURES.....	57
Description of Subjects	57
Population	57
Variables and measures.....	58
Procedures.....	61
Instrument translation	61

Data collection	63
Chapter Summary	66
DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....	67
Data Preparation.....	67
Descriptive	67
Social worker status	70
Reliability of instruments.....	75
Control variables.....	88
Hypothesis 1.....	94
Hypothesis 2.....	101
Other Analyses.....	107
Social work agency and attitudinal professionalism.....	108
Social work agency and bureaucracy.....	110
Chapter Summary	111
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	113
Discussion.....	113
Characteristics of social work license holders.....	113
Attitudinal professionalism among social work license holders.....	116
Social work education and professionalism.....	123
Professionalism and bureaucracy.....	127
Conclusion and Implication	129
Limitations	137
Chapter Summary	139
REFERENCES	140
APPENDIX A - DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION	158

APPENDIX B - PROFESSIONALISM SCALE.....	160
APPENDIX C - BUREAUCRACY SCALE.....	162
APPENDIX D – PRE-NOTIFICATION MESSAGE	164
APPENDIX E - INVITATION LETTER.....	165
APPENDIX F – IRB APPROVAL.....	167
APPENDIX G – MAIL SURVEY IN CHINESE.....	168

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Examination Requirements for JSW and ISW	35
Table 2: Control Variables and the Measurement Levels.....	60
Table 3: Work Settings of Social Work License Holders.....	72
Table 4: Work Positions of Social Work License Holders.....	73
Table 5: Social Workers and Non-Social Workers Characteristics	74
Table 6: Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, Item-Total Correlation, and Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for Scores on the Attitudinal Professionalism Scale.....	77
Table 7: Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation of Attitudinal Professionalism Scale	79
Table 8: Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, Item-Total Correlation, and Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for Scores on the Bureaucracy Scale	81
Table 9: Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation of Bureaucracy Scale	82
Table 10: Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, Item-Total Correlation, and Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for Scores on the Revised Attitudinal Professionalism Scale.....	85
Table 11: Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, Item-Total Correlation, and Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for Scores on the Revised Bureaucracy Scale.....	86
Table 12: T-tests to Assess the Relationship Between Attitudinal Professionalism and Control Variables	91
Table 13: Bivariate Correlation Tests to Assess the Relationship Between Attitudinal Professionalism and Potential Control Variables	91
Table 14: One-way ANOVA to Assess the Relationship Between Attitudinal Professionalism and Control Variables	92
Table 15: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Degree of Professional Association as Major Reference by Continuing Education Type.....	92

Table 16: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Belief in Public Service by Continuing Education Type	92
Table 17: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Belief in Self-Regulation by Continuing Education Type	93
Table 18: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Belief in Autonomy by Continuing Education Type	93
Table 19: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Attitudinal Professionalism by Continuing Education Type	93
Table 20: T-tests to Assess Differences in Means of Attitudinal Professionalism Between Social Work License Holders With and Without Social Work Degree.....	94
Table 21: Correlations Between Predictor Variables.....	96
Table 22: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Belief in Self-Regulation from Social Work Degree and Control Variables.....	97
Table 23: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Sense of Calling to the Field from Social Work Degree and Control Variables.....	98
Table 24: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Attitudinal Professionalism from Social Work Degree and Control Variables.....	98
Table 25: T-tests to Assess the Correlations Between Attitudinal Professionalism and Social Work Degree Among Social Workers	99
Table 26: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Belief in Self-Regulation from Social Work Degree and Control Variables Among Social Workers.....	100
Table 27: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Sense of Calling to the Field from Social Work Degree and Control Variables Among Social Work.....	101
Table 28: Bivariate Correlations Between Attitudinal Professionalism Items and Bureaucracy Items.....	103
Table 29: Regression of Social Work Degree and Hierarchy of Authority on Sense of Calling to the Field	105
Table 30: Regression of Social Work Degree and Division of Labor on Calling to the Field ...	105
Table 31: Regression of Social Work Degree and Rules on Sense of Calling to the Field	106
Table 32: Regression of Social Work Degree and Technology Competence on Sense of Calling to the Field	106

Table 33: Regression of Social Work Degree and Bureaucracy Scale on Sense of Calling to the Field	107
Table 34: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Professional Association as Major Reference Between Social Work Agency and Other Organizations	109
Table 35: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Belief in Self-Regulation Between Social Work Agency and Other Organizations.....	109
Table 36: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Attitudinal Professionalism Between Social Work Agency and Other Organizations.....	110
Table 37: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Procedural Specificity Between Social Work Agency and Other Organizations.....	111
Table 38: Post Hoc Tests HSD Comparison - Degree of Impersonality Between Social Work Agency and Other Organizations.....	111

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual framework: The Degree of Bureaucracy as a Moderator of the Relationship between Education and Professionalism.....	9
Figure 2: Mean Scores of Original and Revised Attitudinal Professionalism Scale	87
Figure 3: Mean Scores of Original and Revised Bureaucracy Scale	88
Figure 4: Composition of Chinese Social Work License Holders.....	116

INTRODUCTION

Background and Problem Statement

Introduction to the problem

This study concerns the professionalization of social work in mainland China. The social work profession was introduced in China in the late 1980s. Its professionalization is regarded as a solution too legitimate and improve traditional welfare services, so as to address the central government's inability to meet citizens' increasing needs of welfare and social services after economic reform (Derleth & Koldyk, 2004; Xiong & Wang, 2007; Xu & Chow, 2011; Yan & Cheung, 2006). At the end of the 1970s, the People's Republic of China (PRC) central government launched a revolutionary reform of marketization and privatization of the economy with a mission of building a socialist market system. The economic reform soon caused the collapse of the most fundamental prerequisites for Chinese social policy: public ownership of the means of production, a centrally planned economic system and the egalitarian ideology (Guan, 2000). The industrialization and urbanization created unprecedented economic growth and technological advance, yet also brought a new set of social problems to Chinese society, such as urban unemployment, urban crime, economic inequality, regional disparities and so forth (Solinger, 1997; Wang, 2013). In 1984 the central government of PRC launched urban welfare reform with a key objective to relieve the welfare burden of society and local communities (Bray, 2006; Yan, 2002). As the primary social welfare department of the Chinese government, the Ministry of Civil Affairs (MCA) introduced the social work profession to improve civil affairs work (Xiong & Wang, 2007).

Establishing educational programs was the first step for the Chinese government to develop professional social work. In 1984, the Sociology Department of Sun Yat-Sen University in Guangzhou provided the first systematic social work training for sociology graduate students. Four years later, Peking University at Beijing became the first university that provided a bachelor's degree in social work (BSW). Since the Ministry of Civil Affairs (MCA) founded the China Association of Social Work Education (CASWE) in 1994, social work education has rapidly expanded within China. By the end of 2015, China had 321 Bachelor of Social Work programs, 104 Master of Social Work programs, and over 70 programs that provide a college degree (MCA, 2016). Each year they produce over 30,000 social work graduates. As the National Medium and Long-Term Talent Development Outline (2010-2020) called for a total of two million trained social workers by 2015, and three million by 2020, more social work programs will be created within the higher education system in the near future.

The goal of the Chinese social work educational program is to produce qualified professionals in the welfare and social service delivery system, yet the increasing number of social work education programs does not necessarily reflect a growing popularity of trained social work practitioners. During the past decade, very few social work graduates enter the professional field upon their graduation and even fewer stay. For example, among forty-three 2005 BSW graduates of Sun Yat-Sen University, one of the top universities in China, only six dedicated themselves to social work-related jobs or continued to pursue a master's degree in social work (Law & Gu, 2008). Only about 30 percent of social work graduates in Shanghai and Beijing work at professional positions in five years after graduation (Lou et al., 2012). Overall social work posts are not attractive to social work graduates in job market due to low social status and low payment (Law & Gu, 2008; Tsang et al., 2008), and this is an essential factor

contributing to the low rate of social work graduates becoming social workers and the high rate of social work turnover. This situation was criticized by Law and Gu (2008) as a waste of educational resources.

At the same time, the vast majority of social service practitioners have not received any professional training (Li et al., 2012). To increase the number of licensed social workers, all personnel working in the social service delivery system, state welfare system, and philanthropy institutions are encouraged to take social work licensure exams to become a professional social worker (Li et al., 2012). There is no threshold in terms of educational degree or practical experience for a social service deliverer to get a social work license. Individuals who pass the license exam, regardless of their educational background and work experiences, will be regarded as professional social workers. It is the license exam rather than formal education that serves to control the access to the new cadre of professional social workers in China (Leung et al., 2012). By the end of 2015, there were over 500,000 social work practitioners¹ in China, among which 206,183 were licensed social workers (MCA, 2016). The number of professional social workers is expected to reach three million by 2020 (Xinhuanet, 2010).

Many scholars consider formal education to be a precondition for an individual to become a professional (Bledstein, 1976; Freidson, 1999; Leighninger, 1978). Educational level is also found to be closely linked with the degree of professionalism among practitioners in many professions (Blau & Scott, 1962; Bledstein, 1976; Makeda, 2009). Differences in the educational level and educational major among practicing Chinese social workers may lead to a gap in the degree of professionalism among practitioners, which may eventually lead to disparities in

¹ In the Civil Affairs Work Report 2015, social work practitioners are the individuals who passed the licensure exam, obtained social work degree, or participated in social work trainings.

service quality. These educational gaps, if they exist, are surely detrimental to the professionalization of social work in China. The proposed study addresses whether educational background is associated with the degree of professionalism among Chinese social workers.

In addition to higher education, organizational development is another crucial factor influencing social work professionalism. The social work profession was born in organizations (Lubove, 1965; Scott, 1969; Noordegraaf, 2011). Almost all social services are delivered through social service agencies, public or private, for-profit or nonprofit, national or local. In mainland China, all social workers are employed by organizations, including governmental departments, quasi-governmental social service agencies, non-profit grass-roots organizations as well as public organizations (e.g., hospitals, schools, nursing homes). From 2008 to 2015, over 180,000 social work posts had been created in various governmental and non-governmental organizations (MCA, 2016). Nevertheless, there are more than 200,000 licensed social workers; hence at least 20,000 licensed social workers are not working at social work positions considering that some social work practitioners are not licensed.

Bureaucratization has been mentioned as a serious obstacle for the professionalization of social work by many Chinese scholars (Feng & Ding, 2014; Peng, 2010; Wen, 2009; Yang, 2001). They believe that the bureaucracy prohibits Chinese social workers from obtaining professional autonomy and independence, or building an equal relationship with clients. Social work graduates from the same educational program may experience different levels of professionalism when they start working in different types of organizations. Thus, in addition to examining the relationship between education and professionalism, the proposed study will also consider the level of organizational bureaucracy as a moderator of the relationship.

Background of the study

During the past few decades the Chinese government has been making greater efforts to develop social work nationwide. The government has created thousands of social work positions in various fields, expanded social work education programs, phased in social work supervision services from Hong Kong, imported knowledge and experiences from overseas, enacted policies and regulations on social work occupations, developed professional associations, built licensure and accreditation systems, provided continuing education and training, and contracted out evaluation services. Despite continuous and mighty government support, social work development in China still faces significant problems including contradictions to communist ideology, inadequate job opportunities, limited public recognition, an unfavorable organizational environment, a lack of an experienced and truly professional pool of providers, and a lack of professionalism (Leung, 2012; Tsang, et al., 2008; Tong, et al., 2009; Wong & Pearson, 2007; Xu et al., 2005; Yip, 2007). Most of the Chinese social work community feels that the overall lack of professionalism is the most severe problem the field currently faces (Wang, 2011; Wong, 2013).

The terms “professionalism” and “professionalization” are often used interchangeably. Vollmer and Mills (1966) made an effort to differentiate professionalism from professionalization. They claimed that professionalization is a social process involving occupations while professionalism is “an ideology and associated activities that can be found in many diverse occupational groups where members aspire to professional status (Vollmer & Mills, 1966, viii).” Ritzer (1975) defines professionalization as the process by which occupations become professions, while professionalism is defined as the process by which individuals become professionals. To summarize, professionalization is a characteristic of occupations. One aspect of professionalization is the professionalism of individuals who practice the profession.

Professionalism concerns the characteristics of individuals within a profession: their ideologies, attitudes, and competencies regarding the profession (Derber, 1983; Larson, 1979; Toren, 1972; Epstein, 1970). Whereas the proposed study has many implications for professionalization of social work in China, the specific research will focus on professionalism.

Hall (1968) pointed out that an individual professional should have five attitudinal attributes: 1) the use of the professional organization as a major reference, 2) a belief in service to the public, 3) a belief in self-regulation, 4) a sense of calling to the field, and 5) autonomy. Only with these attitudinal attributes, can individual practitioners of a profession be labeled professionals. And only with a large number of qualified individual professionals, can an occupation be called a profession (Hall, 1968; Schack & Hepler, 1979). As the attitudes held by practitioners toward their profession have a great impact on their professional behavior, job satisfaction, and retention in the field (Bartol, 1979, Hwang et al., 2009), it is necessary to make sure that the attitudinal professionalism among Chinese social work practitioners is promoted along with the development of this profession at structural level (i.e. policies, education, employment). The attitudinal attributes, namely attitudinal professionalism (referred to “professionalism” in this paper) among Chinese social workers are the focus of this study.

In the process of social work professionalism, higher education has played a crucial role (Larson, 1979; Leighninger, 1978). Qualifying education is the foundation for social work to claim its professional status (Beddoe, 2014). The degree of attitudinal professionalism has been found to be significantly related with educational levels. For example, in her dissertation, Makeda (2009) examined the relation between the degree of professionalism and academic degrees among 244 practicing registered nurses in South Texas. She found that the nurses with baccalaureate degrees present higher professionalism scores than those with associate or diploma

degrees. Yet other degrees did not predict different levels of professionalism. Neither age, practice years, nor practice field was found to be related to the degree of professionalism. A practitioner's expressed degree of satisfaction, salary and mentorship were found to be strong predictors of professionalism. Yet all the relationships are weak (with effect size <5%). The weak relationship between educational level and professionalism indicate there are other factors influencing professionalism, such as the degree of bureaucracy (Su-Mei, 1997).

Bureaucracy is manifested in specialization, hierarchy, routinization of activities and formalization of relationships (Wilensky & Lebeaux, 1958). In the perspective of the bureaucratization of professionals, professionals are hired by organizations and are expected to adapt to the bureaucratic environment (Scott, 1966). The bureaucratization of social work means that it is heavily regulated by the government or employment agencies through procedural guidelines and standards (O'Neill, 1999). Social welfare service delivery and social work professionalization in China are controlled and regulated by political bureaucracies (Yip, 2007). The majority social work positions were installed in existing public service systems which are directly operated by the Bureau of Civil Affairs or street offices (Leung, 2012; Yan et al., 2013). Facing overwhelming regulations and control, social workers may not be able to make professional judgments to provide the most effective services and therefore the field can lose the strengths of being a profession (O'Neill, 1999). Hall (1963) believed that an ideal-type bureaucratic organization should have the following six basic attributes: 1) a well-defined hierarchy of authority, 2) a division of labor based upon functional specialization, 3) a system of rules covering the rights and duties of positional incumbents, 4) a system of procedures for dealing with work situations, 5) impersonality of interpersonal relations, as well as 6) a promotion and hiring mechanism based upon technical competence. To measure the level of

bureaucracy, Hall (1963) designed a multi-dimensional scale to measure each of the attributes in the form of continua. An ideal bureaucratic organization is expected to have a high score on all of the attributes. Hall (1963) and Anderson (1977) found that the level of professionalism was significantly linked with the level of bureaucratization. It is possible that the formal education social workers receive and the bureaucracy of their organizations may interact to affect social workers' attitudinal professionalism.

Statement of the problem

The problem addressed in this study is whether formal education plays a role in impacting the degree of attitudinal professionalism among Chinese licensed social workers. Considering the potential significance of bureaucracy in buffering professionalism, this study will also identify and illustrate the potential impact that bureaucracy has on the relationship between education and professionalism. The conceptual framework of the proposed study is presented in Figure 1. Research on the links between education and professionalism has generally shown a positive relationship. Studies examining the relation between bureaucracy and professionalism have generally shown mixed results. Yet to my knowledge, no study has examined the interaction between educational background and level of bureaucracy on social work professionalism.

Purpose of the Study

As a profession that originated from Western culture, social work may experience a differing process of professionalization in China. Theories and knowledge that have been demonstrated in Western research do not necessarily have the same qualities of explanation or predictability in China.

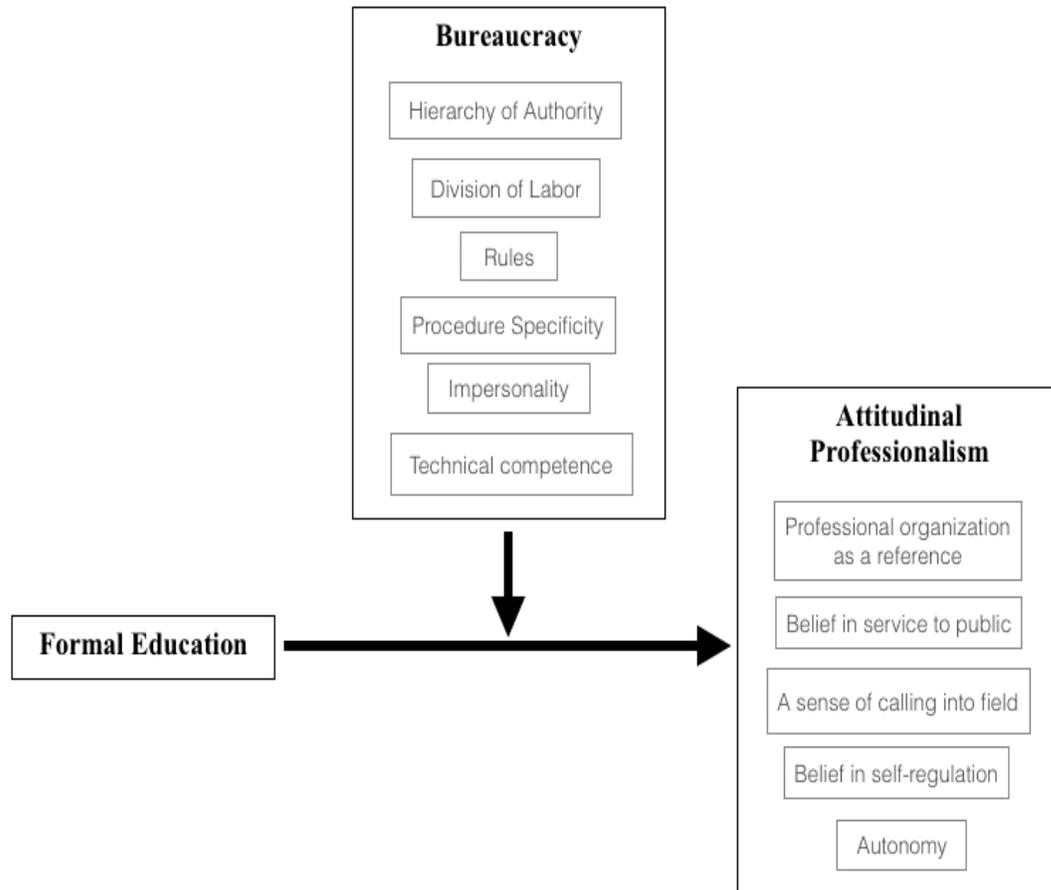


Figure 1: Conceptual framework: The Degree of Bureaucracy as a Moderator of the Relationship between Education and Professionalism

Furthermore, social work is a profession that emphasizes local contextualization (Hugman, 2009; Weiss-Gal & Welbourne, 2008). Every aspect in its professionalization has to be scrutinized to make sure that professional services meet local needs. Researchers who are interested in enhancing social work development in mainland China have been investigating many different aspects in the field, yet few of them have concentrated on social work practitioners and even fewer have studied Chinese social workers' professionalism.

To further develop the profession, attention has to be paid to individual practitioners and to improving their attitudes towards the social work profession so that they will stay and devote themselves to serving the public. This study intends to fill the gap and to identify, analyze, and

explain the variations in attitudinal professionalism among Chinese licensed social workers. The results of this study will provide empirical evidence on the current status of the attitudinal professionalism, educational background, and the organizational bureaucracy of Chinese social workers and their organizations, as well as their interrelationships.

Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

Research Question 1: Among Chinese licensed social workers, is the acquisition of formal social work education associated with the level of attitudinal professionalism?

Research Question 2: Do bureaucratic dimensions of social workers' agencies moderate the relationship between their educational background and attitudinal professionalism? If so, which bureaucratic dimensions moderate the relationship, and what are the moderating effects?

Significance of the Study

On the Sixth Plenary Meeting of the 16th Central Committee of the China Communist Party in 2006, the highest authority of People's Republic of China (PRC) emphasized the important role social work professionals can play in building a socialist and harmonious society. The social work profession has become a political tool in China's welfare and social service delivery system that is highly controlled by the government. No other profession has ever been given so much attention from the top authorities in China. Educators, researchers, practitioners, and policy makers are eager to demonstrate social workers' professionalism so that the government as well as the public is willing to purchase social work services and treat social workers as professionals rather than general service deliverers. Given the determination of the Chinese government to develop professional social work and the increasing social problems facing Chinese society, it is timely and imperative to conduct empirical studies on the relationships among the most important and fundamental components in the process of Chinese

social work professionalization, including practitioners' professionalism, so that more effective policies can be made in the clearer direction.

Chapter Summary

This chapter introduces the targeted phenomenon, the problems that are worth studying, and the research questions of this study. The Ministry of Civil Affairs introduced social work profession in China to improve welfare and social service delivery. With governmental support, hundreds of social work educational programs have been established in the past two decades. Nevertheless, the majority of social work graduates never enter social service field, whilst most social service practitioners have no professional trainings. To promote the professionalization of social work, the government encourages social service practitioners to take the licensure exam regardless of their educational background. Studies have found formal education a precondition for gaining professionalism, and the level of bureaucracy a significant factor influencing professionalism. The main targets of this study are the relationships among formal education, professionalism, and bureaucracy level experienced by licensed social workers in China. More specifically, this study intends to understand whether formal education plays a role in impacting the degree of attitudinal professionalism, and whether the level of bureaucracy has impact on the relationship between education and professionalism. The purpose of this study is to provide empirical evidence on the current status of the attitudinal professionalism, educational background, and the organizational bureaucracy of Chinese social workers and their organizations, as well as their interrelationships; so that more effective policies can be made in the clearer direction.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Modern social work in China is now thirty years old. The professionalization of social work has been always a hot topic in China ever since social work was introduced into China in the late 1980s. Even with a great deal of support from the Chinese government and overseas institutions, the eligibility of China's social work being a profession is still on debate.

The Professionalization of Social Work in China

The process of professionalization

The process of gaining professional status is called professionalization (Wilensky, 1964; Larson, 1979). Professionalization has historically been regarded as a phenomenon that originated in western industrial societies (Bledstein, 1976; Weber, 1968). Many scholars believed it was the industrialization and modernization starting in the late Middle Ages that contributed to the professionalization of traditional occupations like law, clergy, university teaching and medicine (Montagna, 1968; Larson, 1979; Wilensky, 1964). Based on the analysis of the development of eighteen occupations (six established professions, seven in process, three newcomers, and two doubtful occupations), Wilensky (1964) provided a typical sequence of how an occupation becomes a profession: members of the occupation 1) start doing full time, 2) present a need for training, 3) start to form a professional association, 4) present persistent political agitation to win the support of law, and finally 5) start to form a code of ethics. Wilensky (1964) claimed that an occupation that does not follow the typical sequence may experience power and status struggles, however he did not provide specific examples or a clear explanation about the causation. Though Abbott (1991) pointed out that the professions that fit

in Wilensky's sequence were mostly from North America rather than worldwide, the sequence is helpful to provide a vivid picture of the process of professionalization social work profession, which is the target of this study.

Social work as a profession was originated in England in the late nineteenth century (Lubove, 1969). In a thorough analysis of the development of social welfare and professional services in the United States, Wilensky and Lebueaux (1958) concluded that the rising professionalization of social work in America was attributed to specialization, changing technology, dissolving family, increasingly complex social problems and stratification caused by industrialization. Four decades after the establishment of Charity Organization Society and Settlement House Movement in the late nineteenth century (Addans, 1921; Hansan, 2013; Leiby, 1978; Lubove, 1969; Lymbery, 2005; Reinders, 1982), Flexner (1915) posed the famous question: is social work a profession? Flexner's critique is regarded as the turning point for social work pioneers to start pursuing a full professional status (Toren, 1969; Weiss-Gal & Welbourne, 2008). During the past century, social work educators and researchers around the world have made continuous efforts to achieve professional status. While social work has been recognized as a profession in the United States, Canada, United Kingdom, Australia and other developed countries, social work in China and in many other developing countries (e.g., Myanmar, Vietnam, Nigeria) is still in the beginning of professionalization.

Walton and El Nasr (1988) provided a perspective to conceptualize the professionalization of social work in developing countries. They mentioned that social work in developing countries was transferred from western countries through three steps: transmission, indigenization, and authentication. At the transmission stage, developing countries transplanted Western model of social work in education and practice without any modification. These

countries would move to the second stage when they receive poor results from the Western model. At the second stage, professional values, knowledge, and approaches are modified to meet indigenous needs. The last phase is the authentication stage, in which developing countries seek for more appropriate and effective domestic models. Social workers at this stage are encouraged to be creators of professional theories, knowledge, and interventions that can solve local problems (Walton & El Nasr, 1988). The indigenization and authentication of social work is an increasingly popular topic within international social work community in examining the social work professionalization in developing countries (Cheung & Liu, 2004; Gray & Coates, 2010; Wang, 2013). However, Ferguson (2005) regards the international dissemination of social work techniques as multidirectional and reciprocal between developing and developed countries. According to Ferguson (2005), the development of social work in developing countries is not a linear, stage-based, passive receiving process. Rather, the ideas and knowledge are continuously adapted and re-adapted from culture to culture (Ferguson, 2005). Both Wilensky (1964)'s professionalization sequence and Walton and El Nasr (1988)'s model of social work indigenization and authentication are considered in examining the process of professionalization of Chinese social work.

The process of professionalization of Chinese social work

Differing from American social work development, the process of social work professionalization in China does not quite match Wilensky (1964)'s sequence. Wilensky (1964) argues that occupations that do not follow the typical sequence of professionalization may experience power and status struggles: "The newer and more marginal professions often adopt new titles, announce elaborate codes of ethics, or set up paper organizations on a national level long before an institutional and technical base has been formed. Indeed, in a culture permeated by the idea of professionalism but little touched by its substance, many occupations

will be tempted to try everything at once or anything opportunity and expediency dictate (p. 146).” It is uncertain what the deviation from Wilensky (1964)’s typical sequence may directly lead to, there are indeed several problems facing China’s social work development: lack of qualified social work educators, lack of theoretical and practical knowledge, very few job opportunities, limited public recognition, and an unfavorable organizational environment (Yip, 2007; Wong & Pearson, 2007; Tsang et al., 2008; Tong et al., 2009; Leung, 2012). Yan, Gao and Lam (2013) found that Chinese social workers experience several challenges in field, such as a lack of recognition of their professional status, an unsettling induction process, and inadequate financial compensation. An and Chapman (2014) found that professional social workers in China regularly confront great bewilderment and technical difficulties in field.

Chinese government is responsible for the implementation of almost all public welfare and social services as well as nationwide social work development (Wang, 2013). The social work knowledge, skills, techniques, practices, even the ethics have been redefined by the government when they were introduced in China (Wang, 2013). Wang (2013) called this model as an “administrative management framework”, and called Chinese social work as “administrative social work.” Johnson (1972)’s theory of “mediated profession” can be used here to describe the current “administrative management framework” of Chinese social work. According to Johnson (1972), a state organization usually acts as mediator between the profession and its clients, deciding who the clients will be and what should be provided for them through a legal framework and the overall allocation of resources. Such a political process is regarded by many scholars as the indigenization and authentication of western social work in China (Feng & Ding, 2014; Liu, 1996; Peng, 2010; Yan, 2013; Yan & Cheung, 2006; Yan & Tsui, 2007; Yi, 2013). In addition to the political domain, Yip (2007) mentioned that there are

two other major domains that determine the process of professionalization of social work in China: the knowledge or professional domain, and the market or economic domain. With the strong support from the government, social work educational programs, professional associations as well as a code of ethics were widely established almost simultaneously before there were a group of full-time social workers. Such a process is a classic example of China looking for quick success and instant benefits (Tong et al., 2009).

In his dissertation, Wang (2011) interviewed thirty-four significant figures who had witnessed, experienced and influenced the development of social work within China to examine the professionalization process of social work there from 1978 to 2006. He concluded that as of 2006 the social work profession was still at a “pre-professional” stage of development, because of the disconnectedness between the three main contributors in developing social work: the state, the academic community and the society. This disconnectedness can be best illustrated by the disconnected relationship between the Ministry of Education (ME) and the Ministry of Civil Affairs (MCA) (Xiong & Wang, 2007). ME is responsible for offering higher education and providing professional degrees for social workers, while MCA is expected to offer social work jobs. Chinese scholars tend to name the development of social work academics as the professionalization of social work, and the development of social work practices as the vocationalization of social work (Wang, 2006; Xiang, 2008; Zhen, 2008). The professionalization of social work, concerned by social work educators and scholars, aims to improve social work education in accordance with international counterparts; while the vocationalization of social work, mostly supported by the MCA, is more interested in using social work knowledge and skills to improve the quality of services provided by traditional social service agencies (Wang, 2006; Zhen, 2008). Yan and Cheung

(2006) regard the tensions between MCA and ME as the manifestation of the competition of political power and control between different social forces in the indigenization process. They state that the two main forces choose two distinct approaches to develop social work because they have different definitions of “professionalism” of social work: to MCA, social work is heuristic, administrative, managing, and ideological; while to ME, social work is scientific, altruistic, helping, and humanistic (Yan & Cheung, 2006). The tensions between the two actors emerge when the MCA confronts great difficulties in creating appropriate job positions for social work graduates. The difficulties are triggered by two main reasons: First, MCA itself has a large number of civil affairs cadres who have no professional degree or formal training but have obtained extensive experiences in providing social services through years of fieldwork. The services provided by the civil affair cadres are very similar to professional social work services in western countries (Xiong & Wang, 2007). It is more practical and economical for MCA to train and certify these seasoned workers than to hire and train young inexperienced social workers (Yan & Cheung, 2006). Due to low social standing, low societal support, low compensation, and the heated competition from non-professional workers, the turnover rate among social workers is overwhelmingly high² (An & Chapman, 2014). Second, due to the disadvantages of current social work education, social work graduates cannot fit in the existing social service delivery system, nor can they demonstrate their professional roles and skills (Law, 2008; Li et al., 2012; Lou et al., 2012). The following two sections describe the development of social work higher education and social work employment with more details.

² Very few current professional social workers in China have over 5 years of work experience.

Social Work Higher Education in China

Background

In 1984, the central government of PRC launched an urban welfare reform with the key objective to relieve the welfare burden of society and local communities which were mainly caused by the economic reform of 1978 (Bray, 2006; Yan, 2002). Two years later, MCA created the term “socialization” to refer to the process of urban welfare reform. Since then urban welfare reform has been called “socialization of social welfare” (Wong, 1995; Wong & Poon, 2005; Yan & Gao, 2007). As the primary social welfare department of the Chinese government, MCA set up the mission to deal with the central government’s inability to meet citizens’ increasing needs of welfare and social services after economic reform (Derleth & Koldyk, 2004; Xiong & Wang, 2007; Xu & Chow, 2011; Yan & Cheung, 2006). In particular, MCA was determined to build up a system for the “Study of Civil Affairs” with the hope of greatly and quickly improving its marginal status in the central government as well as gaining more attention and support from upper leaders (Wang, 2011). Within a short period of time MCA established a research institute, founded several training centers, and published a journal called *Social Work Research*. After realizing that there was a lack of theoretical support and practical experience, between 1984 to 1987, MCA leaders paid several official visits to Hong Kong, North America and North European countries to learn about their social welfare system. They were very pleased to find out that their work actually has a strong theoretical foundation and has had become a well-developed profession in western countries, namely social work (Wang, 2011). In their minds, developing social work is to develop civil affairs work. When being introduced to China, social work was even sometimes mentioned equally with civil affairs work by MCA leaders (Wang, 2011). More importantly, they found that social work development perfectly fit their need of socializing social welfare. These trips made MCA

leaders decide to rationalize civil affairs, to professionalize civil affairs workers, and to develop social work education in China.

Formal educational programs

Beijing College of Social Administration was the very first college that began to provide social work college education. It was established in December 1983 by the Ministry of Civil Affairs (MCA) to provide training for civil affairs cadres (Ngai, 1996). In 1988, MCA offered Peking University one million RMB (equals to 268,670 US dollars at that time) to produce one hundred social work educators for MCA's training institutes and facilities within five years. Thanks to MCA, Peking University in Beijing was able to establish the first social work undergraduate program in China. It is unknown whether Peking University did successfully produce one hundred social work educators for MCA or not. Yet it is certain that soon after Peking University established their social work education program, other top universities such as Renmin University (Beijing) and Xiamen University followed. Many of these programs were set up under the Department of Sociology or other unrelated departments. In 1993, China Youth University of Political Sciences initiated a Social Work Department that offered four-year undergraduate degree for social work studies. One year later, another Social Work Department was established in China Women's University. Interestingly, not until recently undergraduates of social work programs had been rewarded with a bachelor's degree in Law (LL.B.) instead of a Bachelor of Social Work (BSW). Since MCA founded the China Association of Social Work Education (CASWE) in 1994, social work education has rapidly expanded in China.

Early in 2003, leading universities had started to accept graduate students for social work concentration provided by the Department of Public Management or the Department of Sociology with a degree in Master of Science. Not until 2009 social work master graduates

from Renmin University became the first group who received the degree of Master of Social Work (MSW). Following Renmin University's example, thirty-three other universities started providing MSW degrees in the same year. In 2011, another twenty-five universities were authorized by the Ministry of Education to provide MSW degrees. Within only 30 years, hundreds of social work programs have been established across China. By September 2014, China had over 70 vocational colleges, 321 universities providing social work undergraduate education, and 104 universities providing social work graduate education (Feng & Peng, 2016). Nevertheless, the increasing number of social work education programs does not necessarily reflect a growing popularity of social work as a major in higher education. As a matter of fact, the majority of social work students are passively assigned to the field (Law & Gu, 2008). According to a common university policy, applicants with lower High Education Examination scores automatically lose their rights of choosing their favorite majors (e.g. business, law) if they want to attend a particular university (Lou et al., 2012). Social work students are usually among this group and it is not easy for them to change majors once they are enrolled. Many students majored in social work by chance, not by interest. Li and Huang (2012) believed that the primary trend in social work education in China is to increase the number of educational programs and to recruit more students, rather than the quality of education and practitioners.

Currently social work formal education in China has three levels of academic degrees in social work: college degree (CSW), bachelor degree (BSW), and master degree (MSW). There is no program providing doctoral degrees in social work. Each degree of social work has its own unique characteristics. As the lowest level of the Chinese higher education system, college education is aimed to produce competent technicians within two or three years. The last semester of college education is field education. Compared to BSW, CSW has more specialty

fields for students to choose. For example, social work department of Beijing College of Social Administration has six specializations: community social work, poor relief, elderly care, children and youth work, medical social work, and judicial social work. These specialties are designed to meet the urgent needs of future employers, most of whom are the various departments and subsidiary bodies of the MCA. Undergraduate education is more focused on the general competencies of students. Students have to spend nearly half of their time studying a foreign language, computer science, mathematics, and humanities (Fei, 2002). The major social work courses cover the fundamental knowledge of social work, including the basic theories, practices with individuals, groups and communities, and social statistics (Ngai, 1996). Graduate education centers on specific knowledge and skills. According to the Guidance for Master of Social Work Program Development provided by the Academic Degrees Committee of the State Council (China Academic Degrees & Graduate Education Information, 2012), the goal of MSW education is to produce advanced social service and social management professionals. Students are required to complete at least thirty-six credit hours of classes within two years (full-time) or four years (part-time). A variety of elective courses are available for MSW students to choose. Additionally, a minimum of 800 hours of field education and two thesis credits are required to earn the degree (China Academic Degrees & Graduate Education Information, 2012).

Social work educational programs in China have adopted a very similar curriculum as that in western countries, especially in the United States. The curriculum adopted by social work programs across China is highly standardized with very few varieties (Li et al., 2012; Ngai, 1996; Yan et al., 2013). This situation did not result from national regulations or government policies but simply because there were not many options. Most universities and

colleges directly borrowed the curriculum, professional ethics and values, and even instructors directly from western countries with little to no changes (Li et al., 2012). Domestic social work educators are not trained in social work. They have some knowledge about social work theories and skills but very few of them have any social work practice experiences, which resulted in producing social work students without adequate professional skills and field education (Li et al., 2012). Xiong and Wang (2007) identified and summarized four disadvantages hindering social work education development in China during the 1980s and 1990s: 1) a lack of social work educators with a professional background (most of the early group of social work educators were “borrowed” from other fields such as sociology, psychology and anthropology); 2) a lack of indigenized social work curriculums and teaching material; 3) a lack of field placement resources as well as field supervisors for students; and 4) a lack of coherence between theory and practice. These disadvantages can also be identified in the new millennium (Li et al., 2012; Tsang et al., 2008; Yan et al., 2013).

Educational outcomes

Despite the disadvantages, most of the thirty-two graduating students from four BSW programs in Jinan, Shandong (eight students from each program) who participated in Yan and colleagues (2009) study found social work education to be very meaningful training in terms of personal growth and were optimistic about the future of the field in China, albeit only five of them reported an interest in actually looking for social work-related jobs upon graduation. In another study conducted in the same city (Jinan), among the graduates who have worked at social work jobs for between one month and two years, the majority of the 28 participants agreed that the theories and values they internalized during formal training were useful for them to understand the field and to be motivated to enter this field (Yan et al., 2013).

Leung and colleagues (2012) stated that the Chinese government is more attracted to the psychological and interpersonal techniques of social work, rather than the humanitarian values. Such a preference is clearly manifested in social work education. Tsang and Yan (2005) conducted a study regarding 47 Chinese social work scholars' opinions on the nature of social work both as a discipline and as a profession in China. They concluded that in China, social work's existence is predicted not only on its capability to resolve personal problems but more importantly on its instrumental value in maintaining a stable social environment for economic reform and growth, which is the top priority for the central government. Social work students are therefore expected to support the government and its primary political agenda, as well as to embrace its underlying ideology (Tsang & Yan, 2005). Lou and colleagues (2012) surveyed 1,328 social work undergraduate students from seven universities in Beijing and Shanghai to examine their attitudes toward the humanitarian welfare values, illustrated by the respect for individual rights and social justice-one of the foundations of social work development. The findings showed that in general students did not present strong humanitarian welfare values. Among the respondents, only half strongly supported legal protection in welfare delivery, about thirty percent supported providing health and other services for vulnerable population, less than six percent strongly supported equality, and even fewer strongly supported public housing (Lou et al., 2012). The authors attributed the passive attitude toward humanitarian values to the incompatibility between Chinese cultural traditions and western ideology, and to the fact that Chinese government and social work education programs never recognize nor favor western humanitarian welfare values (Lou et al., 2012). The trend of focusing more on social work's instrumental techniques rather than its humanitarian values is evident in the post settings of social work in social service delivery system.

Social Work Post Setting in China

The development of welfare and social services in urban China has always been closely associated with the Ministry of Civil Affairs (MCA). The MCA was established in May 1978 derived from its predecessor the Ministry of Internal Affairs. According to the most recent information provided on MCA website³, MCA has several divisions including Social Relief Division, Social Affairs Division, Personnel/ Social Work Division, Grassroots Polity and Community Construction Division, and Social Welfare and Charity Promotion Division. The MCA has a bureau at all levels of local governments to monitor the implementation of state policies and regulations. The main responsibilities of Municipal Bureau of Civil Affairs include: draft and implement local laws regarding civil affairs, supervise and support social organizations, take charge of veteran services and resettlement, and organize disaster relief and social relief (China Daily, 2012). It is safe to conclude that the entire welfare and social service delivery system in China is highly controlled and staffed by the Ministry of Civil Affairs.

The first social work posts were created by the MCA in public nursing homes in 2000 (Leung, 2012; Xiong & Wang, 2007). Prior to that there was little clarity about what constituted social work posts in China (Yuen-Tsang & Wang, 2002). During the following years, several national policies were transmitted to urge the establishment of social work posts in the fields of social welfare, social relief, community services, and other civil affairs. In 2008, the MCA's Guiding Opinion on Post Setting in Civil Affairs Public Institutions specified social work posts as technical posts, which should compose at least seventy percent of posts in civil affairs public institutions (MCA, 2008). Social work posts are those who provide direct services and have contacts with clients in person (MCA, 2008). By 2015, more than 181,273

³ The following information was retrieved from the official website of the Ministry of Civil Affairs <http://www.mca.gov.cn/>.

social work posts and over 455 social work agencies had been established nationwide (MCA, 2016). It is noteworthy that creating social work posts does not necessarily mean hiring more professional social workers. The most common approach for local governments to meet MCA's requirements is to transform current workers to professional social workers through taking the licensure exam (SZMZ, 2008). Thus, most social work posts in China exist in civil affairs public institutions and are occupied by individuals with no formal education in social work.

The following paragraphs provide a brief introduction of the major civil affairs public institutions at local level, which can be categorized into two types: governmental and quasi-governmental organizations, and non-governmental organizations. Social work posts provided by the MCA and its local offices are the most popular ones among social work graduates (Yuen-Tsang & Wang, 2002). The main reason is perhaps that the social work posts in governmental and quasi-governmental organizations enjoy the government staff status, which means a reputable job and stable benefits. In Sha et al. (2012)'s study, among 1,328 social work students from seven universities in Beijing and Shanghai, over 40 percent undergraduate students chose governmental organizations as their most preferred work setting, and 45.7 percent graduate students chose higher education institutions as their most preferred work setting; only 20.4 percent undergraduate students and 20 percent graduate students chose non-governmental organizations as their second most preferred work setting.

Governmental and quasi-governmental organizations

Street Office. Street offices are in charge of public affairs in communities as the lowest level of the formal municipal administration (Wong & Poon, 2005). Street offices perform multiple and comprehensive administrative functions carrying out economic, political, cultural, recreational, environmental-important, welfare, and neighborhood-management tasks, among which welfare delivery is only a small part of street office's responsibilities (Chan, 1993; Chen,

1996). An administrative street office can cover between 1200 and 5000 households, which are further divided into a number of residents' committees with 100-600 households for each (Wong, 1992). In the 1950s, street offices were basic administrative units for socialist construction; since the economic reform in 1979, its emphasis has shifted to economic construction (Chan, 1993). It has assumed a major role in the planning and implementation of various community construction projects, including the expansion of welfare services, the creation of community livelihood and convenience services, and the building of community facilities such as elderly centers, day care centers and community cultural stations (Wong & Poon, 2005). The Party Secretary plays an important role in daily decision-making of the Street Office management (Wong & Poon, 2005). All important policy decisions have to be approved by the Party Committee which consists of the Party Secretary and a few other key leaders in the Street Office. The representative of the Ministry of Civil Affairs at Street Office is called civil affairs assistant. Chen (1996) observed that street office has been experiencing several obstacles: 1) the demands on street offices are multifold and the street office is heavily overloaded; 2) street offices are generally understaffed, and the cadres are underpaid and overworked; 3) the importance of street work is not well appreciated by the government or the general public.

Wong and Pearson (2007) investigated the experiences of nine Master of Social Work (MSW) students in their field education from two street offices in Shanghai. These students were allocated to work with discharged psychiatric patients and their families, people with disabilities and their families, adolescents from single parent families as well as volunteers. Their daily work included home visits, needs assessment, group works, and designing projects. Though the participants of this study were only interns, their experiences, to some extent, mirror the

situations of traditional street office workers in Shanghai. Wong and Pearson (2007) found that Shanghai residents had little knowledge about social work, making it difficult for interns to introduce themselves and build relationships with clients. Since Chinese people are not used to looking for services from street offices, interns of street office had to go out and find potential clients or had to “sell” their services to the population they thought may need their help. Nevertheless, the services and resources interns could provide were actually quite limited. The most needed services, such as legal, housing, financial aid and medical care, were out of interns’ reach. A lack of social service network also made service referrals inconceivable. The service provisions that interns could easily to be engaged were individual counseling and family therapy. Yet there was no facility available in street office for interns to conduct such activities. Students had to meet with their clients in public space, such as cafes and parks, where provides little privacy for confidential conversations or conduct short interviews during home visits.

Specialized social service agencies. Before the economic reform, all wages, welfare benefits, prices of food and other major commodities were centrally planned, and all social services were delivered by local governments while private charitable organizations were eliminated (Chan, 1993; Xu & Ngai, 2011). Though economic reform broke previous centrally-planned economic system and triggered urban welfare reform, much of social service and welfare systems never went out of government control. While grass-roots social service agencies and non-governmental organizations face many developmental difficulties such as lack of resources, policy constraints and a limited market, the Chinese central government has established several quasi-governmental organizations trying to fill in the gaps. These organizations are called “specialized social service agencies”, including All China Women’s Federation, Chinese Communist Youth League of China, China Disabled Persons’ Federation,

China National Committee on Ageing, China Center for Children's Welfare and Adoption, National Narcotics Control Commission, All China Federation of Trade Unions, Chinese Family Planning Association, and China Charity Federation, to name a few (Chen, 1993; Li et al., 2012).

Most of these agencies were governed by MCA and were established in the late 1980s and the early 1990s. They are responsible for enacting policies as well as the delivery of social services targeting at different populations, most of which are disadvantaged groups. Similar to a government organization, all quasi-governmental organizations have a central office in the central government which belongs to different departments. At all levels of local governments (province, municipal, county, street), the quasi-governmental organizations also have a separate office that functions as a government department (Chen, 1996). Through the vertical administrative system, quasi-governmental organizations are able to work with all levels of governments and deliver social services to local communities. Currently there are nearly 500,000 workers employed by these organizations, most of whom are retired workers or lay-off workers who have no professional background (Xiong & Wang, 2007). Their personnel quotas, payrolls and benefits are managed the same way as those of governmental officials (Chen, 1996).

Social work associations. All national professional and educational associations in China such as China Association of Social Workers (CASW), China Association of Social Work Education (CASWE), Chinese Medical Doctor Association (CMDA), China Association for Science and Technology (CAST), All China Lawyers Association (ACLA), and Chinese Young Teacher Association (CYTA) are directly governed and supported by different departments of the central government⁴. All major decisions of these associations have to be

⁴ CASW and CASWE are governed by MCA, CMDA is governed by the Ministry of Health, CAST is governed by the State Office, ACLA is governed by the Ministry of Justice, CYTA is governed by the Ministry of Education.

granted by their superior governors. In 1991, CASW was founded under the guidance of MCA, albeit with no social work practitioners. The first president of CASW was then minister of the MCA. The next year CASW joined International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW). With limited experiences MCA founded China Association of Social Work Education (CASWE) in 1994 to standardize social work training programs. Since then social work education has been expanding rapidly in China. Professional associations can have branches in each administrative level of Chinese government. According to the data published by China Association of Social Workers (CASW, 2014), by August 2014, 22 out of 31 provinces have established 24 province-level social work associations, including three associations in Guangdong province, 77 out of 333 cities have established municipal-level social work associations, and 109 counties have established local ones. In total there are about 400 social work associations spread out in different levels of government bureaucratic system nationwide. These associations monitor the professionalization of Chinese social work by publishing ethics of codes, building up examination and licensure system, setting practice standards, providing continuing education, and implementing government policies and regulations.

Ideally Chinese social work associations should have the following different roles: a booster for social construction movement in socializing social welfare, a partner for the government to share administrative burden, a guardian for Chinese social workers to meet professional standards and regulations, and a leader for social work agencies to become professional, independent, and sustainable (Feng & Ding, 2014). In reality, as quasi-governmental organizations, professional associations in China overall tend to focus on the first two roles while the last two professional roles are largely overlooked. As a result, social work professionals' associations remain unattractive to individual practitioners to pay for

membership. As Luo (2011) indicated, Chinese government founded social work associations without a thorough understanding of what kind of professional association China's social workers need. Due to premature knowledge and limited practical experiences, social work associations are unable to reach an agreement on professional standards, the academic threshold of being a social worker, an appropriate compensation system, or professionalism evaluation method (Luo, 2011). To survive, these associations have to compete with each other or bid for governmental contracting services, resulting in even fewer time and energy serving their members.

Non-governmental organizations

Residents' Committee. One uniqueness of China's service delivery model is that nearly all services and programs are administrated by and/or collaborate with the Urban Residents' Committee, which is neighborhood-level, quasi-governmental organizations that the central government has mandated in all cities, towns and rural areas across China (Xu & Chow, 2011). Residents' committee network is the most common grassroots structure in the PRC (Chan, 1993). Residents' committee has been historically regarded as an agent or dispatch of street office, though it was defined as a non-governmental, autonomous, and democratic grassroots organization in the Constitution (Benewick & Takahara, 2002). Residents' committees have two constitutionally mandated functions: providing social services to residents and maintaining public order (Choate, 1998; Mok, 1988). According to scholars' descriptions of the functions of residents' committees across time, they have not been changed very much since the foundation of residents' committee (Chan, 1993; Choate, 1998; Dixon, 1981; Leung, 1990; Mok, 1988; Wong & Poon, 2005).

Based on a survey of 2824 residents' committee members from 293 communities belonging to 31 cities, Xiang (2008) found that 63.12% of the committee members were

female, 91.49% were party members, 92.6% were over 30 years old, 46.21% did not have a college degree, and 61.3% were unemployed. Among 55 community workers from three communities in Hangzhou, Zhu (2011) found that 50.9% of the workers had a bachelor degree or beyond, only 10.9% had taken social science courses, 52.7% of community residents reported being familiar with community workers, the pressure community workers felt most come from overburden duties (87%) and low social status (40.7%). In Lin et al.'s (2011)'s study, none of the community residents' committees had a degree or extensive training in social work, community development, counseling, psychology or other human service-related areas. Xu and Jones (2004) conducted a case study in an urban neighborhood in Beijing and found that urban neighborhood committee was under the control of the government and thus did not have much autonomy. Xiang (2008) and Zhu (2011) stated that the major problems for resident's committees were: 1) ambiguous work identity and low social status; 2) low education level and low income; 3) a lack of workers with professional knowledge and skills; 4) unclear sources of recruitment and low threshold of the work; and 5) unclear work responsibility and almost unbearable work pressure

Social work agency. Facing the little room in the traditional social service delivery system for professional social workers, a type of non-governmental non-profit social service agency was created: social work agency. Social work agency is expected to hire social work graduates and to promote professional social work development. China's first social work agency, Shanghai Lequn Social Worker Service⁵, was established with the help of Shanghai MCA in 2003 to provide a variety of social services. By November 2012, China has over 1000

⁵ Shanghai Lequn Social Worker Service is a nonprofit organization which was established on the basis of a migrant education program managed by Shanghai Association of Social Workers. It provides various services to children, youth, elderly people and other voluntary population.

social work agencies across the nation (Xinhuanet, 2012). This number is expected to reach 80,000 by 2020 (MCA, 2012). In Shenzhen, a major city in Guangdong Province, there were 135 social work agencies (including social work associations) hiring 5268 social workers (Li & Luo, 2015) by the end of 2014. Through a bidding process for government contracting, these agencies are able to win government funding to social service delivery, which account for over 80 percent of their financial resources. These agencies are responsible for hiring and training social workers as well as positioning them in different social service organizations which are mostly attached to the government, such as hospitals, public schools, nursing homes, government departments (e.g. education, legal, welfare) and quasi-governmental organizations (e.g. China Disabled Persons' Federation, China Association of Social Workers). For most social work agencies, they have little autonomy in deciding what services or interventions to provide, especially when most of their services are purchased and regulated by the government (Tong et al, 2009).

The majority (60.3%) of Shenzhen social workers are working in community service centers. Community social workers, also named as program social workers, are assigned by social work agencies to work in community service centers, which is a platform for the government to provide community services and maintain social stability in local communities. Community service centers (CSCs) are one of the most popular community-based service delivery entities developed by the local government to provide various services to local residents, including people with disabilities, elderly residents, children, women and families (Wu et al., 2005). As Xu et al. (2005) indicated, CSCs are aimed at centralizing all kinds of community services and making them more accessible to residents. Early in the 1990s thousands of CSCs were established throughout China (Yan, 2002). Differing from traditional quasi-governmental community organizations which are directly attached to the street office,

CSCs are not required to assume any administrative responsibilities. Rather, they are the physical platforms established by the government to involve various social sectors in community service delivery (Wong & Poon, 2005; Xu et al., 2005).

Dispatched social workers are social workers assigned by their agencies to a variety of positions in other organizations, mostly governmental departments, quasi-governmental social service organizations, and public institutions, including street offices, schools, hospitals, justice offices, China Narcotics Control Commission, China Disabled Person's Federation and so forth. These organizations would first choose social work agencies through public bidding, and then the chosen social work agencies would provide qualified social workers based on one-year contract (Yan et al., 2013). If host organizations are not satisfied with the assigned social worker, they could ask for a different person or turn to another agency. Host organizations have the right to assign different tasks to their positioned social workers and to evaluate their performance. Yan and colleagues (2013) conducted a qualitative study in Jinan, a northern major city of China, to explore the experiences of 28 dispatched social workers at their jobs. The majority of the participants had been employed for less than six months. The participants reported that they were often treated as unwelcome outsiders, temporary workers with no status, or threats to job security by local staff. Due to a lack of systematic and adequate induction and a lack of mentors and supervisors, they had little idea about their roles and duties. They were often assigned with trivial tasks such as clerical work and nursing care. Their monthly income was also no higher than a clerk or a caregiver, which ranges from RMB900 (US\$150) to RMB1,600 (US\$250). Despite all these challenges, 18 out of 28 participants believed that social work profession had a promising future in China, considering the strong government support. However, only five of them were certain that they would stay in this field (Yan et al., 2013).

Social Work Licensure System in China

In order to regulate and promote the professionalization of social work, the central government has enacted several nationwide policies including the *Details of Social Worker Continuing Education Implementation* (2011), the *Mid- to Long-term Planning of Building Social Work Professional Community* (2011-2020), and the *Guidance of the Ministry of Civil Affairs and the Ministry of Finance on the Governmental Purchase of Social Work Services* (2012), to name a few. The most significant ones are the *Provisional Regulations on the Assessment of the Vocational Standards of Social Workers* (referring to "Regulations") and the *Implementation Measures of the Examination Regarding Professional Qualifications of Junior Social Workers and Social Workers* (referring to "Measures") issued by Ministry of Civil Affairs and Ministry of Personnel in 2006. These two governmental documents indicate the government's recognition of social work as a profession and a technical occupation in China (MCA, 2006). According to the *Regulations*, social work has three occupational levels: Junior social worker (JSW), intermediate social worker (ISW), and senior social worker (SSW). Each level has a national examination and the license is recognized by all provinces. Currently there are only regulations and implementation measures of the examination for JSW and ISW. The path to obtain SSW has not yet been clarified.

Licensure exam

The licensure exam provides professional status and identity for social service deliverers; it is also the basis for developing more social work posts, in other words, creating more jobs (MCA, 2006). However, the license requirement is not linked with the social work curriculum in China (Li et al., 2012).

The very first social work licensure exam was organized by Shanghai Ministry of Civil Affairs (MCA) in 2003. In 2008, MCA hosted the first national social work professional

examination in June. Since then, the two-day social work licensure exam is given every year by the MCA in June. Hundreds of exam sites are set up in local provinces. The examination has three separate tests: social work general competence, social work practice, and social work laws and policies, among which social work practice is generally regarded as the most difficult part since its questions are all case studies (Yan, 2013). JSWs have to pass the first two tests in one year, while ISWs have to pass all three tests in two years. The themes of social work tests reflect that the basic characteristics of the Chinese social work licensure exam are focused on professionalism, competence, and indigenization (Yan, 2013). The rate of passing the licensure exam ranges from 11.5% to 22.9% for the past seven years. By the end of 2015, there were 154,000 JSWs and 52,000 ISWs in total (MAC, 2016).

Below are the minimal requirements for taking JSW and ISW examinations (MCA, 2006):

Table 1: Examination Requirements for JSW and ISW

Population	JSW	ISW
For high school graduates	At least four years of practice	At least six years of practice with JSW
For social work college graduates	At least two years of practice	At least four years of practice
For BSW graduates	NONE	At least three years of practice
For MSW graduates	NONE	At least one year of practice
For social work Ph.D.	NONE	NONE
For non-social work college graduates	At least four years of practice	At least six years of practice
For non-social work undergraduate graduates and beyond degrees	At least two years of practice	At least four years of practice

Yan (2013) studied 1,072 social work license holders from nine regions across China⁶ to examine the influence of social work licensure exam on the construction of professional social workers. Among all respondents, 75% were females, 62.8% were under 35 years old, 71% had bachelor's degrees and beyond, 60.7% were educated in social work-related field (including sociology, social work, law and education), and 46.4% were community social workers. The demographic characteristics of licensed social workers in Yan's study are slightly different from those found in Wang's (2012) study of licensed social workers (from 2008 to 2011) from Liaoning, Tianjin, Ningxia, and Xinjiang province⁷. Wang's data showed that most of the registered social workers (2,721) from the four provinces were JSW (78.7%) and females (87%), had bachelor's degrees and beyond (50.0%), studied in a non-social work related field (60.8%), had graduated over 6 years ago (67%), and were working in communities (63.8%). The mean age of the respondents was 36. The differences between two groups of participants demonstrated the regional disparity of China social work development.

In Yan (2013)'s study, respondents were asked if the exam appropriately reflects social work professionalism, practical competence, or indigenization, 73.1% respondents reported that the level of social work professionalism was above average, 54.4% thought the level of practice competence was above average, while only 44.3% thought the level of indigenization was above average. Among all respondents, only 29.3% ever used the license to apply for a job, over half of whom were from Guangdong province, which is understandable since Guangdong

⁶ The researchers delivered 1500 questionnaires to registered social workers from nine regions: Beijing, Shanghai, Guangdong, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Henan, Shanxi, Inner Mongolia, and Ningxia. They received 1290 questionnaires back, among which 1072 valid data were used in this study.

⁷The four provinces with the highest registration rate of social workers, possibly because they have smaller number of social workers in total.

province is the pioneer in developing social work profession and currently has the largest number of social service agencies. Nevertheless, for those who never used their licenses to apply for a job, these licenses are still useful to increase their salary level, as 60.7% of respondents reported an increase (ranging from 36.4% to 81.3%) of their salary after they get a license. Regarding the impact of social work license exam, the majority respondents' reports are positive. They think the exam promotes the overall quality of social service deliverers (84.6%), provides the direction of professional social services (82.2%), increases public recognition of social workers (80.4%), promoted the development of social work occupational system (86.8%), makes more young people choose social work as their career (69.4%), promotes social work education development (86.5%), and assists social service agencies to hire employees more conveniently and more effectively (79%). In the end of the study, the author concluded that, first, social work license exam has expanded the path for social work development because a large number of social service deliverers are able to turn into professionals through passing the exam rather than spending at least four years in college. Such a path is regarded as a shortcut to build a massive team of professional social workers and to quickly increase the quality of social service deliverers. Second, social work license exam has promoted the construction of a social work occupational system. In particular, social work licensure has increased social work's public recognition, especially employers' knowledge of social work professional identity, and it has increased social work's social status and salary level. Furthermore, the social work license exam has promoted the construction of social work agencies and associations (Yan, 2013). Nevertheless, Song (2014) argues that professional examinations are actually unable to ensure the quality of licensed social workers, especially the acceptance of social work codes of ethics among licensed social workers. Song (2014) states

that only formal education can help social workers truly understand professional values, concepts and codes of ethics.

Continuing education

In 2009, MCA announced *Implementations of Social Work Continuing Education* (referring to "Implementation"). The Implementation states that the aim of social work continuing education is to assist social workers: to maintain professional ethics of codes, to update, enrich and promote professional knowledge and skills, and to improve service quality. MCA is in charge of the continuing education while social work agencies provide necessary support for their employees to attend training or classes. The contents of continuing education include: professional ethics of codes, social work policies and regulations, social work practice, and relative theoretical knowledge.

The Implementation requires that, within the effective period of the license (three years), JSW should take no less than 72 hours of continuing education, ISW and SSW should take no less than 90 hours. Interestingly, there is no penalty for those who cannot meet the required hours. Local governments enacted their own continuing education policies based on the national regulation. For example, Shenzhen MCA announced *Shenzhen Social Workers Continuing Education Implementation Regulations (Trial)* in 2007, requiring that licensed social workers registered in Shenzhen should take no less than 15 days of continuing education per year, otherwise their licenses cannot be renewed (Wang & Zhang, 2011). The providers of continuing training and courses are usually instructors from colleges and universities, or seasoned practitioners from social service fields.

For licensed social workers without any formal social work education, continuing education is the main means for them to learn social work professional knowledge and skills (Wang & Zhang, 2011). Nevertheless, unsystematic and sporadic trainings cannot compensate

the loss of four-year college education (Song, 2014). Social work values and ethic of codes may be mentioned only briefly, and professional theories and skills cannot go deep in trainings (Wang & Zhang, 2011). Wang and Zhang (2011) points out several problems of current social work continuing education system: 1) it only focuses on quantity of the trainings, not their quality. Most of the training resources are from Hong Kong or overseas, which may not compatible with Chinese characteristics. 2) The teaching methods are restricted to lecturing, which are unattractive to social workers. 3) Education material is neither systematic nor standardized. 4) There is no evaluation of the effectiveness of social work continuing education.

Professional social workers

In 2011, eighteen central ministries co-published a proposal on building stronger professional capacity among social workers (MCA, 2011). In the proposal, social workers are defined as “professionals with social work knowledge and skills that provide direct social services in the following areas: social welfare, social relief, charity, community building, marriage and family, mental health, disability rehabilitation, education, counseling, employment assistance, crime prevention, anti-drug treatment, correction assistance and education, family planning, dispute resolution and emergency intervention” (MCA, 2011, para.2). This official definition refers to social workers in China as social service deliverers with social work knowledge and skills. As Xiong and Wang (2007) stated, the services provided by professional social work services in western countries are very similar to the civil affair cadres.

According to Leighninger (1978), the core of professionalism is to distinguish professionals from amateurs and paraprofessionals. Professionals are people who adhere to a set of professional norms, have the competence in special bodies of knowledge as well as

techniques, and aim to provide public services to meet certain social needs (Larson, 1979; Wilensky, 1964). They are usually seen as superior to merely experienced workers for they are formally trained and they acquire complex knowledge and special skills (Bledstein, 1976; Carr-Saunders & Wilson, 1964; Greenwood, 1957). Only with a large amount of qualified individual professionals, can an occupation be called as a profession (Hall, 1968; Schack & Hepler, 1979). The high turnover rate among Chinese social workers is a severe problem and has been mentioned frequently by both governors and researchers (Policy Research Center of MCA, 2013; Sznews, 2015). Often they tend to blame the low payment and unclear promotion system. The key strategic decision made by the MCA in its recent suggestions about promoting the social work community is to build an incentive and reward system (MCA, 2011). Yet the professionalism of practitioners, namely their ideologies, attitudes, and competences regarding the profession, also have a great impact on their professional behaviors, job satisfaction as well as their retention (Kalbers & Fogarty, 1995; Li et al., 2012; Lui et al., 2003).

The Professionalism of Social Workers

Professionalism is different from professionalization. In this study, professionalization refers to the process of a whole occupation becoming a profession. The development of social work education, employment and licensure system are the typical manifestations of social work professionalization. Upon the completion of professionalization, a profession should have obtained the following attributes: 1) a basic body of theoretical knowledge, 2) special skills and competence of members, 3) a code of ethics to guide professional conduct, 4) formal professional associations, and 5) community sanction (Flexner, 1915; Goode, 1969; Greenwood, 1957; Toren, 1969; Weiss-Gal & Welbourne, 2008; Wilensky, 1964). These attributes are in general structural and can be achieved in the process of professionalization. Articles of the 1950s and 1960s tended to regard professionalism with both structural and

attitudinal attributes (Hall, 1968; Hammer, 2000), yet more recent studies defined professionalism at individual level, namely the characteristics of individual professionals, such as an individual's values, goals, and beliefs towards his or her profession (Lui et al., 2003).

Bartol (1979) measured the professionalism of computer specialists with the following five dimensions: desire for professional autonomy, commitment to the profession, identification with the profession, professional ethics, and belief in collegial maintenance of standards. In Lui et al (2003)'s study of accountants in Hong Kong, professionalism was measured by another five dimensions of professionalism: acquiring knowledge, acting independently, accepting status, providing help, and exhibiting professional commitment. The professionalism scale used in Hwang et al (2009)'s study of nursing was composed of five sub-scales: self-concept of the profession, social awareness, nursing service roles, professional status of nursing, and originality of nursing. All these studies defined professionalism at individual level and supported the statement that professionalism is significantly related to individual's work outcomes. Hwang and colleagues (2009) found that professionalism of Korean and Chinese nurses was a significant factor on job satisfaction for both groups. Professionalism is also found to be positively related with job performance, job satisfaction among accountants and auditors (Kalbers & Fogarty, 1995; Lui et al., 2003). In contrast, people with low level of professionalism may lead to frustration, anxiety, and dissatisfaction towards their work (Lui et al., 2003). Bartol (1979) found that, among randomly selected 250 computer specialists, professionalism is positively related to the degree of commitment to organizations and negatively related to turnover expectancy.

One of the widely used professionalism scales is from Hall (1968), which is focused on the attitudinal attributes of professionals. Hall's Professionalism Scale and its later revisions

have been used widely to examine the professionalism on different professions, such as pharmacists (Schack & Hepler, 1979), nurses (Cohen & Kol, 2004; Makeda, 2009), teachers (Freeman, 1994), accountants (Hafer et al. 2002), lawyers (Miller & Fry, 1976), building professionals (Chan et al., 2007), engineers (Kerr et al., 1977), as well as social workers (Anderson, 1977; Munnell, 1972). According to Hall (1968), a professional should also have certain attitudinal attributes: 1) the use of a professional organization as a major reference, 2) a belief in service to the public, 3) belief in self-regulation, 4) a sense of calling to the field, and 5) autonomy. Each attribute plays a crucial role in the process of professionalization.

The use of the professional organization as a major reference. A professional association is a group organized to initiate and promote general professional objectives of the entire profession. Professional associations aim to enhance and reinforce a profession's values, code of ethics, and practical standards through occupational control and socialization (Noordegraaf, 2011). Hall (1968) believes that formal and informal professional organizations provide a kind of belongingness and security for professionals. These professional associations helped the profession to gain public recognition and the support of law for social work (Leighninger, 1978). Individuals who work in professions rely on other members as their primary reference group and it is through association with each other that practitioners are able to lobby together to gain more control over each other and their work (Hall, 1968).

Belief in service to the public. This dimension states that professionals ought to believe that their work is beneficial for the public and clients (Hall, 1968). Professionals are motivated to provide public services to meet certain social needs (Larson, 1979; Wilensky, 1964). To establish the superiority of professionals over laymen and untrained practitioners, professionals

are focused on providing distinct, beneficial, and indispensable services to the society (Larson, 1979). Such beliefs have particular relevance for helping professions, such as social work.

Wanting to help others is a frequently reported altruistic reason for individuals to become a helping professional (Farmer & Fedor, 2001). Altruism is more than a belief in service to the public, or the concern and empathy for the welfare of others, it also means taking actions to benefit others (Emmerik et al., 2005). Emmerik and colleagues (2005) found that altruism was positively associated with organizational citizenship behaviors, namely the helping behaviors in the workplace that benefit colleagues and organizations. Historically social work is a profession with altruism (Lubove, 1969). The commitment to help the poor and solve social problems is the fundamental value of social work (Lymbery, 2005; Reinders, 1982). A recent empirical study conducted by Stoltzfus (2015) showed that the desire to help others was the most common response to the motivation for pursuing a degree in social work among of 176 Russian Federation social work students. In Pösö and Forsman (2013)'s study, the commitment to clients was the main reason for Finnish child welfare social workers to continue their work.

Belief in self-regulation. This dimension reflects the belief among professionals that the control and judgment regarding their professional behaviors should only come from professional peers or colleagues (Hall, 1968). Professionals serve as supervisors, managers, chief executive officers and owners in their own community to regulation and evaluate members' performance (Freidson, 1984; Scott, 1965). Ideally, professionals are largely free of the hierarchical control from nonprofessionals; instead, they are subject only to informal collegial control (Freidson, 1984). To regulate and avoid the misuse of professional power, a professional society exercises both formal and informal social control over individual

practitioners' behavior (Gorman, 2014). For social workers, supervision in workplace is an essential component in social work self-regulation (Scott, 1965; Toren, 1969; Tsui, 1997). Social work supervisors are expected to educate, support and manage social work fellows regarding their professional conducts (Hair, 2013; Tsui, 1997). According to Gorman (2014), the traditional model of professional self-regulation is that every profession has a shared culture, informal norms, and a formal code of ethics that provides standards for professional behaviors. The model requires formal professional education and informal workplace socialization to establish a mechanism to instill these standards in new members (Gorman, 2014).

A sense of calling to the field. This dimension implies that the dedication of professional work is largely motivated by a sense of calling, rather than extrinsic rewards (Hall, 1968). A notion of calling is the ethical and moral base of professionalism (Derber, 1983; Guo et al., 2014; Hall, 1968; Larson, 1979). Social work is a profession that historically gathers members through moral calling, namely the strong belief, pride, passion, and satisfaction a person experience in pursuing of a profession and the advancement and well-being of the whole society (Derber, 1983; Guo et al., 2014; Larson, 1979; Snizek, 1972). Taylor (1988) found a positive relationship between a sense of calling and work commitment. Guo and colleagues (2014) examined the relations, mediated by a sense of calling, between certain individual and environment predictors and professional competence among 270 social work students in China. They found that a sense of calling is positively related with professional competence. A sense of calling also mediates the relationship between career concerns, curiosity and professional competence (Guo et al., 2014). For students with a lower level of career-oriented learning, a sense of calling is particularly influential on their professional competence (Guo et

al., 2014). In other words, a strong sense of calling is able to make up for the lack of career competence.

Autonomy. Professional autonomy is both a structural and attitudinal attribute (Hall, 1968). It refers to the ability of professionals to make their own choices at work without external pressures from clients or agencies (Hall, 1968; O'Neill, 1999). Leighninger (1978) suggests that the professionalism in social work consists of two major elements: producing effective services for clients and gaining autonomy. Evetts (2013) believes that it is the idea of service and autonomy that leads occupational groups to pursue professional status. It is especially the power to define problems and solutions, as well as autonomy in decision-making that make the ideology of professionalism appealing. Krous and Nauta (2005) found that the value of autonomy was positively related to the desire to work with underserved populations among 135 university students who majored in helping professions (psychology, social work, nursing, education, and special education). Significant autonomy is also linked with the power and status granted by the society (Howe, 1980). The limited autonomy had been a frequently used reason for many scholars to regard social work as either non-professional (Flexner, 1915) or semi-professional (Scott, 1969; Toren, 1972). The concept of professional autonomy is always mentioned along with the bureaucracy of social workers' work settings, for the reason that most social workers work in public bureaucracies and have to face the conflicts between professional autonomy and bureaucratic regulations on a daily basis (Derber, 1983; Freidson, 1984; Howe, 1980; Vinokur-Kaplan et al., 1994).

Professional Socialization

The theory of professional socialization is introduced in this study to provide the theoretical framework for examining the professionalism of Chinese social workers.

Professional socialization is a learning process by which professional workers

acquire professional values, norms, goals, knowledge, behaviors and technical skills to fulfill their role in professional work (Hammer, 2000; Lui et al., 2003; Varley, 1963). Abbott (1988) emphasized the importance of the acquisition of social values, professional self-image, and identification in social work socialization. Lui and colleagues (2003) further added that successful professional socialization could be identified if professionals exhibit excellent relationships with clients and possess professional values and norms. The outcome of professional socialization includes distinct knowledge, skills, values, attitudes, and professional identity dimensions (Miller, 2010). The level of professional socialization of social workers has been measured by professional values, attitudes, professional identity, and professional preference in many empirical studies (Barretti, 2004; Clearfield, 1977; Miller, 2013; Valutis et al., 2012; Weiss et al., 2004). These measurements are identical to the dimensions of Hall's Professionalism Scale.

Professional socialization has been examined mostly among university students (Barretti, 2004; Cryns, 1977; Valutis et al., 2012; Varley, 1963; Weiss et al., 2004; Wilson & Kelly, 2010). Yet Miller (2010) pointed out that professional socialization does not begin or end with formal social work education. After receiving formal education from schools, professionals enter organizations to continue their professional socialization (Miller, 2010). Miller (2010) developed a framework to understand the professional socialization of social workers. Within this framework, the process of professional socialization of social workers is divided into three stages: pre-socialization, formal socialization, and practice after formal socialization. Pre-socialization, including prior socialization and anticipatory socialization, refers to the personal development and socialization prior to the admission into a formal social work program. Formal socialization happens in educational programs. The last stage includes

the period after completion of formal education until retirement. Such a process is not linear. Each stage may produce different outcomes in terms of professional socialization (Miller, 2010).

Pre-socialization

Pre-socialization is the process by which individuals develop personal worldview and attitudes related to the profession during the period of time before a person join a formal social work program (Miller 2010). It includes elements of prior socialization, referring to childhood and primary socialization, and anticipatory socialization, referring to the process by which individuals begin to learn and adopt the profession's values and attitudes on their own, and to dream of becoming one (Merton, 1968; Miller, 2010). Miller (2010) believes that the development of a professional self is a requisite of social work education and training. First choice of social work as an occupation was found to be a significant factor for professional self-image among social work practitioners (Larson, 1993). However, as mentioned earlier, most Chinese social work students did not choose social work as their major (Law & Gu, 2008). Nor did all licensed social workers in China receive formal education. Thus, this phase is not considered as relevant in this study.

Formal socialization

This phase characterizes the years that social work students spend engaged in the educational program (Shuval, 1980). The role of professional education is to foster professional socialization (Harp, 1980; Miller, 2010). Professional education is regarded by Cuddie (1996) as a means of socializing prospective practitioners by creating a subculture in which professional self-identify is formed and professional competence is developed. During their professional education students learn a body of ideas, standards, norms and skills that thereafter guide their professional behaviors during their careers (Merton et al., 1957). Education

programs are necessary for students to be prepared to become professionals in field (Ferguson, 1993). Based on the data from a survey of 2331 non-government sector workers in New South Wales, Cortis and Meagher (2012) found that, among other individual, job, and organizational indicators, having a social work educational degree had the most significant positive effect on respondents' self-rating of preparedness. In the United States, Folaron and Hostetter (2006) found that CSWE-accredited social work programs provide the best educational preparation for public child welfare workers in fulfilling their work duties and tasks.

Professional education fosters a “professional role orientation” which determines the issues, opinions, and attitudes accepted by practitioners at work (Cuddie, 1996). Epstein (1970) studied the professional role orientations among 899 randomly selected social workers from New York City. He found that people with high professional orientation have stronger sense of integration with professional colleague (Epstein, 1970). Billingsley (1964) found that, compared to bureaucratic-oriented workers, professional-oriented workers are more likely to referent to professional groups, and are more likely to join professional associations. Successful resolution of the conflict, according to Green (1966), is based on the social worker’s ability to balance both roles as bureaucratic and as professional, while classroom and field education should be the primary vehicles for social work students to acquire these abilities (Miller, 2013).

Professionalism and educational background

Several empirical studies have identified the positive relationship between formal education and the development of professionalism. Among 40 supervisors and 144 workers from 31 residential child and youth care agencies in Alberta, Canada, 71% of them tended to believe that increasing their education would improve their professional self-identity (Kingsmith, 1997). Cuddie (1996) used secondary data to explore the role and impact of professional education on professionalism among newspaper journalists in Canada. The data

shows that university and college graduates have higher level of attitudinal professionalism than newswriters with no post-secondary education; while college graduates have the highest levels of professional orientation. Freeman (1994) employed Hall's Professionalism Scale to examine the attitudinal professionalism among randomly selected 573 professional members of the National University Continuing Education Association in the U.S. The findings showed that there was a significant positive relationship between academic degree level and all dimensions of professionalism, especially that respondents with doctoral degrees exhibited significantly higher levels of professionalism compared with those with master degrees or bachelor's degrees. In her dissertation examining the relation between the degree of professionalism and academic degrees among practicing registered nurses in South Texas, Makeda (2009) found that the nurses with baccalaureate degrees present higher mean professionalism scores than the nurses with associate or diploma degrees. In addition to the degree of education, the duration and quality of education also plays a role in formal socialization (Moore, 1970). Canadian newswriters with a formal university education were found to be more likely to hold stable management positions than practitioners with community college degrees (Cuddie, 1996). Another study conducted in Canada found that there was a significant relationship between educational qualification and professional identity among social work practitioners (Larson, 1993).

In Anderson (1977)'s study on social service workers, professional education was found to be positively related to two dimensions of professionalism: professional organization as a reference and belief in autonomy. Professional education in the study included both formal education and other supplemental education, such as workshop attendance, licensing and supervision. There was no descriptive data for the education measure, thus the degree of the

relationship between formal education and professionalism dimension is unknown (Anderson, 1977). In the field of child welfare, professionalism is widely referred as a commitment to education and training (Mason et al., 2012). Child welfare studies that examine the effectiveness of Title IV-E Child Welfare Training Program⁸ have suggested that a social work degree indicates a higher degree of professionalism (Mason et al., 2012; Scannapieco & Connell-Corrick, 2003; Strolin-Goltzman et al, 2010).

In social work, the role of education is not only restricted to socialization, but also aimed to control the access to the field (Leighninger, 1978). Moore (1970) suggested that the college baccalaureate degree should be the minimal educational requirement for professionalization. Formal education is not a requisite for individuals to become licensed social workers in China (MCA, 2006). Studies have found that less than half of the current population of licensed social workers in China had academic degrees in social work (Yan, 2013; Wang, 2012). Wang (2013) regards China's social work development as a nonprofessional model, because it has never been a specialized occupation and most of the practitioners have not received professional training. The data from Lou et al. (2012)'s study showed weak humanitarian welfare values among social work undergraduate students (BSW) from Beijing and Shanghai. In another study, BSW students from Jinan, Shandong reported that social work education was very meaningful for their personal growth rather than their professional growth (Yan et al., 2009). The relationship between formal education and professionalism has not yet been examined among Chinese social workers.

⁸ The Title IV-E Child Welfare Training Program was created as a part of the Adoption Assistance and Child Welfare Act of 1980. The main task of Title IV-E is to provide funding for educating and training child welfare workers.

Practice after formal socialization

Miller (2010) and Varley (1963) believe that professional socialization is a lifelong and continuing process, which also takes place in the actual practice setting after professional training. The professional values and beliefs individuals learn from formal education affect their professional performance at practice settings, yet these values and beliefs also may be shifted by the changing demands of the practice situation (Miller, 2010). The degree of professional socialization determines the ability of an individual to adapt his or her role at work (Lui et al., 2003; O'Neill, 1999; Toren, 1972). In turn, factors in the actual practice setting (e.g., job properties, rules, structure, and policies) are important determinants of professional self-identity and professionalism for social workers (Lui et al., 2003), as well as of the subjective motivation to continue their career (Pösö & Forsman, 2013). Professionals who work in an overly bureaucratized work environment may experience a less than ideal professional climate, and may eventually lead to a lower job satisfaction and higher turnover rate (Brierley & Cowton, 2000; Etzioni, 1964; Sorensen & Sorensen, 1974). Larson (1979) mentioned that the emergence of paid full-time social workers was originally the outcome of a largely heteronomous move toward the bureaucratization of welfare work, as the need for efficiency in private philanthropic agencies called for bureaucratization. Many social work positions are highly regulated by the government or other agencies through procedural guidelines and standards (Montagna, 1968; O'Neill, 1999).

Professionalism and bureaucracy

Organizational bureaucracy is often considered as a threat to the autonomy of professions for it results in the dependence of professionals on supervision and organizational rules (Forsyth & Danisiewicz, 1985; Freidson, 1984; Hall, 1968; May & Buck, 1998; Toren, 1969). Scholars tend to believe that social workers who work in private agencies have a higher

level of professionalism than those who work in public agencies, for the reason that private agencies are less bureaucratic than public agencies and thus can provide more autonomy for their workers (Howe, 1980; Reeser & Epstein, 1990). In addition to the type of organization, it is important to mention that professionalism and bureaucratization are not completely incompatible (Bartol, 1979; Green, 1966; Harris, 1998; Solomon, 1957). Wilensky (1964) argues that if an organization has a large percentage (over 50%) of professional employees and the services they provide are scarce, the professionals in the organization may have adequate autonomy in their work. On the contrary, when demand for service is low and dependence on powerful clients or bosses unreceptive to independent professional judgment is high, professionals may lose their autonomy (Wilensky, 1964).

In a comprehensive review of the early literature on bureaucracy, Hall (1963) pointed out the following six attributes that had been widely used by scholars to illustrate the level of bureaucracy:

1) Hierarchy of authority. Hall (1963) defines hierarchy of authority as the extent to which the power of decision making is centralized in an organization. An organization that heavily relies on a hierarchy of authority may lead to reductions in worker satisfaction, motivation, and commitment (Adler & Borys, 1996). Tschannen-Moran (2009) conducted a survey of 2,355 teachers from 80 middle schools in the United States to examine the relationship between professionalism and authority. Professionalism in her study was referred to the teachers' perceptions on their colleagues' work commitment and competence. Results showed that in schools that applied a less bureaucratic and authoritarian leadership style, teachers reported greater professionalism in their colleagues' work (Tschannen-Moran, 2009).

2) Division of labor. Hall (1963) defines division of labor as the extent to which work tasks are distributed by functional specialization. Scott (1966) believes that the development of a division of labor means a departure from a professional model for an organization. Hall (1968) found that an intensive division of labor may force a person away from professional communities.

3) Rules. Hall (1963) defines rules as the extent to which the workers' behaviors are regulated and controlled. Pösö & Forsman (2013) conducted eight focus groups with 28 social workers from children welfare agencies in two Finnish urban municipalities. They found that the formal norms and organizational regulations are regarded by novice social workers (less than two years in child welfare) as essential to doing right work (Pösö & Forsman, 2013).

4) Procedural Specificity. Hall (1963) defines procedural specificity as the extent to which workers are required to follow specific procedures. From the data collected from a survey of 1,155 lawyers from Western Canada, Wallace (1995) found that specialization actually had positive effects on professional commitment. Wallace (1995) concluded that professionals in nonprofessional settings had adapted to work arrangements and had developed ways to keep their autonomy.

5) Impersonality. Hall (1963) defines impersonality as the extent to which workers and outsiders are treated based on their titles or positions, rather than their individual qualities. Interpersonal relationships, rather than impersonal relationship, with colleagues, supervisors and professional peers are found to be positively related to professionalism and job commitment (Scott, 1965; Taylor, 1988; VanMaanen, 1975).

6) Technical competence. Hall (1963) defines technical competence as the extent to which the skills, experiences, and technical qualifications are considered for hiring and

promotion. Wallace (1995) found that in both professional and nonprofessional organization, a perceived legitimacy of the distribution of job and promotional opportunities are crucial for lawyers to maintain their commitment to the employing organization.

The above attributes vary differently and independently in actual organizations (Hall, 1963). Hall (1968) also found that the higher level of professionalism the lower level of bureaucratization, he concluded that the more bureaucratic systems may prohibit further professionalization. Hall (1968) concluded that conflict is not inherent in the relationship between professionals and organizations, and that when it occurs; such conflict is a function of the mismatch of specific aspects of the workers' professionalism and the perceived bureaucracy. Both Hall's bureaucracy scale and professionalism scale were used by Anderson (1977) in examining the relations between bureaucracy, professionalism, and alienation from work among 200 social service workers from 20 community organizations in Florida State of United States. The findings showed that hierarchy of authority and impersonality were negatively related with most professional dimensions, while the division of labor and technical competence were positively related with the following dimensions of professionalism: professional organization, believe in public service, and calling to the field. Anderson (1977)'s study confirmed that there is a significant relationship (conflict or congruity) between the dimensions of bureaucracy and professionalism.

Wang (2012) claimed that social work was embedded into the traditional bureaucratic social service delivery system, and therefore the professionalism of social work has to be promoted in the bureaucratic system. Nevertheless, social work graduates found it very difficult to get used to the organizational bureaucracy and transition from school to work smoothly (Yan et al., 2013). On the other hand, many of the current licensed social workers have not received

formal education, yet they have been working in their bureaucratic positions for years and may perceive the bureaucracy differently than social work graduates. They may experience better professional socialization once they learn the social work values, knowledge, and skills, which are mostly from preparation classes for the licensure exam and the continuing education provided by their agencies and professional associations. This study aims to answer another question:

Study hypotheses

Based on the findings in the literature, the following hypotheses will be tested in accordance with research questions of this study:

Research question 1: Will formal educated social workers (CSW, BSW, and MSW) report an overall higher degree of attitudinal professionalism within all dimensions as compared to licensed social workers without formal education?

Hypothesis 1: Social workers with a social work degree will have a higher degree of professionalism than social workers with other degrees.

Research questions 2: Which bureaucracy dimensions of licensed social workers' agencies moderate the relationship between their educational level and attitudinal professionalism? If so, what are the moderate effects?

Hypothesis 2: Links between formal education and the degree of professionalism will be moderated by the level of organizational bureaucracy.

Chapter Summary

This chapter starts with the introduction of the development of social work in mainland China, particularly the essential role of Chinese government, and the current situation of social work education, occupational status and the licensure system. This chapter also illustrates the conception of attitudinal professionalism and the theory of professional socialization, which

provide the legitimacy for two research questions: Will formal educated social workers (CSW, BSW, and MSW) report an overall higher degree of attitudinal professionalism within all dimensions as compared to licensed social workers without formal education? And which bureaucracy dimensions of licensed social workers' agencies moderate the relationship between their educational level and attitudinal professionalism? And what are the moderate effects? In the end, the hypotheses of this study are presented.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The study utilized a cross-sectional, survey method to examine the attitudinal professionalism of social work license holders in Shunde, Guangdong.

Description of Subjects

Population

The population for the study was the current licensed social workers in Shunde registered with the Shunde Association of Social Workers (SASW). Shunde is one of the most affluent counties in Guangdong and China. It is located in Pearl River Delta. The location enables Shunde to be exposed to the first-hand advanced knowledge and technologies of social work from Hong Kong. Though Shunde has been increasingly attractive to workers from other areas for its thriving manufacturing industry, unlike Shenzhen, a special economic zone that is composed mainly by immigrants from other provinces, half of the population in Shunde is comprised of native residents. The size (311 square miles) and the population (2,464,784 in 2010) of Shunde show that Shunde is one of the large, but not huge, cities in China. Thus, Shunde is more comparable to the majority of Chinese cities than are megacities such as Beijing, Shanghai, and Shenzhen. Moreover, Shunde is one of the earliest areas that established a social security system. Grassroots charitable and nonprofit organizations are greatly promoted by the government. Every year, 17.3% of the county's budget is allocated to support the welfare and social service system. Shunde can be a good example to other Chinese cities for how to embed the social work profession in the traditional social service system.

SASW was established in December 1992. Like many other professional associations in China, SASW is affiliated with the Shunde Bureau of civil affairs and Bureau of social welfare, thus it is a quasi-governmental organization. SASW is assigned with the following duties: 1) to provide trainings and continuing education for social workers, 2) to manage the social work registration system, 3) to regulate professional behaviors and services, 4) to oversee and advocate for social workers' rights, and 5) to implement governmental tasks (SZMCA, 2007). According to SASW (2014), at the end of 2015, SD had a total of 1,573 social work license holders, employed by over 40 social work agencies. All 1,573 licensed social workers composed the sample for this study. (Data collection procedures and the response rate are discussed below.)

Variables and measures

Dependent variable. The dependent variable for this study was the degree of professionalism measured by Snizek's version of Hall's Professionalism Scale (1968). Snizek (1972) employed Hall's scale in a study of 566 professionals from different fields (physicists, chemists, engineers) and found that half of the original 50 items on Hall's scale had low loadings. Therefore, Snizek recommended a shorter scale with only 25 items with a reliability coefficient of .78 to assess the five attributes of professionalism: the use of a professional organization as a major reference, a belief in service to the public, belief in self-regulation, a sense of calling to the field, and autonomy (See Appendix B). The revised scale has a total of 25 questions with five possible choices ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Five points correspond to the attitudinal item of "strongly agree" and one point corresponds to "strongly disagree". Each of five attitudinal dimensions has five questions. Thus the potential score of each dimension ranges from five to twenty-five points, with lower scores indicating a lower attitude level of that dimension. This scale has been found to be reliable and valid in various populations. Munnell (1972) examined the professionalism among 156 active social work officers in the U.S.

Army. The coefficient of reliability of the scale obtained from this study was .73. In Freeman (1994)'s study on professionals in continuing higher education field, the reliability coefficients for professionalism subscales ranged from .61 to .78, while the reliability coefficient for the overall scale was .80. In their study examining the professionalism among building professionals, Chan and colleagues (2007) reported that the reliability coefficients for the subscales ranged from .57 to .74, while the reliability score of the overall scale was .71. The construct validity of Snizek's modified version of Hall's Professionalism Scale had been examined and supported by previous studies. Morrow and Geotz (1988), Chan and colleagues (2007) performed exploratory factor analysis to assess the construct validity in their studies. Both studies offered evidence for the discriminant validity of the scale. Schack and Helper (1979) added a dimension to the scale to measure the Belief in Continuing Competence. The factor analysis of the new scale also supported the construct validity. The reliability and validity of the scale for this study are addressed below.

Independent variable. The primary independent variable in this study was the educational background of the participants, namely whether or not the participants have earned an educational degree in social work. One question was asked to measure the educational background: do you currently hold any of the following academic degrees in social work (please check all that apply)? This question generated five dichotomous variables: No, BSW, MSW, and Ph.D. in social work. The variables were transformed into a dummy variable: "No" were coded as "0" and all other answers were coded as "1".

Moderator. Level of organizational bureaucracy was a moderator variable measured by using the scale developed by Hall (1963) and modified by Bonjean and Grimes (1970). This scale contains six subscales: hierarchy of authority, division of labor, rules, procedural

specificity, impersonality, and technical competence. These subscales are independent from each other (Hall, 1963). Each of the subscales contains five items. All items were answered using a Likert scale that ranges from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”). See Appendix C. Anderson (1979) reported the reliability coefficients for subscales ranged from .80 to .90, except for the “Procedural Specificity Scale” which had a low reliability coefficient of .35. (Reliability for this study is addressed below.)

Control variables. The following variables were collected as potential control variables: gender, age, educational level, monthly income, practicing years, type of social work license, supervision qualification, and continuing education. The control variables and the measurement levels are presented below.

Table 2: Control Variables and the Measurement Levels

Variable (Scale)	Measurement Levels
Gender (Nominal)	Male Female
Age (Ordinal)	19-24 25-30 31-35 36-40 41-45 46-50 >51
Educational Level (Ordinal)	Lower than college degree College degree Associate/long-distance education Bachelor's degree Master's degree Ph.D.
Monthly Income (Ordinal)	1,000 or less 1,000-2,000 2,001-3,000 3,001-4,000 4,001-5,000 5,001-6,000 6,001-7,000 7,001-8,000

	8,001-9,000 9,001-10,000 10,001 or more
Practicing years (Ratio)	
Type of social work license (Nominal)	Junior social worker Intermediate Social worker
Supervision Qualification (Nominal)	Yes No
Continuing Education Type (Nominal)	Online trainings Workshops and classes Field visit Others None
Continuing Education Hours in Past Year (Ratio)	

Procedures

Instrument translation

Since the participants of this study are Chinese residents who may or may not understand English, Hall's Professionalism Scale (HPS) and Bureaucracy Scale were translated into simplified Chinese. The following steps were conducted at this phase.

First, forward translation. The author first invited two independent bilingual doctoral students, fluent with both Mandarin Chinese and English with a mother language of Chinese, to translate the original scales from English to Chinese. These two translators conducted the translation independently to avoid sharing misconceptions or any compromises. Then the author reviewed their translations and discussed with them about unclear translations and conflicts between the two translations. The first Chinese translations of HPS (HPS-C) and Bureaucracy Scale were finalized based on the agreement of the author and the two translators.

Second, backward translation. Back-translation was conducted to provide a complete and accurate translation of the scale. Unlike the process of forward translation, backward

translation was produced by two bilingual persons whose mother language is English. The two translators were blinded to the original scales and its concepts, so as to avoid information bias. The same procedures of the first step were conducted until the back-translated English version was complete and agreed by the author and two translators.

Third, expert review. Four experienced Chinese social work practitioners from China and the United States whom this researcher was acquainted with were invited to form an expert panel to further determine the conceptual and content equivalence of the translation. To test the relevancy between the items and the subscale theme, a content relevancy questionnaire was designed for this step. The content relevancy questionnaire contained three parts: a cover letter describing the purposes of the study, a review guideline, and a content relevancy index (CRI) which contained all 55 items of two scales. The content relevancy questionnaire was presented to the expert panel. The experts independently rated the relevance of each item with three scores: 1= not relevant; 2 = unable to assess relevance; 3 = relevant but needs minor alteration; and 4 = very relevant. The CRI was then computed as the number of experts giving a rating of either 3 or 4, divided by 4 (Polit & Beck, 2006). Any value lower than .80 was revised and reevaluated, at last, the new content relevancy index was calculated. No value was under .80, indicating that the expert panel rated the items as relevant to the themes of subscales. Each expert was also asked to rate the items regarding their clarification (clear and unclear) and to provide recommendations for unclear items. Any items that were rated to be unclear by any expert were re-evaluated. Nearly half of the items were re-evaluated for the reasons that the translations were ambiguous or not precise. These items were then revised based on the agreement of the expert panel.

Fourth, pre-testing and cognitive debriefing. To examine the conceptual, semantic and content equivalency of the translation, a group of 30 social work license holders from two nearby

cities, Dongguan and Shenzhen, was invited to take the preliminary online survey that was specifically designed for the pre-test. In addition to the translated instruments, demographic questions were also assessed by a four-item dichotomous scale (agree or disagree) for each question. Participants were asked if they agree that the question is 1) clear and 2) appropriate for the actual situation, or if the listed options are 3) complete and 4) properly stated. Participants were asked to provide comments and suggestions to the unclear questions. Interestingly, the items that were rated as unclear were mostly the demographic questions, especially the questions regarding work positions and work settings. The participants brought up the fact that social work license holders were from a variety of backgrounds; hence more options were added to the two questions. In addition, a few wording problems in the items of the translated scales were identified by participants. After several group discussions, agreements were reached among participants regarding how to reword the items.

Data collection

In this study, data was collected through an online survey. The survey consisted of three parts: the primary part included the demographic questions, the second and third parts included the Hall's Professionalism Scale and the Bureaucracy Scale (See Appendix A). Two rounds of data collection were conducted for the reason that the original method was not able to collect enough data (as described below).

The primary method used to contact participants in this study was through texting, since the list of names provided by Shunde Association of Social Workers (SASW) only contained the cell phone numbers of license holders. The following steps were conducted for the first round of data collection. Step 1, a pre-notification message was texted to all participants' cell phones on the same day in March, 2016. Scholars found that, with an advance mail notification, a web survey was able to achieve a comparable response rate to a mail questionnaire and is much more

cost efficient (Kaplowitz et al., 2004). In the message, a brief introduction of this study and researcher was provided, in the end participants were given three options to participate in this study: 1) to complete an online survey directly on their cell phone by replying “YES”, 2) to receive an email invitation by replying with their email addresses, and 3) to receive a paper survey by mail by replying with their shipping addresses. For participants who replied “yes”, another message with a short version of consent form and a link was sent to lead them to a mobile version of the online survey. For participants who replied with an email address, an email invitation with the link of the online survey was sent to these addresses. For participants who replied with a shipping address, a mail package that contained a copy of consent form, a copy of the survey, as well as a stamped return envelope was mailed to the address three days after. Only one participant requested a paper survey. An empty envelope with mailing address and stamp was provided along with the survey. Unfortunately, the participant did not mail the survey back.

Step 2, another text message was sent to all participants three days later. For participants who had replied with their options, the message was used to remind them to check their message, email or mail box and to complete the survey. For participants who had not replied, the message with the same contents as the pre-notification text was sent. Heberlein and Baumgartner (1978) found that multiple follow-ups can yield higher response rate than one-time reminder. Five days later, a third text message was sent to all participants thanking them and encouraging them to participate by completing the survey if they have not already done so. A week later, a fourth text message was sent to non-respondents to encourage them to participate.

By the end of the first round of data collection, which was a month after the first invitation text was sent, only 58 people had responded to the text message, and 43 of them submitted the online survey. Several reasons were identified for the quite low response rate. First

and the foremost, many people believed that the text messages were message scams. A couple of them contacted SASW to verify the study, while the majority chose to ignore the messages. Second, some of the cell phone numbers were empty or outdated. Third, some recipients felt that the study topic was not relevant to them as they did not regard themselves as social workers. Fourth, the text messages were not delivered successfully sometimes due to the unstable network or the messages were blocked because they contained sensitive words such as “survey” and “money”.

The vice-president of SASW thus proposed to have a second round of data collection. A worker from SASW made thousands of phone calls to the social work license holders in April and May, 2016, to inform them about this research study and to collect the email addresses from those who are interested in participating in this study. It was these phone calls that revealed the reasons for the low response rate as stated above. However, only one attempt was made for each phone number, leaving nearly half of the calls unanswered. In the end, a total of 440 email addresses was collected. An email invitation with the survey link was sent to the email addresses at different times. Three days later after the first email, a reminder email was sent to all email addresses. A week after the second email, a follow up email was sent to all email addresses thanking the participants and encouraging them to participate by completing the survey if they have not already done so. By the end of the second round of data collection, 216 more participants completed the survey. Nevertheless, it was unknown whether these data were collected through text messages or emails. It is possible that some participants reviewed their text messages a few weeks later and then decided to take the survey. In total, 259 participants submitted the survey, with a response rate of 16%.

Chapter Summary

This chapter outlines the research design of this study. All 1,573 licensed social workers from Shunde, Guangdong composed the sample for this study. The dependent variable (attitudinal professionalism), the independent variable (social work degree), the moderator variable (bureaucracy), and the control variables as well as the coding method were introduced in this chapter. In addition, this chapter introduces the detailed methodological procedure of the study, including sampling, instrument translation, and data collection. Two rounds of data collection were conducted through an online survey, generating 256 completed surveys.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The quantitative data from the survey was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. Due to having an extensive amount of missing data, one survey was not included in the analysis. Two unemployed participants were also excluded from the study as they were not able to provide the information regarding their current work experiences. As a result, of the 259 surveys submitted online, a total of 256 surveys were used in data analysis. There were only a few missing values in this study. Missing data is addressed below for each variable.

Data Preparation

Descriptive

Gender, age, and full-time work. Among the 256 social work license holders from Shunde, seventy-two percent of them were females (185). There was no missing data from the gender variable. Only one participant had a part-time job instead of full-time job. The variable of work status was thus meaningless in the study and was not included in data analysis. Nearly half of the participants (125, 48.8%) were between the ages of 25 to 30 years old. Fewer participants belonged to the age group of 31 to 35 years old (64, 26.2%) and the age group of 36 to 40 years old (31, 12.1%). No participant was over 50 years old. There were two missing values for age, which were replaced by the midpoint of the known age value (31-35 years old). More information of age variable was presented in Table 5.

Education. The majority of the participants (71.1%) completed undergraduate education (182), fifteen percent of the participants (37) graduated from associate education programs, and

nine percent of the participants (22) completed graduate education. In addition, eight participants completed distance education, four participants graduated from vocational secondary school, and three participants had a high school diploma. For the purpose of this study, the education variable was recoded from a nine-level variable to a four-level variable: lower than college (7, 2.7%), associate/ long-distance education (45, 17.6%), undergraduate education (182, 71.1%), and graduate education (22, 8.6%). There was no missing data from the education variable.

Social work degree. The vast majority (216, 84.4%) of the participants did not have any social work academic degree. Only thirteen percent of the participants (33) had a bachelor's degree in social work, and three percent of the participants (7) had a master degree of social work (MSW). No one had both degrees and higher level degree in social work. The other academic majors listed by participants included Literature, History, Sociology, Education, Law, Engineers, and so forth. Since the number of respondents with MSW was quite low, the social work degree variable was recoded into a dummy variable (Yes / No): with a social work degree (BSW or MSW) or without. There was no missing data from the social work degree variable.

Work setting and position. The primary work settings for seventy-two percent of the participants (184) were the following four types of organizations: social work agencies (65, 25.4%), schools (50, 19.5%), governmental organizations (36, 14.1%), and residents' committees (33, 12.9%). More information of work setting variable was presented in Table 3. There were two missing values for work settings, which were replaced by the value of *others*. The question of participants' work positions was a multiple-choice question. As shown in Table 4, most participants (81, 31.8%) self-identified as the staff of a government-affiliated organization. They may also choose another option, such as school teachers (41, 16.6%), college professors (2, 0.8%), and medical professionals (8, 3.1%), which traditionally belonged to the staff of

governmental affiliated organizations in China. The other common work positions reported by participants but not listed in the question included accountants, counselors, secretaries, engineers, and lawyers. In accordance with the number of participants (9, 3.5%) who chose social work supervisor as their work positions, same number of participants reported having supervisor qualification.

Continuing education. The question of continuing education was another multiple-choice question. In addition to the type of continuing education (i.e. online course, workshops/in-class trainings, field visit), participants were also asked to enter the hours they had received for each type in the past year. However, due to the relatively low response (41%) and the wide variation of the answers ($\bar{x} = 70.54$, $SD = 88.263$, Skewness = 4.36, Kurtosis = 28.22), the variable of continuing education hours was excluded in data analysis. Instead, the number of how many types of training that participants attended in the past year was used to represent the continuing education variable. Thirty-four percent of the participants (88) reported that they received no training during the past year, a little fewer participants (86, 33.6%) received one type of training, twenty-seven percent of the participants (70) received two types of training, and only five percent of the participants (12) received all three types of training. There was no missing data from the continuing education variable.

Working years. The question of working years was composed of two parts: year(s) and month(s). The number of months was divided by 12 and was then added to the number of years, creating one single ratio variable representing years and/or a fraction of years (e.g. 5 years 10 month => $5 + 10/12$ years => 5.83 years). The working years of participants ranged from 0 to 21.67 years, with a mean number of 5.74 years and the standard deviation of 4.58. Evaluation of measures of skewness (Skewness = 1.42, Kurtosis = 1.41) and reviewing the histogram and

the normal Q-Q plot showed that the distribution of the working years did not meet the assumption of normality; square root transformation of the data was conducted to enhance the shape of the distribution. The transformed variable of working years approached the shape of a normal curve, and was utilized in future analyses. There was no missing data from the working years variable.

Income. The frequency of the most recent monthly income that participants received was provided in Table 3. The majority of the participants (192, 77.0%) received an income between 2001 RMB (\approx 300 US dollars) up to 6000 RMB (\approx 910 US dollars), among which twenty-nine percent (74) received between 3001 RMB (\approx 460 US dollars) and 4000 RMB (\approx 610 US dollars). The income variable was used as a continuous variable in data analysis to better demonstrate the ordinal characteristics of these data (Bhat, 1994). Evaluation of measures of skewness and reviewing the histogram and the normal Q-Q plot showed that the shape of the distribution of income approached the shape of a normal curve. There were five random missing values for income, which were replaced by the mean of the variable (4001-5000 RMB).

Social work license. All participants reported holding at least one type of social work license. In particular, seventy-six percent of the participants (194) held junior social work license (JSW) only, and twenty-four percent of the participants (62) held intermediate social work license (ISW). There was no missing data from the social work license variable.

Social worker status

The characteristics of the participants indicated that people who held social work licenses in Shunde were from a variety of backgrounds. The majority of the social work license holders in this study were not working in social work positions or social work agencies. To provide more details of the license holders who were actually working as social workers, a new dummy variable was created: social worker status (social worker/ non-social worker). Participants who

chose any of the following work positions were considered as social workers: social work supervisor/consultant, assistant supervisor, community social worker, positioned social worker, project social worker, social work assistant, and social work trainer. In addition, participants who worked at social work agencies were also recoded as social workers. As a result, a total of 88 individuals, accounting for thirty-four percent of the participants, were identified as social workers. Table 3 and Table 4 show the composition of licensed social workers in terms of their work settings and work positions.

Table 5 shows the demographic characteristics of social workers (88) and non-social workers (168), as well as the relationships between these characteristics and the social work status. Chi-square tests were performed and no significant differences were found between social worker and non-social workers with regard to their gender ($\chi^2_{(1)} = .50, p = .48$) nor their education level (Cramer's $V = .11, p = .42$). Significant relationships were found between social work status and social work degree ($\chi^2_{(1)} = 30.55, p < .001$) and license type ($\chi^2_{(1)} = 5.58, p < .05$). Social workers were more likely to have a social work degree and to hold intermediate social work license. In addition, the results of the Cramer's V measure of association showed that social workers were likely to hold higher level of education (Cramer's $V = .46, p < .001$).

Moses and colleagues (1984) pointed out that the Mann-Whitney test or the t-test was more appropriate in finding the trends associated with ordered variables. The results of the independent t-test showed a significant difference between non-social workers and social workers with regard to their age ($t_{(213.56)} = 3.37, p < .01$) and working years ($t_{(240.63)} = 3.9, p < .001$). Non-social workers reported statistically significant older age ($M = 3.95, SD = 1.12$) and longer working years ($M = 2.36, SD = .98$) than social workers ($M = 3.49, SD = .92; M = 1.96, SD = .65$). No significant difference was found in the most recent monthly income between the

two groups, $t_{(207.91)} = .64, p = .53$. Nevertheless, one-way ANOVA test showed that non-social workers received significant higher income than social workers when their working years were controlled, $F_{(1, 253)} = 4.14, p < .05$.

In sum, compared to non-social workers, social workers in Shunde were more likely to be younger, have a social work degree and both social work licenses, receive more types of continuing education, have shorter working time, and have lower income when controlling for their working time.

Table 3: Work Settings of Social Work License Holders

Work Settings	Total		Non-social worker		Social worker	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Governmental organization	36	(14.1)	35	(20.8)	1	(1.1)
Quasi-governmental organization	9	(3.5)	6	(3.6)	3	(3.4)
Residents' committee	33	(12.9)	30	(17.9)	3	(3.4)
Philanthropic foundation	1	(.4)	1	(0.6)	0	(0.0)
Hospital	14	(5.5)	13	(7.7)	1	(1.1)
School	50	(19.5)	44	(26.2)	6	(6.8)
College	4	(1.6)	2	(1.2)	2	(1.2)
Social work agency	65	(25.4)	0	(0.0)	65	(73.9)
Other social service agency	14	(5.5)	11	(6.5)	3	(3.4)
Enterprise	20	(7.8)	17	(10.1)	3	(3.4)
Other	10	(3.9)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)

Note. f = frequency, % = percent

Table 4: Work Positions of Social Work License Holders

Work Positions	Total		Non-social worker		Social worker	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Civil cadres	12	(4.7)	12	(7.1)	0	(0.0)
Staffing of government affiliated	81	(31.8)	74	(44)	7	(8.0)
Board member	6	(2.4)	2	(1.2)	4	(4.5)
Executive director	9	(3.5)	2	(1.2)	7	(8.0)
Manager	31	(12.2)	10	(6.0)	21	(23.9)
Manager assistant	10	(3.9)	6	(3.6)	4	(4.5)
Social work supervisor/ consultant	9	(3.5)	0	(0.0)	9	(10.2)
Assistant supervisor	1	(.4)	0	(0.0)	1	(1.2)
Community social worker	24	(9.4)	0	(0.0)	24	(27.3)
Positioned social worker	6	(2.4)	0	(0.0)	6	(6.8)
Dispatched social worker	25	(9.8)	0	(0.0)	25	(28.4)
Social worker assistant	12	(4.7)	0	(0.0)	12	(13.6)
Social work trainer	8	(3.1)	0	(0.0)	8	(9.1)
School teacher	41	(16.6)	36	(21.4)	5	(5.7)
College professor	2	(.8)	0	(0.0)	2	(2.3)
Medical professionals	8	(3.1)	5	(3.0)	3	(3.4)
Other	50	(19.6)	46	(27.4)	4	(4.5)

Note. f = frequency, % = percent

Table 5: Social Workers and Non-Social Workers Characteristics

Characteristic	Total		Non-social worker		Social worker		<i>p</i>
	N	%	N	%	f	%	
Gender							.479
Male	71	(27.7)	49	(29.2)	22	(25.0)	
Female	185	(72.3)	119	(70.8)	66	(75.0)	
Age							.001
19-24	7	(2.7)	3	(1.8)	4	(4.5)	
25-30	125	(48.8)	74	(44.0)	51	(58.0)	
31-35	67	(26.2)	45	(26.8)	22	(32.8)	
36-40	31	(12.1)	24	(14.3)	7	(8.0)	
41-45	20	(7.8)	17	(10.1)	3	(3.4)	
46-50	6	(2.3)	5	(3.0)	1	(1.1)	
>51	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	
Education							.418
Lower than college	7	(2.7)	4	(2.4)	3	(3.4)	
Associate/long-distance education	45	(17.6)	26	(15.5)	19	(21.6)	
Undergraduate	182	(71.1)	121	(72.0)	61	(69.3)	
Graduate	22	(8.6)	17	(10.1)	5	(5.7)	
Social Work Degree							.000
Yes	40	(15.6)	11	(6.5)	29	(33.0)	
No	216	(84.4)	157	(93.5)	59	(67.0)	
Social Work License							.018
Junior Social Worker	194	(75.8)	135	(80.4)	59	(67.0)	
Intermediate Social Worker	62	(24.2)	33	(19.6)	29	(33.0)	
Continuous Education							.000
None	88	(34.4)	79	(47)	9	(10.2)	
One type	86	(33.6)	59	(35.1)	27	(30.7)	
Two types	70	(27.3)	27	(16.1)	43	(48.9)	
Three types	12	(4.7)	3	(1.8)	9	(10.2)	
Monthly Income							.526
1,000 or less	3	(1.2)	3	(1.8)	0	(0.0)	
1,000-2,000	2	(0.8)	1	(0.6)	1	(1.1)	
2,001-3,000	36	(14.1)	29	(17.3)	7	(8.0)	
3,001-4,000	74	(28.9)	42	(25.0)	32	(36.4)	
4,001-5,000	50	(19.5)	25	(14.9)	25	(28.4)	
5,001-6,000	37	(14.5)	31	(18.5)	6	(6.8)	
6,001-7,000	19	(7.4)	11	(6.5)	8	(9.1)	
7,001-8,000	14	(5.5)	11	(6.5)	3	(3.4)	
8,001-9,000	7	(2.7)	4	(2.3)	3	(3.4)	
9,001-10,000	6	(2.3)	5	(3.0)	1	(1.1)	
10,001 or more	8	(3.1)	6	(3.6)	2	(2.3)	

Note. N = number, % = percent, *p* < .05 are in boldface.

Reliability of instruments

This was the first study to use the Chinese translated Attitudinal Professionalism Scale and Bureaucracy Scale with a Chinese population. Cronbach's alpha and principal axis factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed in this study to examine the reliability of the two instruments. Prior to examining the reliability of the instruments, missing data were first analyzed. In the Attitudinal Professionalism Scale, 10 values spread over 8 items were missing from 8 respondents, accounting for 3.1% of the sample. No pattern was identified among the missing data. More missing data were found in Bureaucracy Scale: 34 values spread over 19 items were missing from 19 respondents, accounting for 7.4% of the sample. The item with the most missing values (5) was "There is a written and specific job description for every job." Most items had only one or two missing values. The mean differences between respondents and non-respondents were examined in regards of their gender, age, educational level and income; no significant difference was found, indicating that the missing data were found to be random and independent of the complete data values of other variables (Graham, 2009). Downey and King (1998) found that replacing missing data in Likert Scales with the item mean or the person mean was sufficient to represent the original data when the missing items were less than 20%. In this study, all missing data in two Likert Scales were replaced with the means of the items, except for that two cases that missed over half of the questions in the Bureaucracy Scale were ignored in the analyses involving bureaucracy data.

Attitudinal Professionalism Scale. Scores for positive worded items were reversed so that higher scores (strongly agree) will consistently reflect a more positive attitude, and lower scores (strongly disagree) will consistently reflect a more negative attitude. By examining the histogram for univariate distribution and statistical tests including values of skewness and kurtosis, only one item showed a problematic normality: "I believe that professional

association(s) should be supported". No multi-collinearity was found between items. The determinant of the exploratory factor analysis was .001. The KMO statistic was .664, which is considered mediocre yet acceptable (Kaiser, 1970). Diagonal elements of the anti-image correlation matrix were examined; all values were above 0.5. Bartlett's measure was also significant, indicating that the factor analysis was appropriate. Table 6 displays the mean and standard deviation of each item in the scale. Item-Total Correlation was also computed to assess the correlations between each item and the total score from the subscales. Items with a value less than .30 are considered as uncorrelated with the scale. Unfortunately, the Item-Total Correlation values of many items were below .30. Some of them even had negative values. The overall reliability of each subscale was also quite low. An alpha of .70 or above is normally considered as adequate internal consistency reliability, yet only two subscales' Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients were above .50, and none of them was above .70.

Several factors may be responsible for the low alpha coefficient: First, this is the first application of the scales to a sample of Chinese social workers; the internal consistency of the scales may be in part a function of the unique type of respondents (Churchill, 1979). Additionally, the scales were translated from English to Chinese. Despite the rigorous translation process, the minor rewording and changing of the items may alter the reliability coefficients presented by the original authors (Anderson, 1977). The reliability coefficients for the data in this study fell between .33 and .55, much lower than the reliability coefficients reported in earlier studies which demonstrated that the professionalism subscale's reliability ranged from .50 to .80 (Anderson, 1977; Chan, et al., 2007; Cohen & Kol, 2004; Hampton & Hampton, 2000). The extraordinarily low reliability indicated that something systematic might be wrong.

Table 6: Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, Item-Total Correlation, and Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for Scores on the Attitudinal Professional Scale

Items for Attitudinal Professionalism ($\alpha = .588$)	Mean \pm SD	Item-Total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Professional Association as Major Referent ($\alpha = .329$)			
1. I systematically read social work professional journals.	3.17 \pm .90	.392	.035
2. I regularly attend social work professional meetings at the local level.	3.21 \pm .95	.288	.124
3. I believe that the social work professional association(s) should be supported.	4.15 \pm .58	-.075	.416
4. The social work professional association really doesn't do much for the average member.	2.76 \pm .85	-.019	.430
5. Although I would like to, I really don't read the social work journals too often.	2.49 \pm .84	.202	.240
Belief in Public Service ($\alpha = .456$)			
1. Other professions are actually more vital to society than social work.	3.46 \pm .80	.332	.339
2. I think that social work profession, more than any other, is essential for society.	3.38 \pm .88	.131	.479
3. The importance of social work profession is sometimes overstressed.	3.05 \pm .91	.166	.457
4. Some other occupations are actually more important to society than social work.	3.21 \pm .75	.356	.329
5. If ever an occupation is indispensable, it is social work.	3.22 \pm .91	.252	.393
Belief in Self-Regulation ($\alpha = .504$)			
1. My fellow professionals have a pretty good idea about each other's competence.	3.27 \pm .77	.162	.514
2. A problem in social work profession is that no one really knows what his/her colleagues are doing.	3.04 \pm .93	.312	.423
3. We really have no way of judging each other's competence.	3.17 \pm .83	.491	.297
4. There is not much opportunity to judge how another social worker does his/her works.	2.75 \pm .86	.238	.473
5. My colleagues pretty well know how well we all do in our work.	3.21 \pm .75	.192	.497
Sense of Calling to the Field ($\alpha = .546$)			
1. People in social work profession have a real "calling" for their work.	3.82 \pm .74	.456	.409
2. The dedication of people in social work field is most gratifying.	3.61 \pm .86	.373	.449
3. It is encouraging to see the high level of idealism which is maintained by people in social work field.	3.53 \pm .83	.385	.443
4. Most people would stay in social work even if their incomes were reduced.	2.59 \pm .86	.138	.592
5. In social work field, there are very few people who don't really believe in their work.	3.30 \pm .80	.229	.535
Belief in Autonomy ($\alpha = .413$)			
1. I make my own decisions in regard to what is to be done in my work.	2.85 \pm .98	.095	.458
2. I don't have much opportunity to exercise my own judgment.	3.32 \pm .87	.203	.365
3. My own decisions are subject to review.	2.55 \pm .81	.206	.364
4. I am my own boss in almost every work-related situation.	2.83 \pm .79	.234	.345
5. Most of my decisions are reviewed by other people.	2.77 \pm .90	.340	.252

To further explore the professionalism scale, Principal Component Analysis was performed to examine the communality and factor loadings of the 25 statements. A total of 8 factors were extracted; however, the scree plot demonstrated that there were 4-5 factors. The principle component analysis was conducted again with a fixed number of five factors. Items are considered to load to a factor if the loading is greater than .35. As showed in Table 7, item 2 and 5 of the subscale “Belief in Public Service” loaded onto the same factor, while item 1, 3, 4 loaded onto another factor. Interestingly enough, item 1, 3, 4 (“other professions are more important to society than social work”) are actually reversed-phrased to item 1 and 2 (“social work is more important”). In the subscale “Belief in Self-Regulation”: item 1 and 2 (“my colleagues know each other’s competence”) loaded onto a different factor than item 2, 3, 4 (“no one knows other’s competence”). In the subscale “Sense of Calling to the Field”, item 5 (“few social workers don’t believe in their work”) loaded on a different factor from item 1, 2, 3. In subscale “Belief in Autonomy”, item 2 (“I don't have much opportunity to exercise my judgment”) loaded differently than positive-wording item 3, 4, 5. If the wording of the items does have an impact on how participants respond to questions, the impact should also be observed in Bureaucracy Scale.

Table 7: Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation of Attitudinal Professionalism Scale

Items for Attitudinal Professionalism	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	Factor4	Factor5
Professional Organization as Major Referent					
1. I systematically read the social work professional journals.	.453	-.126	-.109	.413	-.438
2. I regularly attend social work professional meetings at the local level.	.370	.197	-.244	.230	-.531
3. I believe that the social work professional association(s) should be supported.	.296	-.133	.258	-.268	-.099
4. The social work professional association really doesn't do much for the average member.	.021	.287	.119	.212	.548
5. Although I would like to, I really don't read the journals too often.	.010	.226	.027	.511	-.074
Belief in Public Service					
1. Other professions are actually more vital to society than social work.	.026	.065	.704	.073	-.030
2. I think that social work profession, more than any other, is essential for society.	.619	-.127	.026	-.100	-.180
3. The importance of social work profession is sometimes overstressed.	.072	.038	.587	.177	.339
4. Some other occupations are actually more important to society than social work.	.025	.168	.724	.170	-.203
5. If ever an occupation is indispensable, it is social work.	.619	-.104	.115	-.017	-.038
Belief in Self-Regulation					
1. My fellow professionals have a pretty good idea about each other's competence.	.548	.253	-.327	-.132	.113
2. A problem in social work is that no one really knows what his/her colleagues are doing.	-.045	.699	.162	-.078	.091
3. We really have no way of judging each other's competence.	-.012	.768	.239	.131	.110
4. There is not much opportunity to judge how other social workers do their works.	-.082	.536	-.040	.350	-.167
5. My colleagues pretty well know how well we all do in our work.	.608	.169	-.199	-.048	.189
Sense of Calling to the Field					
1. People in social work profession have a real "calling" for their work.	.691	.133	-.163	-.127	.098
2. The dedication of people in social work is most gratifying.	.600	-.092	.079	-.031	.115
3. It is encouraging to see the high level of idealism which is maintained by people in social work.	.589	-.138	.050	-.028	.071
4. Most people would stay in social work even if their incomes were reduced.	.174	-.212	-.078	-.028	.453
5. There are very few social workers who don't really believe in their work.	.285	-.009	-.158	.020	.414
Belief in Autonomy					
1. I make my own decisions in regard to what is to be done in my work.	.185	-.304	-.461	.272	.010
2. I don't have much opportunity to exercise my own judgment.	-.005	.624	-.019	.258	-.179
3. My own decisions are subject to review.	-.251	-.037	.203	.575	.100
4. I am my own boss in almost every work-related situation.	.148	-.067	-.511	.350	-.125
5. Most of my decisions are reviewed by other people.	-.259	.236	.003	.645	.104

Note. Factor loadings > .35 are in boldface.

Bureaucracy Scale. Table 8 displays the mean, standard deviation, item-total correlation, the Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted of each item, as well as the Cronbach's Alpha of each subscale in Bureaucracy Scale. Same as those in professionalism scale, many of the Item-Total Correlation values of bureaucracy items were below .30, and only one subscale "Impersonality" had a Cronbach Alpha Correlation over .50. Table 9 displays the factor loadings of the bureaucracy scale items. As expected, the only reversed-worded item in the subscale Hierarchy of Authority, "workers here can make their own decisions without checking with someone else", was separated from other items in factor loading. The tendency that statements with the same direction cluster together was clear in subscales "Division of Labor" and "Rules". The subscale "Impersonality", however, had all items loaded on the same factor even though that some of the items were reversed-worded. It was probably because the items did not appear definitely contrary to each other. In addition, the items of subscales "Procedural Specificity" and "Technical Competence" scattered on different factors. The methods for addressing the challenges posed by the reliability limitations of the scales and the subscales are described below.

Table 8: Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, Item-Total Correlation, and Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for Scores on the Bureaucracy Scale

Items for Bureaucracy Scale ($\alpha=.543$)	Mean \pm SD	Item-Total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Hierarchy of Authority ($\alpha=.441$)			
1. Workers here can make their own decisions without checking with someone else.	3.69 \pm .73	-.263	.648
2. Workers here report on their activities to their supervisor every day.	2.93 \pm .87	.256	.368
3. There can be little action here until a supervisor approves a decision.	2.94 \pm .82	.406	.256
4. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	2.92 \pm .91	.497	.156
5. Only people in supervisory positions can decide a job is to be done.	2.98 \pm .90	.325	.311
Division of Labor ($\alpha=.440$)			
1. Every worker has a specific function which is performed regularly.	3.65 \pm .77	.407	.253
2. There is a written and specific job description every job.	3.49 \pm .84	.363	.276
3. Most jobs here involve many different kinds of activities.	2.19 \pm .67	-.191	.610
4. Everyone has a specific job to do here.	3.72 \pm .70	.394	.278
5. Few people around here were trained for the specific job they are doing.	3.31 \pm .96	.235	.387
Rules ($\alpha=.324$)			
1. This organization has a manual of rules and regulations to be followed.	4.03 \pm .68	.207	.238
2. Workers are rarely checked up on for rule violation.	2.72 \pm .88	.048	.386
3. People here make their own rules up on the job.	3.38 \pm .84	.140	.294
4. There are rules covering most types of behavior here.	3.52 \pm .70	.227	.220
5. Most workers follow the rules quite closely.	3.67 \pm .70	.195	.246
Procedural Specificity ($\alpha=.188$)			
1. We have specific procedures for dealing with most situations.	3.66 \pm .74	.194	.054
2. We are encouraged to "cut the red tape" to get things done quickly.	2.51 \pm .93	-.227	.472
3. Workers are often left to their own judgement regarding how to handle problems.	3.32 \pm .81	.318	-.102
4. As long as the work gets done, it doesn't matter to the organization how we do it.	3.16 \pm .97	.222	-.028
5. We have to follow strict operating procedures at all times.	3.61 \pm .78	.031	.207
Impersonality ($\alpha=.629$)			
1. Supervisors here stick pretty much to themselves.	2.55 \pm .89	.435	.549
2. There is an openly friendly atmosphere here.	2.26 \pm .73	.338	.597
3. Very few people call their supervisor by his or her first name.	3.16 \pm .98	.309	.621
4. Workers here like to be on a first name basis with each other.	2.21 \pm .70	.401	.573
5. Workers are treated as employees instead of individuals here.	2.83 \pm .94	.459	.534
Technical Competence ($\alpha=.475$)			
1. Workers are regularly evaluated to see how well they do their job.	3.77 \pm .71	.332	.375
2. Promotions here are based on demonstrated competence.	3.45 \pm .83	.410	.305
3. Having "pull" is important for getting ahead here.	2.35 \pm .76	.036	.549
4. People here are giving raises according to how well they are linked rather than how well they do their job.	3.66 \pm .92	.237	.435
5. Skills and experience are carefully evaluated before new workers are hired.	3.47 \pm .84	.287	.396

Table 9: Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation of Bureaucracy Scale

Items for Degree of Bureaucracy	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	Factor4	Factor5	Factor6
Hierarchy of Authority						
1. Workers here can make their own decisions without checking with someone else.	-.163	.039	-.040	.702	-.140	-.003
2. Workers here report on their activities to their supervisor every day.	.132	.083	.576	-.299	.117	.030
3. There can be little action here until a supervisor approves a decision.	.470	.029	.386	-.150	-.060	.085
4. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	.511	-.124	.563	-.010	-.114	-.024
5. Only people in supervisory positions can decide a job is to be done.	.645	.097	.059	-.113	-.038	-.110
Division of Labor						
1. Every worker has a specific function which is performed regularly.	-.031	.798	-.015	-.011	.088	-.176
2. There is a written and specific job description every job.	-.055	.617	.479	.100	-.011	.055
3. Most jobs here involve many different kinds of activities.	.025	-.149	-.159	-.142	.780	.172
4. Everyone has a specific job to do here.	-.053	.663	.021	-.004	-.207	.102
5. Few people around here were trained for the specific job they are doing.	-.451	.226	.082	.383	.038	.386
Rules						
1. This organization has a manual of rules and regulations to be followed.	-.036	.652	-.036	.047	-.249	.058
2. Workers are rarely checked up on for rule violation.	.040	.030	-.124	.117	.174	.380
3. People here make their own rules up on the job.	-.206	-.006	-.039	.695	.034	.128
4. There are rules covering most types of behavior here.	.019	.425	.097	-.119	-.442	.240
5. Most workers follow the rules quite closely.	.001	.545	.405	.178	-.079	-.102
Procedural Specificity						
1. We have specific procedures for dealing with most situations.	-.107	.745	.293	.104	-.015	-.038
2. We are encouraged to “cut the red tape” to get things done quickly.	.150	-.493	.020	.181	-.016	.414
3. Workers are often left to their own judgement regarding how to handle problems.	-.343	.120	.016	.607	.122	.088
4. As long as the work gets done, it doesn’t matter to the organization how we do it.	-.687	.096	.113	.340	.084	-.025
5. We have to follow strict operating procedures at all times.	.136	.341	.580	.080	-.222	-.109
Impersonality						
1. Supervisors here stick pretty much to themselves.	.637	-.036	.099	-.334	.063	.237
2. There is an openly friendly atmosphere here.	.532	-.284	-.302	.153	.284	.339
3. Very few people call their supervisor by his or her first name.	.509	.064	.109	.040	.103	-.586
4. Workers here like to be on a first name basis with each other.	.407	-.179	-.148	.064	.612	-.110
5. Workers are treated as employees instead of individuals here.	.662	-.110	.183	-.154	-.014	-.081
Technical Competence						
1. Workers are regularly evaluated to see how well they do their job.	-.148	.573	.332	.119	-.175	.062
2. Promotions here are based on demonstrated competence.	-.440	.256	.350	-.174	-.186	-.123
3. Having “pull” is important for getting ahead here.	-.334	-.107	.141	-.003	.577	.241
4. People here are giving raises according to how well they are linked rather than how well they do their job.	-.624	.156	-.019	.310	-.131	.085
5. Skills and experience are carefully evaluated before new workers are hired.	-.079	.278	.592	.089	-.075	-.226

Note. Factor loadings > .35 are in boldface.

There is a tradition of using reverse-worded items in a scale to minimize acquiescence and extreme response biases (Johnson et al., 2005; Nunnally, 1978). Yet many scholars have pointed out that the negative-worded items often lower the reliability of questionnaire, as the negative-worded and positive-worded items often loaded on separate factors (Holden & Fekken, 1990; Johnson et al., 2004; Roszkowski & Soven, 2010). Wong et al. (2003) revealed that East Asians, compared to Americans, tended to view positive-worded items (PWI) and reversed-worded items (RWI) as two separate concepts rather than being in the opposition of one same concept. Mixed-worded scales are therefore more likely to display low reliability and weaker dimensionality in cross-cultural applications (Wong, et al., 2003). Johnson and colleagues (2005) found that the acquiescence response bias, namely the tendency to agree with questions regardless of question content, was more common among persons from less individualistic nations. However, Wong et al. (2003) found no relation between the acquiescence bias and the disconnection between PWI and RWI. They believed that it was the substantive cultural differences between American and East Asian respondents that led to the observed distinction between PWI and RWI (Wong et al., 2003). Indeed, East Asians are widely considered as more comfortable with contradictions and accordingly prefer compromised answers rather than polarized ones (Hamamura et al., 2008; Spencer-Rodgers et al., 2010; Wong et al., 2003).

It is not uncommon for previous researchers to drop some items from the professionalism scale when the alpha coefficient was quite low. Sauro and Lewis (2011) even recommended that researchers should use all positive items when designing questionnaires to avoid mistakes and miscoding. In my study, to minimize the threats of the low reliability of the scales, items with low factor loadings and high item-deleted correlation alpha were excluded from hypotheses testing. Though the Cronbach alpha of each subscale is still below .7, the overall reliabilities of

Attitudinal Professionalism Scale and Bureaucracy Scale have been greatly increased as shown in Table 10 and Table 11. For exploratory studies, alpha coefficients as low as .50 are acceptable for assuming that scales are internally consistent (Schmitt, 1996). A decision was made to use the revised scales in subsequent analysis. Individual items will not be used in data analysis as the validity of single items is unknown (Gliem & Gliem, 2003).

Table 10: Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, Item-Total Correlation, and Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for Scores on the Revised Attitudinal Professionalism Scale

Items for Revised Attitudinal Professionalism ($\alpha = .519$)	Mean \pm SD	Item-Total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Professional Association as Major Referent ($\alpha = .683$)			
1. I systematically read social work professional journals.	3.17 \pm .90	.520	.
2. I regularly attend social work professional meetings at the local level.	3.21 \pm .95	.520	.
Belief in Public Service ($\alpha = .605$)			
1. Other professions are actually more vital to society than social work.	3.46 \pm .80	.455	.445
2. The importance of social work profession is sometimes overstressed.	3.05 \pm .91	.323	.653
3. Some other occupations are actually more important to society than social work.	3.21 \pm .75	.480	.419
Belief in Self-Regulation ($\alpha = .618$)			
1. A problem in social work profession is that no one really knows what his/her colleagues are doing.	3.04 \pm .93	.382	.587
2. We really have no way of judging each other's competence.	3.17 \pm .83	.601	.265
3. There is not much opportunity to judge how another person does his/her works.	2.75 \pm .86	.321	.660
Sense of Calling to the Field ($\alpha = .634$)			
1. People in social work profession have a real "calling" for their work.	3.82 \pm .74	.455	.526
2. The dedication of people in social work field is most gratifying.	3.61 \pm .86	.429	.559
3. It is encouraging to see the high level of idealism which is maintained by people in social work field.	3.53 \pm .83	.452	.524
Belief in Autonomy ($\alpha = .565$)			
1. My own decisions are subject to review.	2.55 \pm .81	.396	.
2. Most of my decisions are reviewed by other people.	2.77 \pm .90	.396	.

Table 11: Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, Item-Total Correlation, and Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for Scores on the Revised Bureaucracy Scale

Items for Revised Bureaucracy Scale ($\alpha = .600$)	Mean \pm SD	Item-Total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Hierarchy of Authority ($\alpha = .648$)			
1. Workers here report on their activities to their supervisor every day.	2.93 \pm .87	.334	.642
2. There can be little action here until a supervisor approves a decision.	2.94 \pm .82	.459	.560
3. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	2.92 \pm .91	.536	.498
4. Only people in supervisory positions can decide a job is to be done.	2.98 \pm .90	.392	.606
Division of Labor ($\alpha = .670$)			
1. Every worker has a specific function which is performed regularly.	3.65 \pm .77	.549	.484
2. There is a written and specific job description every job.	3.49 \pm .84	.424	.664
3. Everyone has a specific job to do here.	3.72 \pm .70	.487	.575
Rules ($\alpha = .504$)			
1. This organization has a manual of rules and regulations to be followed.	4.03 \pm .68	.306	.426
2. There are rules covering most types of behavior here.	3.52 \pm .70	.334	.379
3. Most workers follow the rules quite closely.	3.67 \pm .70	.319	.404
Procedural Specificity ($\alpha = .570$)			
1. Workers are often left to their own judgement regarding how to handle problems.	3.32 \pm .81	.405	.
2. As long as the work gets done, it doesn't matter to the organization how we do it.	3.16 \pm .97	.405	.
Impersonality ($\alpha = .629$)			
1. Supervisors here stick pretty much to themselves.	2.55 \pm .89	.435	.548
2. There is an openly friendly atmosphere here.	2.26 \pm .73	.338	.597
3. Very few people call their supervisor by his or her first name.	3.16 \pm .98	.309	.621
4. Workers here like to be on a first name basis with each other.	2.21 \pm .70	.401	.573
5. Workers are treated as employees instead of individuals here.	2.83 \pm .94	.459	.534
Technical Competence ($\alpha = .592$)			
1. Workers are regularly evaluated to see how well they do their job.	3.77 \pm .71	.417	.476
2. Promotions here are based on demonstrated competence.	3.45 \pm .83	.409	.478
3. Skills and experience are carefully evaluated before new workers are hired.	3.47 \pm .84	.382	.521

Figure 2 and Figure 3 compared the mean scores of the original subscales and the revised subscales for both instruments. Overall the revised scales did not alter the tendency of participants' attitudes toward the original scales. The attitudinal professionalism of the participants was strongest in terms of Sense of Calling to the Field, with the lowest level of Belief in Autonomy. The mean score on each scale indicated that the participants tended to "agree" to three subscales: Professional Association as Major Referent ($M = 3.15/3.19$), Belief in Public Services ($M = 3.26/3.24$), and Sense of Calling to the Field ($M = 3.37/3.66$). Their attitude toward the Belief in Self-regulation was neutral ($M = 3.09/2.99$), and they tended to "disagree" with the Belief in Autonomy ($M = 2.86/2.66$). In terms of the Bureaucracy Scales, participants tended to believe that their organizations had relatively low level of Impersonality ($M = 2.60$), medium level of Hierarchy of Authority ($M = 3.09/2.94$), and relatively high level of the Division of Labor ($M = 3.27/3.62$), Rules ($M = 3.46/3.74$), Procedural Specificity ($M = 3.25/3.24$), and Technical Competence ($M = 3.34/3.56$).

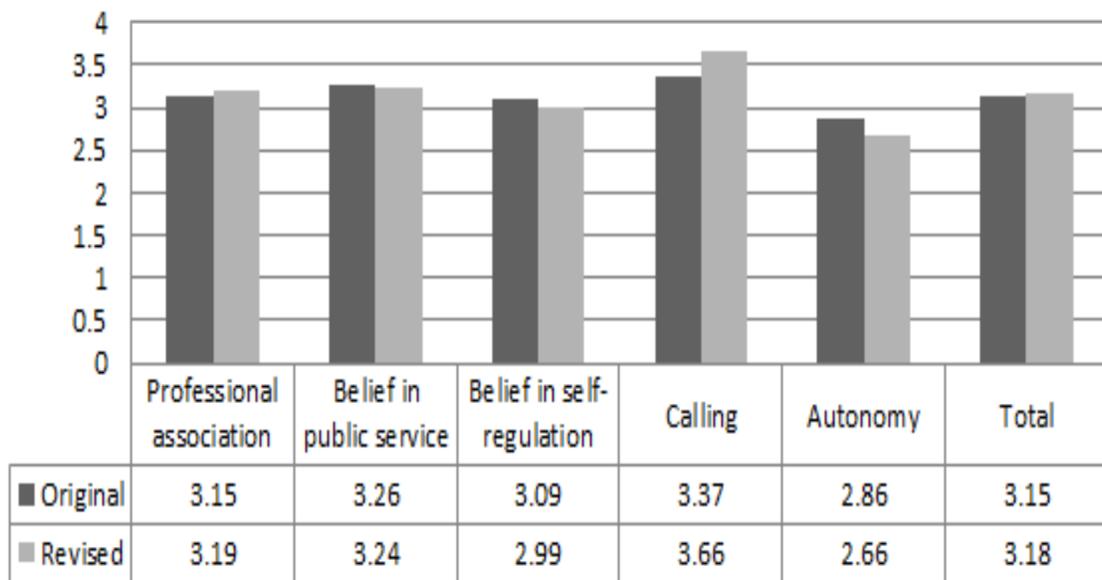


Figure 2: Mean Scores of Original and Revised Attitudinal Professionalism Scale



Figure 3: Mean Scores of Original and Revised Bureaucracy Scale

Control variables

Since there is a lack of research examining the links between attitudinal professionalism and demographic characteristics, the relationship between the dependent variable and potential control variables was examined in order to determine if any of these variables should be controlled for hypothesis testing. Independent t-tests were performed to examine the relationship between professionalism subscale and gender, social work status, supervisor qualification, as well as license type. Bivariate correlations, particularly the Spearman's *rho*, were tested to examine the relationship between professionalism subscales and age, income, as well as working years. One-way ANOVA were performed to examine the relationship between professionalism subscales and education level as well as continuing education. The results of the tests were presented in Table 12-19 below.

Professional Association as Major Reference. Independent t-test showed significant differences in the attitudes regarding the Professional Association as a Major Reference between

social workers ($M = 3.46, SD = .70$) and non-social workers ($M = 3.04, SD = .82$), $t_{(156.15)} = 4.04$, $p < .001$; between supervisors ($M = 3.72, SD = .44$) and non-supervisors ($M = 3.16, SD = .81$), $t_{(254)} = 2.04$, $p < .05$, and between junior social work license holders ($M = 3.13, SD = .83$) and intermediate social work license holders ($M = 3.36, SD = .68$), $t_{(254)} = 1.98$, $p < .05$. In addition, participants who received zero continuing education reported significant lower degree in Professional Association as Major Reference than people who received any type of continuing education. $F = 13.20$, $p < .001$.

Belief in Public Service. An independent t-test showed that supervisors ($M = 3.56, SD = .29$) reported a significantly higher degree of Belief in Public Service than non-supervisors ($M = 3.23, SD = .62$), $t_{(10.91)} = 3.16$, $p < .01$. Post Hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that participants who received zero continuing education reported significantly higher mean scores on this dimension than participants who received one-type continuing education, $F = 3.29$, $p < .05$.

Belief in Self-Regulation. Gender, social worker status, continuing education, supervision qualification, and license type were found to be significantly related to this dimension. More specifically, social workers ($M = 3.24, SD = .66$) reported significant higher scores than non-social workers ($M = 2.85, SD = .62$), $t_{(254)} = 4.62$, $p < .001$; intermediate social work license holders ($M = 3.38, SD = .57$) reported significant higher scores than junior social work license holders ($M = 2.86, SD = .64$), $t_{(254)} = 5.68$, $p < .001$; social work supervisors ($M = 3.52, SD = .50$) reported significant higher scores than non-supervisors ($M = 2.97, SD = .66$), $t_{(254)} = 2.50$, $p < .05$; while male respondents ($M = 2.86, SD = .70$) reported significant lower scores than Females ($M = 3.04, SD = .64$), $t_{(254)} = -1.98$, $p < .05$. Participants who received two or three types of continuing education were more likely to have belief in self-regulation than participants who received less than two types of continuing education, $F = 10.82$, $p < .001$.

Sense of Calling to the Field. Male respondents reported statistically significant higher degree of calling ($M = 3.90, SD = .64$) than female respondents ($M = 3.56, SD = .59$), $t_{(254)} = 3.97, p < .001$. Participants with longer working time experienced higher degree of calling towards social work profession, $r = .13, p < .05$.

Belief in Autonomy. Age, income, license type, and the number of continuing education type were significantly related to this dimension. Older participants reported significant higher degree of Belief in Autonomy than younger participants, $r = .13, p < .05$. Intermediate social work license holders ($M = 2.85, SD = .73$) reported significant higher scores than junior social work license holders ($M = 2.60, SD = .70$), $t_{(254)} = 2.46, p < .05$. Higher income had a positive significant relationship with the degree of Belief in Autonomy, $r = .13, p < .05$. Lastly, participants who received three types of continuing education were more likely to have belief in autonomy than participants who received less continuing education, $F = 4.57, p < .01$.

Entire Scale. In terms of the total score of the entire instrument, social workers ($M = 3.27, SD = .33$) reported significant higher scores than non-social workers ($M = 3.13, SD = .32$), $t_{(254)} = 3.44, p < .01$; supervisors ($M = 3.44, SD = .21$) reported significant higher scores than non-supervisors ($M = 3.17, SD = .33$), $t_{(254)} = 2.49, p < .05$; and intermediate social work license holders ($M = 3.32, SD = .32$) reported significant higher scores than junior social work license holders ($M = 3.14, SD = .32$), $t_{(254)} = 3.82, p < .001$. Income demonstrated a positive relationship with the total score of Attitudinal Professionalism Scale, $r = .19, p < .01$. Moreover, participants who received three types of continuing education reported higher score on the entire scale than those who received less than two types of continuing education, $F = 6.23, p < .001$.

Table 12: T-tests to Assess the Relationship Between Attitudinal Professionalism and Control Variables

T-tests		Professional Organization	Public Service	Self-Regulation	Calling	Autonomy	Entire Scale
Male Gender (<i>N</i>)							
Yes (71)	<i>M±SD</i>	3.32±.77	3.17±.73	2.86±.70	3.90±.64	2.61±.77	3.20±.36
No (185)	<i>M±SD</i>	3.14±.82	3.26±.57	3.04±.64	3.56±.59	2.68±.69	3.17±.31
	<i>t</i>	1.597	-.934	-1.977	3.97	-.782	.658
	<i>p</i>	.112	.352	.049*	.000***	.435	.511
Social Worker (<i>N</i>)							
Yes (88)	<i>M±SD</i>	3.46±.70	3.14±.59	3.24±.66	3.67±.64	2.75±.75	3.28±.33
No (168)	<i>M±SD</i>	3.04±.82	3.29±.62	2.85±.62	3.65±.61	2.61±.69	3.13±.32
	<i>t</i>	4.036	-1.859	4.616	.348	1.425	3.438
	<i>p</i>	.000***	.064	.000***	.728	.155	.001**
Supervisor (<i>N</i>)							
Yes (9)	<i>M±SD</i>	3.72±.44	3.56±.29	3.52±.50	3.44±.73	2.89±.55	3.17±.33
No (247)	<i>M±SD</i>	3.17±.81	3.23±.62	2.97±.66	3.66±.61	2.65±.72	3.44±.21
	<i>t</i>	2.040	3.162	2.494	-1.042	.968	2.486
	<i>p</i>	.042*	.009**	.013*	.298	.334	.014*
Intermediate Social Worker (<i>N</i>)							
Yes (62)	<i>M±SD</i>	3.36±.68	3.29±.62	3.38±.57	3.55±.60	2.85±.73	3.32±.32
No (194)	<i>M±SD</i>	3.13±.83	3.22±.61	2.86±.64	3.69±.62	2.60±.70	3.14±.32
	<i>t</i>	1.981	.766	5.679	-1.492	2.461	3.824
	<i>p</i>	.049*	.455	.000***	.137	.015*	.000***

Note. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001.

Table 13: Bivariate Correlation Tests to Assess the Relationship Between Attitudinal Professionalism and Potential Control Variables

Bivariate Correlation	Professional Organization	Public Service	Self-Regulation	Calling	Autonomy	Total Score
Age						
Spearman's <i>rho</i>	.096	.068	-.001	.026	.128	.113
<i>p</i>	.126	.280	.992	.678	.041*	.071
Working years						
Pearson's Correlation	.000	.092	-.070	.129	.006	.065
<i>p</i>	.994	.143	.264	.039*	.923	.297
Monthly Income						
Pearson's Correlation	.032	.109	.116	.075	.132	.190
<i>p</i>	.609	.081	.064	.231	.035*	.002**

Note. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001.

Table 14: One-way ANOVA to Assess the Relationship Between Attitudinal Professionalism and Control Variables

One-way ANOVA	Professional Organization	Public Service	Self-Regulation	Calling	Autonomy	Total Score
Education Level						
<i>F</i>	1.367	1.096	1.130	2.409	.703	.607
<i>p</i>	.253	.351	.337	.068	.551	.611
Continuing Education						
<i>F</i>	13.195	3.289	10.820	.931	4.569	6.227
<i>p</i>	.000***	.021*	.000***	.435	.004**	.000***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 15: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Degree of Professional Association as Major Reference by Continuing Education Type

Professional Organization	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference			
				None	One-type	Two-type	Three-type
Continuing Education							
None	88	2.80	.83	_____			
One-type	86	3.31	.72	-.52***	_____		
Two-type	70	3.44	.69	-.64***	-.12	_____	
Three-type	12	3.71	.72	-.91***	-.39	-.27	_____

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 16: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Belief in Public Service by Continuing Education Type

Public Service	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference			
				None	One-type	Two-type	Three-type
Continuing Education							
None	88	3.39	.53	_____			
One-type	86	3.15	.61	.24*	_____		
Two-type	70	3.19	.66	.20	-.04	_____	
Three-type	12	3.00	.74	.39	.15	-.19	_____

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 17: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Belief in Self-Regulation by Continuing Education Type

Self-Regulation	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference			
				None	One-type	Two-type	Three-type
Continuing Education							
None	88	2.83	.53	_____			
One-type	86	2.85	.68	-.03	_____		
Two-type	70	3.25	.67	-.43***	-.40**	_____	
Three-type	12	3.56	.50	-.73**	-.70**	-.30	_____

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 18: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Belief in Autonomy by Continuing Education Type

Autonomy	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference			
				None	One-type	Two-type	Three-type
Continuing Education							
None	88	2.70	.68	_____			
One-type	86	2.52	.68	.19	_____		
Two-type	70	2.68	.72	.03	-.16	_____	
Three-type	12	3.29	.84	-.59*	-.77**	-.61*	_____

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 19: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Attitudinal Professionalism by Continuing Education Type

Entire Scale	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference			
				None	One-type	Two-type	Three-type
Continuing Education							
None	88	3.13	.29	_____			
One-type	86	3.13	.33	-.01	_____		
Two-type	70	3.25	.32	-.13	-.12	_____	
Three-type	12	3.48	.43	-.36**	-.35**	-.22	_____

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 1

To test the hypothesis 1, “social workers with a social work degree will have a higher degree of professionalism than social workers with other degrees,” six separate independent t-tests were performed to examine the differences on the five professionalism dimensions and the entire scale between social work license holders with and without social work degrees. As stated in Table 20, the results revealed a significant difference between participants with social work degrees and those without social work degrees with regards to their Belief in Self-Regulation ($t_{(254)} = 5.28, p < .001$), Sense of Calling to the Field ($t_{(254)} = -3.32, p < .01$), as well as the entire Attitudinal Professionalism Scale ($t_{(254)} = 2.40, p < .05$). In this study, social work educated participants ($M = 3.47, SD = .54$) reported significant higher degree of Belief in Self-Regulation than those without a social work degree ($M = 2.90, SD = .64$), yet the latter group ($M = 3.71, SD = .60$) reported significant greater Sense of Calling to the Field than social work educated group ($M = 3.36, SD = .65$). Lastly, social work educated license holders ($M = 3.29, SD = .36$) reported significant higher degree in their overall attitudinal professionalism than those without social work degrees ($M = 3.16, SD = .32$). Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

Table 20: T-tests to Assess Differences in Means of Attitudinal Professionalism Between Social Work License Holders With and Without Social Work Degree

Subscales for Attitudinal Professionalism	With Social Work Degree		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	Yes (<i>N</i> =40) <i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i>	No (<i>N</i> =216) <i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i>		
Professional Association as Major Referent	3.39±.80	3.15±.80	1.72	.087
Belief in Public Service	3.28±.64	3.23±.61	.41	.682
Belief in Self-Regulation	3.47±.54	2.90±.64	5.28	.000
Sense of Calling to the Field	3.36±.65	3.71±.60	-3.32	.001
Belief in Autonomy	2.86±.81	2.63±.69	1.94	.054
Entire scale	3.29±.36	3.16±.32	2.40	.017

Note. *p* values < .05 are in boldface.

To further examine the relationship between social work degree and the dimensions of Belief in Self-Regulation and Sense of Calling to the Field, as well as the entire scale, hierarchical regression was conducted using SPSS to control for the effects of other variables on the dependent variables. The relationships between all predictors were first examined. The results were presented in Table 21. No multicollinearity was found. As indicated in Table 12-14, the following five variables were identified to have significant effect on the Belief in Self-regulation: gender (Female-0, Male-1), social work status (Non-social worker-0, Social worker-1), supervision qualification (non-supervisor-0, Supervisor-1), social work license type (JSW-0, ISW-1), and continuing education. Continuing education was converted to dummy variable through the process of dummy coding (Stockburger, 1998), creating three dichotomous variables: one-type of continuing education, two –types of continuing education, and three-types of continuing education. Those who received none continuing education was the left-out comparison group in the analysis. In regards to the Sense of Calling to the Field, two variables were statistically significant: gender and working years. For the entire scale, five variables were found to be significant: social work status, supervision qualification, social work license type, continuing education, and monthly income.

Table 21: Correlations Between Predictor Variables

	Male	Age	Social worker	Working years	Supervisor	Education level	Continuous education	Income	ISW	With social work degree
Male	1.00									
Age	.00	1.00								
Social worker	-.04	-.19**	1.00							
Working years	.00	.49***	-.20**	1.00						
Supervisor	.07	-.01	.13*	.01	1.00					
Educational level	.06	-.08	-.10	.13*	.04	1.00				
Continuous education	.03	-.01	.46***	-.15*	.14*	-.01	1.00			
Income	.24***	.23***	-.04	.25***	.05	.31***	.01	1.00		
ISW	-.02	.18**	.15*	-.01	.14*	.22***	.30***	.29***	1.00	
With social work degree	-.12	-.21**	.35***	-.20**	.33***	.17**	.30***	.05	.31***	1.00

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

In three separate linear regression analyses, control variables were added in Step 1, followed by social work degree variable in Step 2. Statistical significance was declared at $p \leq .05$. Table 22-24 show that both the first and the second model were able to predict all three dependent variables to a statistically significant degree. Nevertheless, social work degree was not associated with Belief in Self-regulation or the entire scale when other variables were controlled. In terms of the Sense of Calling to the Field, a significant regression equation was found, $F_{(1, 252)} = 6.57, p < .05$, with a changed R^2 of .024, indicating that the social work degree explained 2.4% of the variance in Sense of Calling to the Field. Social work degree maintained a negative association with Sense of Calling when the control variables were included in the model. That is, license holders with a social work degree reported a lower Sense of Calling than did license holders without a social work degree.

Table 22: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Belief in Self-Regulation from Social Work Degree and Control Variables

Belief in Self-Regulation	Model 1			Model 2			R^2	ΔR^2
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β		
Step 1 Control variables							.22	.20***
Male	-.18	.08	-.12*	-.16	.08	-.11		
Social worker vs. no con edu	.21	.09	.15*	.17	.09	.12		
One-type con_edu	-.08	.09	-.06	-.08	.09	-.06		
Two-type con_edu	.16	.11	.11	.15	.11	.10		
Three-type con_edu	.50	.19	.16*	.46	.19	.15**		
Supervisor	.34	.21	.10	.23	.21	.06		
ISW	.39	.10	.25***	.35	.09	.23***		
Step 2 Independent Variable							.24	.21***
With social work degree				.23	.12	.13		

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 23: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Sense of Calling to the Field from Social Work Degree and Control Variables

Sense of Calling to the Field	<i>Model 1</i>			<i>Model 2</i>			R^2	ΔR^2
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β		
Step 1 Control variables							.08	.07***
Male	.33	.08	.24***	.31	.08	.22***		
Working years	.09	.04	.13*	.07	.04	.10		
Step 2 Independent variable							.10	.09***
With social work degree				-.27	.11	-.16*		

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 24: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Attitudinal Professionalism from Social Work Degree and Control Variables

Attitudinal Professionalism	<i>Model 1</i>			<i>Model 2</i>			R^2	ΔR^2
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β		
Step 1 Control variables							.15	.13***
Social worker vs. no con edu	.09	.05	.14*	.10	.05	.14*		
One-type con_edu	-.03	.05	-.05	-.03	.05	-.05		
Two-type con_edu	.03	.06	.04	.03	.06	.04		
Three-type con_edu	.27	.10	.17**	.27	.10	.17**		
Supervisor	.20	.11	.11	.21	.11	.12		
ISW	.10	.05	.13*	.10	.05	.13*		
Income	.03	.01	.16*	.03	.01	.16*		
Step 2 Independent Variable							.15	.12***
With social work degree				-.01	.06	-.01		

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Attitudinal professionalism among social workers. Considering that the professionalism scale was designed to measure attitudes among professionals, while many social worker license holders in Shunde were not considered as social work professional, this study went beyond the hypothesis and performed exploratory analyses within the group of actual licensed social workers. As shown in Table 25, among social workers, social work-educated participants ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .49$) reported significant higher degree of Belief in Self-regulation than those without social work degrees ($M = 3.10$, $SD = .69$), $t_{(75)} = 3.36$, $p < .01$. On the contrary, social workers without social work degrees ($M = 3.80$, $SD = .60$) reported significant greater sense of Calling to the Field than those with social work degrees ($M = 3.41$, $SD = .65$), $t_{(86)} = -2.78$, $p < .01$.

Table 25: T-tests to Assess the Correlations Between Attitudinal Professionalism and Social Work Degree Among Social Workers

Subscales for Attitudinal Professionalism	With Social Work Degree		<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
	Yes (<i>N</i> =29) <i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i>	No (<i>N</i> =59) <i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i>		
Professional Association as Major Referent	3.55±.72	3.42±.70	.85	
Belief in Public Service	3.25±.61	3.08±.58	1.25	
Belief in Self-Regulation	3.53±.49	3.10±.69	3.36	.001**
Sense of Calling to the Field	3.41±.65	3.80±.60	-2.78	.007**
Belief in Autonomy	2.83±.82	2.71±.73	.67	
Entire scale	3.33±.35	3.25±.32	1.18	

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Among social workers, intermediate social work license ($t_{(78.90)} = 4.39, p < .001$), continuing education type (Spearman's $\rho = .41, p < .001$), and income (Pearson's correlation coefficient = $.24, p < .05$) were found to be significantly related to the Belief in Self-Regulation; While male gender ($t_{(86)} = 3.17, p < .01$) and education level⁹ (Spearman's $\rho = -.21, p < .05$) were found to be significantly related to the Sense of Calling to the Field. As shown in Table 26 and Table 27, after controlling for these variables, social work degree was not significantly associated with Belief in Self-regulation, $\beta = .20, p > .05$, nor Sense of Calling to the Field, $\beta = -.13, p > .05$. In other words, among social workers, the social work degree was not associated with any difference in attitudinal professionalism when other variables were controlled.

Table 26: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Belief in Self-Regulation from Social Work Degree and Control Variables Among Social Workers

Belief in Self-Regulation	Model 1			Model 2			R^2	ΔR^2
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β		
Step 1 Control variables							.24	.19***
ISW	.40	.16	.28*	.32	.16	.22		
vs. no con edu								
One-type con_edu	.29	.23	.21	.21	.23	.15		
Two-type con_edu	.52	.23	.40*	.45	.23	.34		
Three-type con_edu	.78	.29	.36**	.74	.28	.34*		
Income	.02	.04	.06	.02	.04	.06		
Step 2 Independent Variable							.27	.22***
With social work degree				.28	.14	.20		

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

⁹ Educational level was converted into three dummy variables: associate, undergraduate, and graduate degree. The level of lower than college was the left-out comparison.

Table 27: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Sense of Calling to the Field from Social Work Degree and Control Variables Among Social Work

Sense of Calling to the Field	<i>Model 1</i>			<i>Model 2</i>			<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β		
Step 1 Control variables							.22	.19***
Male	.53	.14	.36***	.49	.15	.34**		
vs. under Associate								
Associate	-.37	.36	-.24	-.35	.36	-.23		
Undergraduate	-.81	.34	-.59*	-.73	.35	-.52*		
Graduate	-.66	.42	-.24	-.55	.43	-.20		
Step 2 Independent variable							.24	.19***
With social work degree				-.18	.14	-.13		

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 2

Since two cases in the sample missed over half of the questions in the Bureaucracy Scale and therefore were deleted, a total of 254 complete cases were used for this hypothesis testing. A total of 42 bivariate correlations between the revised subscales of attitudinal professionalism and the revised subscales of Bureaucracy as well as their total scores were examined. As shown in Table 28, among the 42 correlations 28 (or 67%) of them were significant at the .05 level. The strength of these significant relationships ranged from -.15 to -.47, and from .15 to .43.

Professional Association as Major Reference, Sense of Calling to the Field, and Belief in Autonomy were highly associated with the four out of six perceived bureaucracy dimensions. The Sense of Calling to the Field was the only dimension of attitudinal professionalism whose significant relationships with the subscales of bureaucracy were all positive. More specifically, participants who perceived their organizations as that with rigid hierarchy of authority, a specialized division of labor, strict rules, or an emphasis on technical qualifications for hiring and promotion were more likely to develop a higher degree of sense of calling to social work.

The dimension of Impersonality was negatively associated with the all professionalism dimensions, while the dimension of Hierarchy of Authority was negatively associated with all but one professionalism dimension, Sense of Calling to the Field. More specifically, the organizations being perceived as impersonal and more rigidly hierarchical were less likely to cultivate the belief in public service, belief in self-regulation, and belief in autonomy among professional employees. A specialized division of labor or an emphasis on technical qualifications for hiring and promotion were positively related with the attitudes of regarding professional association as reference groups, and having a sense of calling to the field. In terms of the entire scales, Attitudinal Professionalism Scale was significantly related to all bureaucracy scale dimensions as well as the entire Bureaucracy Scale, with only two negative relations (Hierarchy of Authority, Impersonality), indicating that overall attitudinal professionalism was positively related to bureaucracy.

As shown in Table 26 the degree of Hierarchy of Authority ($r = .23, p < .001$), Division of Labor ($r = .34, p < .001$), Rules ($r = .36, p < .001$), Technical Competence ($r = .23, p < .001$), as well as the entire Bureaucracy Scale ($r = .37, p < .001$) were all positively related to the degree of Sense of Calling to the Field. The five variables were therefore used as potential moderators and were added to the moderation effect analysis. Predictor variables with continuous levels, including working years' variables and all bureaucracy scores, were centered to maximize interpretability and to minimize problems of multicollinearity for testing the interaction effects (Aiken et al., 1991). The score for the independent variable (social work degree) and the score for bureaucracy subscales were multiplied, generating five interaction variables for the Sense of Calling to the Field.

Table 28: Bivariate Correlations Between Attitudinal Professionalism Items and Bureaucracy Items

Pearson Correlation	Hierarchy of Authority	Division of Labor	Rules	Procedural Specificity	Impersonality	Technical Competence	Total score of bureaucracy
Professional Association as Major Reference	.09	.17**	.22***	.11	-.15*	.27***	.25***
Belief in Public Service	-.24***	-.01	-.00	.25***	-.16*	-.03	-.04
Belief in Self-regulation	-.47***	.09	.03	.43***	-.41***	.09	-.04
Sense of Calling to the Field	.23***	.34***	.36***	-.01	-.00	.23***	.37***
Belief in Autonomy	-.43***	-.09	-.18**	.27***	-.20**	-.07	-.21**
Total score of professionalism	-.33***	.22**	.19**	.43***	-.38***	.21**	.15*

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

To test the hypothesis 2, “links between formal education and the degree of professionalism will lessen as the level of bureaucracy increases,” five separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed to evaluate the moderating effect of the four subscales of bureaucracy (Hierarchy of Authority, Division of Labor, Rules, Technical Competence) and the entire Bureaucracy Scale on the Sense of Calling to the Field after controlling for the gender and working years’ variables. Since social work degree was only significant to only one dimension of attitudinal professionalism-the Sense of Calling to the Field-when controlling for other potential variables, the moderation analyses were only performed for this particular dimension.

According to the methodological guidelines for testing moderator effects provided by Baron and Kenny (1986), the following three steps were performed to examine the moderation effects. In the first step, all control variables were entered into the model. In the second step, independent variable, namely the social work degree variable, and the moderator were entered. In the third step, the interaction variable was added to the model. The results, as presented from Table 29 -33, showed that all models were statistically significant in the five separate analyses; nevertheless, the interaction effect was not statistically significant in any of the analyses. These results suggested that there was no moderating effect of bureaucracy on the relationship between social work degree and professionalism among the participants, and that the same negative association between social work degree and the Sense of Calling to the Field remains when controlling for the dimensions of bureaucracy. The second hypothesis that bureaucracy would moderate the effect of social work degree on attitudinal professionalism was not supported.

Table 29: Regression of Social Work Degree and Hierarchy of Authority on Sense of Calling to the Field

Sense of Calling to the Field	<i>Model 1</i>			<i>Model 2</i>			<i>Model 3</i>		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Step 1 Control variables									
Male	.33	.08	.24***	.28	.08	.20**	.28	.08	.20**
Working years	.09	.04	.13*	.07	.04	.10	.07	.04	.10
Step 2 Independent variable									
Social work degree				-.22	.10	-.13*	-.21	.11	-.13
Hierarchy of Authority				.18	.06	.18**	.17	.07	.17*
Step 3 Interaction variable									
Degree x Hierarchy							.06	.17	.03
R^2			.08			.13			.13
ΔR^2			.07***			.12***			.11***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 30: Regression of Social Work Degree and Division of Labor on Calling to the Field

Sense of Calling to the Field	<i>Model 1</i>			<i>Model 2</i>			<i>Model 3</i>		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Step 1 Control variables									
Male	.33	.08	.24***	.27	.08	.19**	.26	.08	.19**
Working years	.09	.04	.13*	.06	.04	.09	.06	.04	.09
Step 2 Independent variable									
Social work degree				-.27	.10	-.16**	-.27	.10	-.16**
Division of Labor				.32	.06	.31***	.35	.07	.34***
Step 3 Interaction variable									
Degree x Division							-.16	.16	-.06
R^2			.08			.20			.20
ΔR^2			.07***			.18***			.18***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 31: Regression of Social Work Degree and Rules on Sense of Calling to the Field

Sense of Calling to the Field	<i>Model 1</i>			<i>Model 2</i>			<i>Model 3</i>		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Step 1 Control variables									
Male	.33	.08	.24***	.25	.08	.18**	.25	.08	.18**
Working years	.09	.04	.13*	.07	.04	.11	.08	.04	.11
Step 2 Independent variable									
Social work degree				-.27	.10	-.16**	-.27	.10	-.16**
Rules				.43	.07	.34***	.45	.08	.35***
Step 3 Interaction variable									
Degree x Rules							-.09	.17	-.03
R^2			.08			.21			.21
ΔR^2			.07***			.20***			.20***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 32: Regression of Social Work Degree and Technology Competence on Sense of Calling to the Field

Sense of Calling to the Field	<i>Model 1</i>			<i>Model 2</i>			<i>Model 3</i>		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Step 1 Control variables									
Male	.33	.08	.24***	.28	.08	.20**	.28	.08	.20**
Working years	.09	.04	.13*	.09	.04	.13*	.09	.04	.13*
Step 2 Independent variable									
Social work degree				-.29	.10	-.17**	-.29	.10	-.17**
Technology Competency				.25	.06	.24***	.26	.07	.25***
Step 3 Interaction variable									
Degree x Competency							-.05	.19	-.02
R^2			.08			.15			.15
ΔR^2			.07***			.14***			.14***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 33: Regression of Social Work Degree and Bureaucracy Scale on Sense of Calling to the Field

Sense of Calling to the Field	<i>Model 1</i>			<i>Model 2</i>			<i>Model 3</i>		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Step 1 Control variables									
Male	.33	.08	.24***	.26	.08	.19**	.26	.08	.19**
Working years	.09	.04	.13*	.07	.04	.11	.07	.04	.10
Step 2 Independent variable									
Social work degree				-.25	.10	-.15*	-.25	.10	-.15*
Bureaucracy Scale				.75	.12	.35***	.73	.13	.34***
Step 3 Interaction variable									
Degree x Bureaucracy							.14	.35	.02
R^2			.08			.22			.22
ΔR^2			.07***			.21***			.20***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Other Analyses

This study also examined the degree of attitudinal professionalism and bureaucracy among participants from different types of work settings, with the purpose of exploring whether the different work settings demonstrated different degrees of social work professionalism and organizational bureaucracy. A total of ten types of work settings (hereafter “organizations”) plus an “other” option was listed as a single-choice question in the survey. As indicated in Table 3, most participants of this study came from social work agencies (65, 25.4%), followed by schools (50, 19.5%), governmental organizations (36, 14.1%), and resident’s committees (33, 12.9%). The other six organizations composed only 28% of the participants. In particular, fewer participants were from enterprises (20, 7.8%), other social work agencies (14, 5.5%) and hospitals (14, 5.5%). Very few participants reported they were from a quasi-governmental

organization (9, 3.5%), philanthropic foundation (1, .4%), or college (4, 1.6%). These three options were thus combined with the other option, and increased the respondents of the other option from 10 (3.9%) to 24 (9.4%). As a result, only the eight types of organizations with the most respondents were examined in the following analyses. Post Hoc tests of One-way ANOVA analysis were conducted for the types of organizations and each dimension of attitudinal professionalism and bureaucracy.

Social work agency and attitudinal professionalism

Almost all of the significant differences regarding the degree of attitudinal professionalism were found between social work agencies and other organizations, and only in regards with the entire scale and two subscales: Professional Association as Major Reference and Belief in Self-Regulation. Thus, only the results of the comparison between social work agency and other types of organizations in the degree of Professional Association as Major Reference, Belief in Self-Regulation and the entire scale were presented in Table 34-36.

Participants from social work agencies reported the significant higher degree of Belief in self-regulation ($M = 3.37, SD = .63$) than those from governmental organizations ($M = 2.69, SD = .62, p < .001$), residents' committees ($M = 2.80, SD = .51, p < .001$), hospitals ($M = 2.69, SD = .48, p < .01$), and schools ($M = 2.79, SD = .57, p < .001$). In addition, participants from social work agencies also reported the significant higher degree of Professional Association as Major Reference ($M = 3.52, SD = .73$) than participants from governmental organizations ($M = 2.93, SD = .99, p < .01$) and schools ($M = 2.94, SD = .81, p < .01$). The mean score of the entire scale reported by the participants from social work agencies ($M = 3.29, SD = .35$) was significant higher than those from governmental organizations ($M = 3.06, SD = .29, p < .05$). The only additional significant difference was found in the degree of Belief in Self-regulation between governmental organizations ($M = 2.69, SD = .62$) and other social service agencies ($M = 3.31,$

$SD = .59$), $p < .05$. No other significant differences in the attitudinal professionalism were found between the types of organizations in this study. The results indicated that participants from social work agencies tended to be more positive in terms of regarding social work professional associations as a major reference and believing in social work self-regulation. Nevertheless, they did not quite believe in the public service characteristic of the social work profession, nor autonomy at work.

Table 34: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Professional Association as Major Reference Between Social Work Agency and Other Organizations

Professional Association as Major Reference	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i>	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Social work agency	65	3.52±.73				3.35	.002**
Governmental organization	36	2.93±.99	.58	.16	.008**		
Residents' committee	33	3.23±.56	.30	.17	.639		
Hospital	14	3.11±.74	.42	.23	.615		
School	50	2.94±.81	.58	.15	.002**		
Another social service agency	14	3.36±.95	.17	.23	.996		
Enterprise	20	2.98±.85	.55	.20	.114		
Others	24	3.19±.81	.27	.19	.826		

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 35: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Belief in Self-Regulation Between Social Work Agency and Other Organizations

Belief in self-regulation	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i>	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Social work agency	65	3.37±.63				7.48	.000***
Governmental organization	36	2.69±.62	.69	.13	.000***		
Residents' committee	33	2.80±.51	.58	.13	.000***		
Hospital	14	2.69±.48	.68	.18	.004**		
School	50	2.79±.57	.59	.11	.000***		
Other social service agency	14	3.31±.59	.06	.18	1.000		
Enterprise	20	2.92±.73	.46	.16	.068		
Others	24	3.10±.68	.27	.14	.555		

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 36: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Attitudinal Professionalism Between Social Work Agency and Other Organizations

Attitudinal Professionalism	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i>	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Social work agency	65	3.29±.35				2.58	.014*
Governmental organization	36	3.06±.29	.23	.07	.012*		
Residents' committee	33	3.12±.24	.17	.07	.220		
Hospital	14	3.11±.35	.18	.09	.533		
School	50	3.15±.27	.14	.06	.270		
Other social service agency	14	3.26±.31	.02	.09	1.000		
Enterprise	20	3.13±.43	.16	.08	.495		
Others	24	3.25±.37	.04	.08	1.000		

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Social work agency and bureaucracy

The significant differences of the degree of bureaucracy were only found between social work agencies and other organizations with no exception, and only in regards of the subscales of Procedural Specificity and Impersonality. Thus, only the results of the comparison between social work agency and other types of organizations in the degree of Procedural Specificity and Impersonality were presented in Table 36 and Table 37. In particular, participants from social work agency ($M = 3.58$, $SD = .69$) reported significant higher degree of Procedural Specificity than participants from governmental organizations ($M = 3.01$, $SD = .77$, $p < .01$), hospitals ($M = 2.89$, $SD = .81$, $p < .05$), and schools ($M = 3.11$, $SD = .68$, $p < .05$). Additionally, participants from social work agencies ($M = 2.20$, $SD = .52$) reported significant lower degree of Impersonality than the participants from all other types of organizations, including governmental organizations ($M = 2.75$, $SD = .43$, $p < .001$), residents' committees ($M = 2.71$, $SD = .49$, $p < .001$), hospitals ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .50$, $p < .001$), schools ($M = 2.75$, $SD = .37$, $p < .001$), other social service agencies ($M = 2.73$, $SD = .48$, $p < .05$), enterprises ($M = 2.74$, $SD = .54$, $p < .01$), and others ($M = 2.61$, $SD = .72$, $p < .05$). The results indicated that social work agencies tended

to have strict rules, specific procedures, less hierarchy of authority, an emphasis on technical qualifications for hiring and promotion, and more significantly, have an open, friendly, and equal work environment.

Table 37: Post Hoc Tests Tukey HSD Comparison - Degree of Procedural Specificity Between Social Work Agency and Other Organizations

Procedural Specificity	<i>N</i>	<i>M±SD</i>	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Social work agency	65	3.59±.69				4.03	.000***
Governmental organization	36	3.02±.77	.57	.15	.004**		
Residents' committee	33	3.14±.66	.44	.15	.075		
Hospital	14	2.89±.81	.69	.21	.024*		
School	50	3.11±.68	.47	.13	.011*		
Other social service agency	14	3.14±.82	.44	.21	.413		
Enterprise	20	3.05±.81	.54	.18	.070		
Others	24	3.46±.61	.13	.17	.995		

Note. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001.

Table 38: Post Hoc Tests HSD Comparison - Degree of Impersonality Between Social Work Agency and Other Organizations

Impersonality	<i>N</i>	<i>M±SD</i>	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Social work agency	65	2.21±.51				7.02	.000***
Governmental organization	36	2.75±.43	-.53	.10	.000***		
Residents' committee	33	2.71±.49	-.50	.11	.000***		
Hospital	14	2.86±.50	-.64	.15	.000***		
School	50	2.75±.37	-.54	.09	.000***		
Other social service agency	14	2.73±.48	-.52	.15	.011*		
Enterprise	20	2.74±.54	-.53	.13	.001**		
Others	24	2.61±.72	-.40	.12	.021*		

Note. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001.

Chapter Summary

This chapter describes the data analysis and results of this study. During the data preparation stage, missing data were identified and handled individually for each variable. The number and frequency of each variable were presented. A new dummy variable, social work status, was created to provide more details of the study sample. Next, the reliability of both

Instruments was examined using Cronbach's alpha and Principal Component Analysis. Some items from the original scales were dropped due to the quite low alpha coefficient, resulting in two revised scales. Third, the relationship between the dependent variable and potential control variables was examined in order to determine if any of these variables should be controlled for hypothesis testing. Fourth, two hypotheses of this study were tested. Lastly, additional analyses were conducted to explore whether social work agencies demonstrated different degrees of social work professionalism and organizational bureaucracy than other types of organizations.

The first hypothesis that having a social work degree would indicate higher degree of professionalism was only partially supported. Compared to the participants without a social work degree, social work educated participants reported significant higher degree of Belief in Self-Regulation and the overall attitudinal professionalism; yet they reported significant weaker Sense of Calling. After controlling for the demographic variables, only the negative relationship between social work degree and the Sense of Calling remained. The moderating effect of bureaucracy scale and subscales on the Sense of Calling after controlling for the demographic variables was examined. None of the interaction effects was significant; hence the second hypothesis that bureaucracy would moderate the effect of social work degree on attitudinal professionalism was not supported. Additional analyses showed that social work agency employees tended to be more positive in regarding social work professional associations as a major reference and believing in self-regulation; yet they did not quite believe in the public service or the autonomy at work. Moreover, social work agencies tended to have strict rules, specific procedures, less hierarchy of authority, an emphasis on technical qualifications for hiring and promotion, and more significantly, have an open, friendly, and equal work environment.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The objective of this study was to assess Chinese licensed social workers' attitudes toward professionalism. The study also aimed to explore the relationship between social work degree type and professional attitudes, as well as the moderation effect of bureaucracy on the relationship. Through analyses of the data that were collected from 256 social work license holders from Shunde, Guangdong Province, this study was able to provide Chinese social work community some insights into members' attitudinal professionalism.

Discussion

Characteristics of social work license holders

In accordance with previous studies (Wang, 2012; Yan, 2013), the social work license holders who participated in this study were likely to be female (72%), relatively young (19 - 35 years old) (77.7%), holding a bachelor's degree (71.1%), and from various occupations and work positions. The majority of the participants were employed by government, quasi-governmental and government affiliated organizations¹⁰. Approximately a quarter of the participants (65) were employed by social work agencies. Twenty-three participants were not employed by social work agencies but reported they were working at social work-related positions. Only one eighth of the participants (40) in this study had an academic degree in social work. Nearly twenty percent of the participants (50) reported that they belonged to other professional groups such as accountants, counselors, secretaries, engineers, and lawyers. The characteristics of the participants confirmed the observation that had been identified in previous studies (Wang, 2012;

¹⁰ Residents' committees, public hospitals and schools are considered as government affiliated organizations in China.

Yan, 2013): the social work licensure exam is as well open to the public with no clear threshold of education or work qualification. Nonetheless, the findings of this study demonstrated that the primary customers of the social work licensure exam, despite the obscure threshold, have always been the personnel working in social service agencies, state welfare offices, and philanthropy institutions (Li et al., 2012).

The enthusiasm for general public to take the social work licensure exam might largely motivated by the benefits that come with the license. To meet the national goal of "having at least 3,000,000 social workers by 2020" (MCA, 2011), local governments offer free exam preparation trainings and cash incentives to urge civil cadres and staff of government affiliated organizations to pass the licensure exam. For instance, the Dongguan Association of Social Workers rewards RMB 1000 (\approx 150 US dollars) for junior social workers, and RMB 2000 (\approx 300 US dollars) for intermediate social workers. During the data collection, the researcher was asked by a participant about why he had not received the cash bonus this year. The researcher then learned from the vice-president of SASW that, until last year, the Shunde Department of Civil Affairs had been rewarding RMB 1000 cash (\approx 150 US dollars) to all Shunde residents who passed the licensure exam. The reward policy was abolished last year for reasons unknown. Shunde Association of Social Workers continues to provide free exam preparation trainings every year just a few weeks prior to the exam date. Social work agencies often promise employees a payment increase once they are licensed. Thanks to the continuous solid support from the government, a large number of traditional social service deliverers gained the professional status by passing the social work licensure exam.

As the definition of professional social work remains disputed, both formal education and license have been used to differentiate professionals and nonprofessionals in social work. Many

scholars have pointed out that there were at least two types of Chinese social workers due to the diverging paths of vocationalization of social work and professionalization of social work: actual social workers and professional social workers (Wang, 2006; Xiang, 2008; Yan, 2013; Zhen, 2008). Actual social workers are normally referred to the direct social service deliverers without social work formal education, while professional social workers are those who have received formal education in social work. However, social work license holders instead of social work graduates are often mentioned as professional social workers in governmental documents and policies (MCA, 2011). Xiong and Wang (2007) added another feature to professional social workers: individuals who work at social work agencies and positions.

Based on the criteria of professional social workers discussed above, three groups with definite boundaries emerged in this study: practitioners who work at social work agencies or social work positions (or social work practitioners), a social work educated group (or social work graduates), and social work license holders. Figure 4 displays the relationships between the three groups. The overlapping sections in the graph imply four subgroups: licensed social work practitioners (Group A), social work educated license holders (Group B), licensed social work educated practitioners (Group C), and non-licensed social work educated practitioners (Group D). The first three subgroups were identified in the study except for the group of non-licensed social work educated practitioners due to the nature of the sampling. In this study, there were 59 licensed social work practitioners, 11 social work educated license holders, and 29 licensed social work educated practitioners participated. The rest of the 157 participants were neither social work practitioners nor social work graduates. Group A and Group C consisted of the current population of social work practitioners in field. A new variable- social work status- was thus created and was used in the analyses to compare the characteristics between social work

practitioners and non-practitioners. The findings revealed that compared to non-practitioners, social work practitioner tended to be younger, to have a social work degree and an intermediate social work license, and to receive more types of continuing education. In addition, social work practitioners reported a significant shorter working time and lower income than non-practitioners, adding more evidence to the phenomenon that social workers have a high turnover rate and lower income compared to non-social workers.

The movement of professionalizing traditional social service deliverers through social work licensure exam keeps expanding as the number of examiners keeps growing (Swchina, 2014). Both the quality and the quantity of social workers are expected to improve by promoting the licensure exam. This study not only examined the attitudinal professionalism among social work license holders, but also explored the attitudinal professionalism of social work practitioners toward their profession.

- Group A: licensed social work practitioners.
- Group B: social work educated license holders.
- Group C: licensed social work educated practitioners.
- Group D: non-licensed social work educated practitioners.

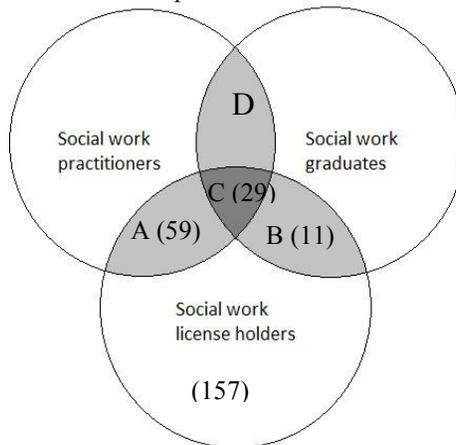


Figure 4: Composition of Chinese Social Work License Holders

Attitudinal professionalism among social work license holders

The findings of this study demonstrated that the professionalism of social work license holders was the strongest in the Sense of Calling to the Field ($M = 3.66$), and was the weakest in Belief in Autonomy ($M = 2.66$). The mean scores for single items of the original scale ranged from 2.55 (reversed score) for “my own decisions are subject to review” to 3.82 for “people in social work profession have a real ‘calling’ for their work.”

Professional Associations as Major Reference. There were two items left in the new subscale of Professional Associations as Major Reference: “I systematically read social work professional journals,” and “I regularly attend social work professional meetings at the local level.” Social work status, continuing education, supervision qualification and intermediate social work license were the variables appeared to be significant related to this dimension. Not surprisingly, the four variables were actually the profession-related variables among the nine control variables. It is expected for participants with more professional credentials and involvement to read more professional journals and attend more professional meetings. Table 34 also shows that participants from social work agencies reported a significantly higher degree of this dimension than those from government organizations and schools. The results may be explained that employees of social work agencies may be more exposed to professional resources and that the agencies encourage individuals’ professional growth.

In terms of the role of professional associations in developing social work, the situation of Shunde Association of Social Workers (SASW) could mirror many other local professional associations. SASW was established in 2011. The main tasks of SASW include membership management, trainings and continuing education, service evaluation, and policy research. For the past five years, SASW has recruited 175 individual members and 26 organization members. The organization members are mostly social work agencies, despite that the majority of social work

license holders are from governmental organizations. When recruiting participants for this study, the vice-president of SASW informed the researcher that she was not able to spread the invitation message of this study among governmental cadres as a governor declined her request. The governor believed that governmental cadres were not social workers even though they were holding a social work license, thus there was no necessary to survey them for a social work study. It can be concluded that the majority of social work license holders, such as those from governmental organizations or schools, are not a part of the social work professional community and may have only limited contribution to the professional development.

Belief in Public Service. The items that were used to measure the degree of Belief in Public Service were actually asking participants whether they agree that social work is more important to society than other professions. Most of the participants agreed, implying that social work license holders have realized the indispensable role of social work professional in the society. Yan (2013) pointed out that the social work licensure exam was probably the best path for the traditional social service deliverers and the public to learn about social work within a short period of time. The respondents in Yan (2013)'s study did report that the licensure exam improved the public recognition of the social work profession; especially for the traditional social service and welfare agencies, the licensure exam lessened their suspicious attitudes toward the social work profession. However, more empirical studies are needed to find out if social work license holders indeed demonstrate a significant higher degree of belief in the importance of the social work profession to society than do ordinary people. This study showed that the social work license holders at least demonstrated some understanding toward the importance of social work profession to the society.

Among all the control variables and the independent variable, the degree of Belief in Public Service was found to be significantly related to supervision qualification, namely supervisors were more likely to believe that social work was important than other professions to the society. The significant relationship is no surprise since one goal of social work supervisors' is to promote and strengthen supervisee's belief in the profession. Supervisors themselves ought to have a strong belief in their profession first (Hair, 2013; Tsui, 1997). Interestingly enough, participants who received zero continuing education in the past year reported significant higher degree of Belief in Public Service than those who received one-type continuing education. Yet the link was not as strong as the link between supervision qualification and the Belief in Public Service. No other variables, not even social work status, were found to relate to this dimension.

Belief in Self-regulation. The items that composed the subscale of Belief in Self-regulation were literally asking whether participants were able to know and judge the work of other social workers. The mean score of this subscale was the second lowest in the five dimensions the attitudinal professionalism. Participants tended to agree with one statement in the subscale "there is not much opportunity to judge how another person does his/her works." The reluctant attitudes toward the Belief in Self-regulation might be largely due to the fact that the majority of the participants were not actual social workers (Yan, 2013). In this study, only one third of the participants (88) were employed by social work agencies or were working at social work positions. The other two thirds of the participants might be able to learn about the basic values and theories of social work profession through taking the licensure exam; however, the licensure exam was not designed to assess their knowledge of the current social work practices. Many social work license holders might have no idea of what social workers are actually doing in the field, not to mention how to judge their work.

As expected, the results indicated that the four social work-relative variables, including social work status, continuing education, supervision qualification and license type, were all significant predictors to participants' understanding of social work practice. Social work practitioners, supervisors, and intermediate social work license holders reported that they were more likely to believe in self-regulation; in other words, they knew more about how social worker were doing their work in field. Also, the more types of continuing education, the more knowledgeable the participants become in regards of social work practice. In addition, female participants reported a higher degree of this dimension than male participants. It is possibly because that, as a traditionally vulnerable population, females might have more chances to hear about and to receive the social work services in communities. In conclusion, the social work licensure exam may improve examiner's' impression on social work profession, yet it is not adequate for examiners to truly understand social work practice.

Sense of Calling to the Field. This dimension is aimed to measure professionals' sense of calling to their field. Yet, most participants of this study were not social work practitioners but simply social work license holders. Therefore the dimension might only reflect their perceptions of the actual social work practitioners' sense of calling to the field, rather than their own experiences. In the original subscale of Sense of Calling to the Field, participants tended to disagree with only one item "most people would stay in social work field even if their incomes were reduced." This item was not included in revised subscale due to low factor loading, yet the negative attitude could still be able to show that participants believed income was a major factor for people to decide to stay in social work field. Low income is often mentioned by scholars and practitioners as the top reason for social workers to leave the field (Policy Research Center of MCA, 2013; Sznews, 2015). Shunde is one of the wealthiest cities in China. The GDP per capita

of Shunde in 2015 was above RMB100,000 (USD\$15,000), meaning that the monthly income for Shunde residents was likely to be above RMB8,000 (US\$1,250) (GDGOV, 2016). In this study, the monthly income of 77% of the participants fell between RMB2001 (USD\$300) -6000 (USD\$900), which was far below the average monthly income. Moreover, when controlling for working years, social workers received significant lower income than non-social workers. The findings supported the notion that social workers' income is quite low. The low income may make the sense of "calling" even more essential for social workers to stay in the field.

There were some other interesting findings that worth to mention here. Male participants reported a significantly higher degree of this dimension than did female participants. The social work profession has been often regarded as a female profession. In most industrialized capitalist societies, as well as in this study, women constitute around two-thirds of social workers (Aleut, 1992). In China, men are usually the breadwinners and are expected by the society to have a decent job to support their families. The current social work jobs, which are labeled with low income and low social status, are definitely not the ideal ones for Chinese men; and that is probably why the male participants of this study believed that a sense of calling must plays a vital role in social work professionalism. Participants with longer working years reported higher degree of Sense of Calling to the Field; to some extent the finding supported the claim of previous studies that calling was important for entering and remaining in social work field (Guo et al., 2014; Hall, 1968; Taylor, 1988).

Belief in Autonomy. The subscale of Belief in Autonomy received the lowest mean score among all dimensions, implying that the participants of this study were probably not granted with much autonomy in their work. Age and income were found to be positively related to this dimension, meaning that older participants and the participants with higher income were more

likely to have more autonomy at work. In addition, intermediate social workers reported a higher degree of this dimension than junior social workers. These significant relationships are easy to interpret as older age and higher income are often linked with higher positions at work, while higher positions are often granted with more autonomy. Similarly, intermediate social workers are those who have more work experiences and enjoy more respect as well as autonomy from work than junior social workers.

The low degree of autonomy is not unique to social work profession. Gu (2001) examined the development of three Chinese professional communities-accountants, lawyers, journalists-to illustrate the evolution of the state-profession relationship in China. Gu (2001) pointed out that China had been hostile toward the growth of professional autonomy; yet the market-oriented reforms had created a demand for professional autonomy. The growing number of private professional organizations is the best manifestation of the fact that professional autonomy is developing in China (Gu, 2001). Nevertheless, it is also true that the development of professional autonomy varies greatly across different professional sectors. In general, the professions in socioeconomic realms (e.g. public accounting, legal services) rather than those in political sensitive realms (e.g. mass media sector) are more likely to gain autonomy (Gu, 2001). Such phenomenon demonstrated that the primary goals of the state-professionals' cooperation are indeed economic development and social stability (Gu, 2001). While social work is deemed a politically sensitive profession in China, it can be concluded that the close control from the State greatly restricted the autonomy of social workers, resulting in a negative attitude toward the Belief in Autonomy among social work license holders. On one hand, social work has increasingly enjoyed a greater degree of autonomy in practice as China has transitioned from the stage of Nationalism to the stage of State Corporation, in which the State is more willing to

cooperate with professional communities in managing state affairs (Gu & Wang, 2005). On the other hand, the State has still maintained a high degree of control on the profession to ensure that the professional development does not deter social stability and economic growth (Chow, 2011).

Social work education and professionalism

As indicated in Table 20, compared to participants without a social work degree, social work-educated participants were more likely to be younger, social work practitioners, supervisors, and intermediate social work license holders. In addition, social work-educated participants tended to have shorter working time, to have higher educational level, and to receive more types of continuing education. These results implied that social work-educated license holders were quite active in the field in terms of achieving for more professional credentials. The younger age and shorter working time of social work-educated participants may be linked to the fact that social work is a relatively new profession in China and that the social work graduates are relatively young. Besides, high turnover rate among social workers may also contribute to the younger age and shorter working time.

Before controlling for the effect of other variables, participants with a social work degree demonstrated a significant higher degree of Belief in Self-Regulation yet lower degree of Sense of Calling to the Field than participants without a social work degree. After adding the control variables to the model, the association between social work degree and Belief in Self-Regulation became insignificant, while social work educated participants still reported a lower Sense of Calling to the field than the participants without any social work degree. In other words, in contrast to hypothesis 1, the results of this study revealed that holding a social work degree actually predicted a lower degree of attitudinal professionalism in the Sense of Calling to the Field.

As stated earlier in the literature review, many social work students did not choose social work as their major when entering college (Law & Gu, 2008). Instead they were assigned by the college to the social work program due to their relatively lower scores on the national university entrance examination. Students were never really motivated by a “calling” to the social work field. To some extent, social work students were forced to stay in social work program. Gao (2015) examined the employment status of fifty-seven social work graduates who graduated in 2013 and 2014 from BSW and MSW program, only six (11%) of the graduates were working as social workers, nearly half of the graduates' work was not relevant to social work at all (Gao, 2015). It is highly possible that social work graduates who choose to stay in social work field might because of the competitive job markets. Social work jobs were often treated as a temporary place for social work students to allow them to take the time finding other jobs (Tsang et al., 2008). Without an enhanced job market and work environment in the profession, we are unlikely to see more social work graduates in field. The four-year formal education might help some students become interested in social work or even decide to dedicate their career to this field, yet it might also lead to unrealistic expectations about what social workers should do or could do for the society, considering that the teaching materials are mainly imported from overseas (Li et al., 2012). The overwhelming conflicts between expectations and realities in the field might make social work graduates feel unrelated to the social work field, and eventually make them leave the field.

The disconnection between education and practice can also be identified in the legal profession. Lawyers in mainland China used to be state workers, mainly serving the interests of the state in pursuit of economic modernization. Not until the late 1980s were lawyers able to become "private practitioners." (Lo & Snape, 2005). The national and local lawyers' associations

are under the guidance of the Ministry of Justice and its bureau at local levels (Lo & Snape, 2005). The government has established a regulatory system to control almost all aspects of the legal profession, including legal education and the licensure exam (Gu, 2001). Legal education in China is regulated by the Ministry of Education of Justice. Most classes are taught by professors with quite limited clinical and practical experience (McMorrow, 2010). As a result, law graduates may find the reality is far away from the ideals that they learned in the classroom (McMorrow, 2010). In fact, many law students do not choose to practice law after graduation (McMorrow, 2010). As the formal legal education was not required for the licensure exam, any individuals with a college degree can take the licensure exam to obtain the lawyer's professional qualification certificate to become a legal professional.

It is necessary to discuss the Chinese higher education system here. The current higher education system in China is what Martin Trow (1947) defined as “mass higher education” which started in 1999 as a part of the planned economy. The motivation for the expansion of higher education for the government was to boost domestic consumption, to promote the development of enterprises, and to reduce employment pressure. Professional education was not considered an efficient way to stimulate the economy (Hoffman, 2010). The growing number of higher education graduates did not indicate better higher education qualifications; on the contrary, it led to a serious unemployment issue in the labor market. In the summer of 2013, there were nearly 2 million jobless graduates (Chan, 2015). Especially the students majored in social science and art; the majority of them were not working in the area related to their major (Chan, 2015).

Chinese scholars have been advocating for social work education development for decades. They believed that social work education was the key to professionalize social work in

China. This study provided a different view: the current social work formal education might not be able to generate superior social work professionalism at the current stage. Even worse, social work graduates demonstrated a much weaker sense of calling to the field than those without social work formal education. The disadvantages of social work education have been discussed thoroughly by many scholars (e.g. Li et al., 2012; Tsang et al., 2008; Yan et al., 2013). Yet very few of them highlighted the problems of the entire higher education system, which are much more perplexing and challenging.

To relieve the pressure of increasing unemployment among college graduates, the state launched the “Go West¹” and the “College Student Village Officer²” projects to attract graduates to take the jobs in less developed areas. However, as Bai (2006) mentioned, higher education has been widely accepted as one of the most important investments for Chinese families; most college graduates would choose to stay in affluent cities where they can get the best benefits out of educational investment. Similarly, it is unrealistic and unfair to send social work graduates to rural areas to work. Nevertheless, these projects were regarded by Wang (2015) as a great opportunity to develop rural social work. Wang (2015) proposed to equip the participants of these projects with social work values and skills, and support them with policies and resources of fighting poverty and serving disadvantaged rural populations.

Chai and Xiong (2009) pointed out that China should develop a mixed model of practice-oriented and academic-oriented social work education. Realizing the importance of field education and practice, a group of social work educators established several social work agencies in local communities. These social work agencies gradually became the primary sources for field education and employment for the students. Wang (2013) highly applauded this approach and stated that those agencies could be the solution for improving both social work education and

social work practice. These social work agencies do not only provide social work students the placements for field education and employment, but also enable social work teachers to enrich their teaching content with practical knowledge and skills (Wang, 2013; Yi, 2011). This approach was also supported by Bian and Mei (2016), who believed that college teachers could play a more active role in social work agency management. However, the teachers who are interested in running a social work agency often face a lack of understanding and support from the school and colleagues, as well as a lack of social service management knowledge and experience (Wang, 2013; Yi, 2011).

Professionalism and bureaucracy

Regarding the moderation effect of bureaucracy on the relationship between formal education and attitudinal professionalism, the moderation analysis did not show that the negative relationship between Sense of Calling and holding a social work degree was contingent on any of the aspect of agency bureaucracy. Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Nevertheless, there were still some interesting findings that worth to mention here.

In accordance with previous studies (Bartol, 1979; Green, 1966; Hall, 1963; Harris, 1998; Solomon, 1957), the significant relationships between attitudinal professionalism dimensions and bureaucracy dimensions were mixed. As indicated in Table 28, Division of Labor, Rules, and Technical Competence were all positively related to Professional Association as Major Reference and Sense of Calling to the Field. Hierarchy of Authority and Impersonality were both negatively related to the other three dimensions of attitudinal professionalism: Belief in Public Service, Belief in Self-regulation, and Belief in Autonomy; while Procedural Specificity was positively related to the three dimensions. Sense of Calling to the Field was the only attitudinal professionalism dimension that had all positive significant relationship with the bureaucracy dimensions. The relationship between the two entire scales was not significant.

The high degree of bureaucracy has been criticized as one major obstacle for social work development. Some scholars pointed out that the high degree of bureaucracy was the primary reason for the lack of autonomy in social work development (Wang, 2012). Yet the results demonstrated that, compared to the traditional social services organizations such as the government organizations, schools and hospitals, social work agencies only appeared to have a higher degree of Procedural Specificity; while the degree of Procedural Specificity was actually positively related with most dimensions of attitudinal professionalism, including the Belief in Autonomy. It is true that social work agencies did not demonstrate a significantly higher degree of the Belief in Autonomy than other organizations; however, they did not show less autonomy either.

The mean score of Impersonality of social work agencies was the lowest among all other organizations and the differences were all significant, indicating that social work agencies tended to have a more open, friendly and equal environment than other organizations. The dimension of Impersonality was negatively related to all but one professionalism dimension: Sense of Calling to the field. While the mean scores of attitudinal professionalism dimensions of social work agencies were only significantly higher in two dimensions (Professional association as major reference and Belief in Self-regulation) than certain types of organizations. More specifically, participants from social work agencies tended to report a significant higher degree of Professional Association as Major Reference than those from governmental organizations and schools. In addition, participants from social work agencies reported a significant higher degree of Belief in self-regulation than those from governmental organizations, resident's committees, hospitals, and schools.

It can be concluded that the degree of bureaucracy varies across different types of organizations and different aspects of bureaucracy. Social service organizations in China were not terribly bureaucratic like many scholars assumed. In some aspects like the hierarchy of authority and impersonality, Chinese social service agencies actually tended to be against bureaucracy. Regardless, social work agencies were not much different than other organizations in terms of the degree of bureaucracy.

Conclusion and Implication

Chinese professions are facing same difficulties in the process of professionalization, such as a lack of autonomy, inferior social status, heavy administrative responsibilities, and insufficient protection of their rights (Chow, 2011; Gu, 2001; Gu & Wang, 2005; Lo & Snape, 2005). Even the so-called traditional professions such as medical doctors (Chow, 2011), lawyers (Lo & Snape, 2005), and accountants (Gu, 2001) have also been under tight political control since their inceptions in the People's Republic of China. Gu and Wang (2005) indicated that along with the growing number of professional associations, China had gradually transitioned from the stage of Nationalism to the stage of State Corporation, as the government nowadays is more willing to cooperate with professional communities in managing state affairs. Nevertheless, professional communities in China actually have no choice but to cooperate with the state, so that the state, in return, is willing to support professional development (Gu & Wang, 2005). Likewise, the development of social work profession in China is in constant negotiation among members of the profession, the society and the state (Gao & Yan, 2015). The results of this study are consistent with a view that the state plays a dominant role in almost all aspects of social work development, ranging from social work education, licensure exam, position settings, to practice standards.

Developing the social work profession is not only a matter of professional development; it is also a key national strategy for the state to improve social welfare and people's wellbeing. Chow (2011) named professionalism under the dominance of the state as state-driven professionalism, which "has focused mostly on the professional standards and service quality without much concern over developing the profession for itself (p.iii)." As Zuo and Liu (2012) pointed out, the Chinese government does not have the patience to follow the traditional steps of developing a profession, but it still seeks to create a highly-qualified profession within only 20-40 years in order to catch up with the economic growth. Apparently, the licensure exam has become the most convenient way to create a large number of professional social workers. In the *Mid- to Long-term Planning of Building Social Work Professional Community (2011-2020)*, the state set up the strategic goal of expanding the number of professional social workers to 500,000 by 2015, with specific quotas of 50,000 intermediate social workers (ISW) and 10,000 senior social workers (SSW) (MCA, 2012). Nevertheless, the national social work license exam had its debut only seven years ago; by the end of 2015, there were 154,000 JSWs and 52,000 ISWs in total (MCA, 2016). The number of ISWs had met the state goal, yet the total number fell far behind. The plan of having 1,450,000 professional social workers by 2020 already seems impossible at this point. It is noteworthy that the state goals are only in regard to the number of social work license holders rather than social work practitioners, social work jobs or positions. It is undeniable that the licensure exam opened the door for many untrained personnel, particularly those traditional social service deliverers from governmental organizations, residents' committees, hospitals, and schools, to become social work license holders. However, licensure cannot and should not be synonymous with professionalism, especially when there is no professional distinction as individuals from all kinds of backgrounds can take the same licensure

exam. The disparities in attitudinal professionalism between different groups of the social work license holders were prominent as identified in this study.

Professionalism is gradually formed during the process of professional socialization (Hammer, 2000; Lui et al., 2003; Varley, 1963). Formal education is generally regarded as the most critical phase of professional socialization (Ferguson, 1993). Formal professional education is supposed to form professional self-identify among graduates and to produce qualified professionals in the field (Cuddie, 1996; Ferguson, 1993; Merton et al., 1957). Unfortunately, the current social work education in China has failed to transform social work students into professionals, leading to a severe waste of education resources (Bai, 2014). The constant low rate of social work graduates turning into practitioners for the past thirty years is resulted from the combination effect of various persistent challenges facing social work education, including the mass higher education system, the unprecedented competitive job market, the unfavorable social status and low incomes of social service providers, as well as the internal disadvantages in social work programs. None of the challenges can be resolved easily in the near future. This study revealed that, even among the social work graduates who willingly obtained social work licenses and those who stayed in social work field, their professionalism did not appear to be any greater than other social work license holders. On the contrary, they reported significantly less Sense of Calling to the Field. Without a strong sense of calling, social work graduates' work commitment and professional competence are likely to be fragile (Guo et al., 2014; Hall, 1968; Taylor, 1988). Perhaps it is time to lower the expectation on social work education programs in terms of promoting social work professionalism in China.

Besides the formal socialization through social work educational programs, which has been demonstrated as ineffective, professional socialization also takes place in the actual practice

settings (Miller, 2010; Varley, 1963). Nevertheless, most social work license holders did not receive formal social work education; neither do they experience professional socialization at work. On one hand, they are not considered as social workers by the public or by themselves. When recruiting participants for this study, the vice-president of SASW informed the researcher that she was not able to spread the invitation message of this study among governmental cadres as a governor declined her request. The governor believed governmental cadres were not social workers even though they were holding a social work license, thus there was no necessary to survey them for a social work study. On the other hand, even with a social work license, employees of governmental organizations, resident's committees, hospitals and schools still do not know much about what social workers do in the field. Some of them rarely read social work journals or attend professional meetings. Additionally, the professional associations have little influence on these groups, making it harder to connect the traditional social service system with the social work community. Hence, the licensure exam alone is not enough to turn traditional social work deliverers into professional social workers. More work is needed to promote social work professionalism.

Social work status, continuing education, supervision qualifications, and the type of social work license emerged as strong predictors of attitudinal professionalism in this study. For individuals without social work formal education, it is still possible to attain professionalism if they work at social work positions or social work agencies, participate in more types of continuing education, become a social work supervisor, or pass the intermediate social work licensure exam. Thus, for the current social work community in China, the professional socialization in the field is probably more effective than formal socialization in terms of promoting the professionalism. Four suggestions can be drawn from this study:

1) Encourage social work educators and researchers to be more active in the field.

Wen and Liu (2015) conducted a literature review to examine the published research papers with the keyword of “social work” from 2007-2014. They found that the number of the papers has increased from 587 to 1378 in seven years, and the subjects of the papers cover mostly the traditional voluntary populations (i.e. children, elderly, and people with disabilities) and the relevant social work policies, services and interventions. In current China the services for the traditional voluntary populations are mostly provided by traditional social service agencies, such as governmental organizations, residents’ committees, hospitals, and schools (Chen, 2011). The situation will not change any time soon. Social work educators and researchers could introduce their research findings to the traditional social service agencies and evaluate if these findings are able to make service delivery more effective and efficient. They could also reach out to the field and explore the opportunities to cooperate with service delivers in either practice or research. In this way, social work educators and researchers can be the best messengers to deliver social work values and knowledge to the traditional social service system, so as to fill the gap between textbooks and the realities. Wen and Liu (2015) also found that underneath the thriving databases, social work research still heavily relies on the theories and models developed in western countries; and the studies are sporadic rather than continuous and systematic. Scholars have pointed out the importance of evidence-based research and evaluations in professionalizing social work (Bai, 2014; Wen & Liu, 2015). Nevertheless, given the fact that Chinese social work is still struggling from indigenization and authentication of imported theories and knowledge (Walton & El Nasr, 1988), more fundamental research methods such as grounded theory, experimental and quasi-

experimental designs should be cultivated as well. The formation of scientific knowledge takes a great deal of effort and time. How to turn the experiences into knowledge is what the Chinese social work academic community needs to learn with patience and rigorousness.

2) Create more social work positions/titles in the traditional social service delivery system. This study suggests that social work positions and jobs may be helpful for promoting professionalism. Gao and Yan (2014) believed that creating social work positions within the social service systems was the most significant initiative. In fact, there are already a few social work positions in schools, hospitals, and even in the government organizations. Nevertheless, the social workers at these positions are usually employed by social work agencies and are dispatched to these positions. Dispatched social workers were distinct from the workers employed directly by social service agencies. The nature of these positions determined the unique yet awkward role of dispatched social workers: being separated from professional peers but also being isolated by colleagues in the office. Bian and Mei (2016) have realized that the embedding approach needs to give the way to a cooperative approach. They proposed that grassroots social service agencies should play the leading role in delivering social services as a part of the government (Bian & Mei, 2016). Nonetheless, it is unlikely for the state to merge social service agencies as a part of government, as shrinking the size of the government has been a national goal for a decade. Yet creating social work positions can be done by changing the title of certain social work license holders to social worker. Specific job description and responsibilities should also be established along with the title. With a social work title, while these workers still enjoy the current benefits and

status, the public can have more opportunities to access the professional services. The definite title can also strengthen the self-identity of social workers, and urge them to seek for the reference from professional communities.

3) **Strengthen the functions of professional associations.** Chinese professional associations have served mainly as an instrument of the state in controlling the professional development, rather than membership associations (Gu, 2001; Gu & Wang, 2005). This study has exposed the powerlessness of a local social work association in reaching out to the social work license holders from traditional social service agencies. Although professional associations have the channels and resources to expand and enhance the professional community, they lack the autonomy and authority to take any actions. Regardless, social work associations still have the supreme advantages to form a professional community. For instance, by providing free licensure exam preparation classes, social work associations have the opportunity to build a database of local social work candidates and license holders for member recruitment or research purposes. Social work associations should also take more initiative in providing a kind of belongingness for the members through meetings, conferences, and other activities. To enable social work associations to expand and strengthen their functions, above all, the government must assign fewer administrative tasks to the associations, and give more autonomy and support for the associations to realize their full potentials.

4) **Enforce continuing education among social work license holders.** Although the Ministry of Civil Affairs (MCA) announced the *Implementations of Social Work Continuing education* (referring to "Implementation") in 2009, which specified the minimal requirement of continuing education for social work license holders, this study

revealed that there were still more than one third of the license holders never had continuing education within the last year. Li and colleagues (2011) also pointed out that nearly half of the one million traditional social service providers had no sort of training (Li et al., 2011). Many scholars believed that continuing trainings cannot compensate the loss of four-year college education (Song, 2014; Wang & Zhang, 2011), however continuing education is the primary and probably the only means for licensed social workers, especially those without any formal social work education, to learn social work professional knowledge and skills (Wang & Zhang, 2011). Continuing education was found to be a predictor of attitudinal professionalism in this study, and a variety of types of continuing education was more effective than just lecturing. Therefore, the *Implementation* of continuing education should be treated more seriously. A system of continuing education registration and management is needed for local social work associations to enforce the *Implementation*. Furthermore, social work associations could collaborate with other entities in order to produce manifold high-quality educational activities.

In the near future, China will become the largest job market for social workers in the world (Li et al., 2011). This study is both relevant and timely for the social work profession to promote professionalism among license holders. This study also unearthed a new arena for international collaboration in professionalizing Chinese social work. The findings of this study suggested that the individual's degree of professionalism is dependent on many factors other than formal education. Social work education is not the precondition for individuals to develop higher levels of attitudinal professionalism; rather, attitudinal professionalism can also be enhanced after an individual enters the profession. These suggestions may be useful for other

countries that lack educational resources to develop social work profession. Based upon the findings, more studies could be done in the future to examine: First, do social work license holders report different attitudes toward professionalism than the ordinary population? Second, do MSW graduates report different attitudes toward professionalism than BSW graduates? Third, how can social work license holders become more motivated and effective in enhancing their professionalism? Fourth, what are the kinds and contents of continuing education that social work practitioners need the most to improve their professionalism and services? Fifth, can a more deliberate approach be taken to provide opportunities and strategies for the licensed traditional social service deliverers to be a part of the social work professionalization?

Limitations

Several limitations of this study are noted here to help readers and future researchers to be more cautious when applying the findings of this study. The primary limitation of this study is the low response rate and the lack of information for non-respondents. As was discussed in Data Collection, although the subjects of this study were all social work license holders in Shunde, it was unclear if the research invitation was delivered successfully to all subjects. At the first round of data collection, it was unknown if the invitation text had been received and read by all subjects or had been discarded as scan text right away. Moreover, quite a few contact numbers were empty and there was no way to obtain the correct numbers. At the second round of data collection, since the email addresses of participants were obtained by manual phone calls and only one attempt was made to call the numbers, many subjects might have missed the last opportunity to participate in this study because they missed the call. Not to mention, no follow up calls were made to the subjects working at governmental organizations. It was highly possible that some of the non-respondents never received the research invitation. The low response rate was partially caused by the limited communication channels. Therefore, the participants of this

study may not be able to represent the entire population of social work license holders from Shunde. Further generalizability can only be made when utilizing study participants from the total population of social work license holders within China.

The second limitation of this study was related to the measurement. This study utilized an online survey to collect individuals' attitudes and perceptions through self-reporting. Biases are inherent in self-report data. Participants might overrate or underrate certain items based on the social desirability rather than their own experiences. In addition, the original scales that were chosen to measure the attitudes and perceptions demonstrated low reliability, leading to ambiguity about the meaning of scale dimensions. Although the reliability of the revised scales was greatly improved, it was still below the satisfactory level. Therefore, interpretations of the relationships between variables should consider the potential for underestimating any relationships as a result of questions about the scales (Schmitt, 1996). Future researchers could explore and develop more reliable scales to measure the attitudinal professionalism and bureaucracy among Chinese professionals using Chinese language.

Last, Sense of Calling to the Field was the only dimension that demonstrated significant relationship with social work degree after controlling other variables; however, given the wording of the items in this study (e.g. People in social work profession have a real "calling" for their work), this dimension of attitudinal professionalism could also measure participants' perceptions of others' sense of calling to the field instead of their own experiences. Hence, it is uncertain what respondents meant with their replies, considering that the majority of the participants were not actual social workers. Readers should be cautious when interpreting the findings related to this dimension.

Chapter Summary

This chapter is the discussion and conclusion of this study. First, the characteristics of social work license holders were discussed. The attitudinal professionalism among social work license holders was then explicated for each dimension. The relationship between formal education and professionalism was discussed for social work as well as other professions in China. The relationships between attitudinal professionalism dimensions and bureaucracy dimensions were also mentioned. In conclusion, the licensure exam has become the most convenient way to create a large number of professional social workers. Yet the licensure exam alone is not enough to turn traditional social work deliverers into professional social workers. Given that social work education programs were not effective in promoting social work professionalism in China, more work need to be done. Suggestions and directions for future studies were provided in promoting the professionalism of social work in mainland China. Two major limitations of this study were noted in the end.

REFERENCES

- Abbott, A. (1988). *The systems of professions: —an essay on the division of expert labor*. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.
- Abbott, A. (1991). The order of professionalization: An empirical analysis. *Work and Occupations*, 18(4), 355– 384.
- Addams, J. (1912). *Twenty years at Hull House, with autobiographical notes*. New York, NY: The MacMillan Company.
- Adler, P. S., & Borys, B. (1996). Two types of bureaucracy: Enabling and coercive. *Administrative science quarterly*, 41(1), 61-89.
- Aiken, L. S., West, S. G., & Reno, R. R. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- An, Q., & Chapman, M. V. (2014). The early professional experience of a new social worker in China. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 50(2), 322-333.
- Anderson, W. A. (1977). *Conflict and congruity between bureaucracy and professionalism: Alienation outcomes among social service workers* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (Order No. 7808942)
- Anleu, S. L. R. (1992). The professionalization of social work? A case study of three organizational settings. *Sociology*, 26(1), 23-43.
- Bai, J. R. (2014). What is the role of social work in China? A multi-dimensional analysis. *Advances in Social Work*, 15 (2), 495-506.
- Bai, L. (2006). Graduate Unemployment: Dilemmas and Challenges in China's Move to Mass Higher Education. *The China Quarterly*, 185, 128-144, doi: 10.1017/S0305741006000087
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Barretti, M. (2004). The professional socialization of undergraduate social work students. *Journal of Baccalaureate Social Work*, 9(2), 9-30.
- Bartol, K. M. (1979). Professionalism as a predictor of organizational commitment, role stress, and turnover: A multidimensional approach. *Academy of Management Journal*, 22(4), 815-821.
- Benewick, R., & Takahara, A. (2002). Eight grannies with nine teeth between them: Community construction in china. *Journal of Chinese Political Science*, 7(1-2), 1-18.

- Bhat, C. R. (1994). Imputing a continuous income variable from grouped and missing income observations. *Economics Letters*, 46(4), 311-319.
- Bian, W. Z. & Mei, M. (2016). 从“嵌入式”转向“合作式”发展—治理背景下社会工作的发展路径. [From “embedded” to “cooperative” development – the developmental path of social work under the governance]. *人民论坛*, 2, 50-52.
- Billingsley, A. (1964). Bureaucratic and professional orientation patterns in social casework. *The Social Service Review*, 38(4), 400-407.
- BJMZJ. (2014). 关于加强民政事业单位社会工作岗位设置管理的实施办法. [*Implementing Measures for Promoting the Management of Social Work Post Setting in Civil Affairs Public Institutions*]. Retrieved from <http://www1.bjzmj.gov.cn/shgz/showBulletin.do?id=1961&dictionid=712&websiteId=700&netTypeId=2>
- Blau, P. M., & Scott, W. R. (1962). *Formal organizations: A comparative approach*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Bledstein, B. (1976). *The culture of professionalism: The middle class and the development of higher education in America*. New York, NY: Norton & Company.
- Bonjean, C. M., & Grimes, M. D. (1970). Bureaucracy and alienation: A dimensional approach. *Social Forces*, 48(3), 365-373.
- Bosnjak, M., Neubarth, W., Couper, M. P., Bandilla, W., & Kaczmirek, L. (2008). Prenotification in Web-Based Access Panel Surveys The Influence of Mobile Text Messaging Versus E-Mail on Response Rates and Sample Composition. *Social Science Computer Review*, 26(2), 213-223.
- Bray, D. (2006). Building ‘Community’: New strategies of governance in urban china. *Economy & Society*, 35(4), 530-549. doi: 10.1080/03085140600960799
- Brierley, J. A., & Cowton, C. J. (2000). Putting meta-analysis to work: Accountants' organizational-professional conflict. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 24(4), 343-353.
- CASW. (2014). 2013-2014 年度全国社工行业组织统计调查报告. [*National social work profession and organizations annual survey report, 2013-2014*]. Retrieved from <http://news.swchina.org/industrynews/2014/1009/18101.shtml>
- Carr-Saunders, A. M., & Wilson, P. A. (1964). *The professions*. London: Frank Cass.
- Chai, J. & Xiong, S. (2009). The patterns of social work education in the UK and USA and its inspiration for China. *Studies in Foreign Education*, 11, 17-21.
- Chan, A. T., Chan, E. H., & Scott, D. (2007). Evaluation of Hall’s professionalism scale for professionals in the construction industry. *Psychological Reports*, 100, 1201-1217

- Chan, C. L. W. (1993). *The myth of neighborhood mutual help: The contemporary Chinese community-based welfare system in Guangzhou*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Chan, W. K. (2015). Higher education and graduate employment in China: Challenges for sustainable development. *Higher Education Policy*, 28(1), 35-53.
- Chen, B. L. (2011). 上海社工机构发展之制度困境及发展路径研. [A research of dilemma and solution of social work institutions in Shanghai]. *华东理工大学学报(社会科学版)*, 4, 33-37.
- Chen, S. (1996). *Social policy of the economic state and community care in Chinese culture: Aging, family, urban change, and the socialist welfare pluralism*. Aldershot, UK: Avebury.
- Cheung, M., & Liu, M. (2004). The self-concept of Chinese women and the indigenization of social work in China. *International Social Work*, 47(1), 109-127.
- China Academic Degrees & Graduate Education Information. (2012). 社会工作硕士项目发展指导意见. [*Guidance for master of social work program development*]. Retrieved from <http://www.cdgc.edu.cn/xwyyjsjyxx/gjjl/szfa/shgzss/xgjs/275982.shtml>
- Chinadaily. (2012). Beijing Municipal Bureau of Civil Affairs. Retrieved from http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/beijing/2012-12/18/content_16028006.htm
- Choate, A. C. (1998). Local governance in China, part II: An assessment of urban residents' committees and municipal community development. *The Asia Foundation Working Paper Series*, 1. Retrieved from <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/APCITY/UNPAN018198.pdf>.
- Chow, T. Y. B. (2011). *Medical doctors of the People's Republic of China: the profession, professionalization, professionalism and professional commitment* (Doctoral dissertation, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University). Retrieved from http://ira.lib.polyu.edu.hk/bitstream/10397/5356/2/b25072419_ir.pdf
- Churchill Jr, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of marketing research*, 64-73.
- Clearfield, S. M. (1977). Professional self-image of the social worker: Implications for social work education. *Journal of Education for Social Work*, 13(1), 23-30.
- Cohen, A., & Kol, Y. (2004). Professionalism and organizational citizenship behavior: An empirical examination among Israeli nurses. *Journal of managerial psychology*, 19(4), 386-405.
- Cortis, N., & Meagher, G. (2012). Social work education as preparation for practice: Evidence from a survey of the New South Wales community sector. *Australian Social Work*, 65(3), 295-310.

- Crawford, S. D., Couper, M. P., & Lamias, M. J. (2001). Web surveys perceptions of burden. *Social science computer review*, 19(2), 146-162.
- Cryns, A. G. (1977). Social work education and student ideology: A multivariate study of professional socialization. *Journal of Education for Social Work*, 13(1), 44-51.
- Cuddie, P. R. (1996). *Professional status, professionalism and the influence of a professional education: an analysis of newswire in Canada*. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (ISBN. 0-612-19423-X)
- Derber, C. (1983). Managing professionals: ideological proletarianization and post-industrial labor. *Theory and Society*, 12(3), 309-341.
- Derleth, J., & Koldyk, D. R. (2004). The shequ experiment: Grassroots political reform in urban china. *Journal of Contemporary China*, 13(41), 747-777. doi: 10.1080/1067056042000281404
- Dixon, J. (1981). Community-based welfare support in China: 1949-1979. *Community Development Journal*, 16(1), 21-29. doi:10.1093/cdj/16.1.21
- Downey, R. G., & King, C. V. (1998). Missing data in Likert ratings: A comparison of replacement methods. *The Journal of general psychology*, 125(2), 175-191.
- Elliott, P. R. C. (1972). *The sociology of the professions*. New York, NY: Herder and Herder.
- Emmerik, I. H. V., Jawahar, I. M., & Stone, T. H. (2005). Associations among altruism, burnout dimensions, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Work & Stress*, 19(1), 93-100.
- Epstein, W. M. (1992). Professionalization of social work: The American experience. *Social Science Journal*, 29(2), 153-166.
- Evetts, J. (2013). Professionalism: Value and ideology. *Current Sociology*, 61(5-6), 778-796.
- Fan, W., & Yan, Z. (2010). Factors affecting response rates of the web survey: A systematic review. *Computers in human behavior*, 26(2), 132-139.
- Farmer, S. M., & Fedor, D. B. (2001). Changing the focus on volunteering: An investigation of volunteers' multiple contributions to a charitable organization. *Journal of Management*, 27(2), 191-211.
- Fei, M. P. (2002). 关于社会工作专业教育中课程设置模式的思考. [Reflections on the course setting mode in social work specialty education]. *长沙民政职业技术学院学报*, 3 (17), 16-19.
- Feng, Y., & Ding, S.Y. (2014). 社会工作协会功能角色研究. [A study on functional roles of associations of social work in China]. *社会工作*, 3, 120-140.

- Ferguson, K. M. (2005). Beyond indigenization and reconceptualization: Towards a global, multidirectional model of technology transfer. *International Social Work*, 48(5), 519-535.
- Flexner, A. (2001). Is social work a profession? *Research on Social Work Practice*, 11(2), 152-165.
- Folaron, G., & Hostetter, C. (2006). Is social work the best educational degree for child welfare practitioners? *Journal of Public Child Welfare*, 1(1), 65-83.
- Forsyth, P. B., & Danisiewicz, T. J. (1985). Toward a theory of professionalization. *Work & Occupations*, 12(1), 59-76.
- Freeman, M. K. (1994). *Attitudes of professionalism among selected practitioners of continuing higher education* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (Order No. 9430784)
- Freidson, E. (1984). The changing nature of professional control. *Annual review of sociology*, 10, 1-20.
- Freidson, E. (1988). *Professional powers: A study of the institutionalization of formal knowledge*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Gao, J. G., & Yan, M. C. (2014). Social work in the making: The state and social work development in China. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 24(1), 93-101.
- Gao, Q. Y. (2015). *社会工作专业毕业生就业状况调查报告——以某学院为例*. [The report of employment of social work graduates—take a college for example (Master's thesis)]. Available from 中国优秀硕士学位论文全文数据库.
- GDGOV. (2016, January 20). 佛山人均 GDP 去年突破 10 万元,成功跻身高收入城市行列. [Foshan per capita GDP exceeded 10 million last year, and became one of the high-income cities]. *Nanfang Daily*. Retrieved from http://www.gd.gov.cn/govpub/zwdt/dfzw/201601/t20160120_223950.htm
- Gliem, R. R., & Gliem, J. A. (2003). *Calculating, interpreting, and reporting Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for Likert-type scales*. Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education.
- Goode, W. J. (1969). The theoretical limits of professionalization. In A. Etzioni (ed.), *The Semi-professions and their Organization* (pp. 266-313). London, England: Collier Macmillan.
- Gorman, E. H. (2014). Professional self-regulation in North America: The cases of law and accounting. *Sociology Compass*, 8(5), 491-508.
- Graham, J. W. (2009). Missing data analysis: Making it work in the real world. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60, 549-576.

- Gray, M., & Coates, J. (2010). 'Indigenization' and knowledge development: Extending the debate. *International Social Work*, 53(5), 613-627.
- Green, A. D. (1966). The professional social worker in the bureaucracy. *Social Service Review*, 40(1), 71-83.
- Greenwood, E. (1957). Attributes of a profession. *Social work*, 2(3), 45-55.
- Gu, E. (2001). State corporatism and the politics of the state-profession relationship in China: A case study of three professional communities. *American Asian Review*, 19(4), 163-199.
- Gu, X. & Wang, X. (2005). 从国家主义到法团主义：中国市场转型过程中国家与专业团体关系的演变. [From Statism to Corporatism: Changes in the relationship between the state and professional associations in the transition to market economics in China]. *社会学研究*, 2, 155-175.
- Guan, X. (2000). China's social policy: Reform and development in the context of marketization and globalization. *Social Policy & Administration*, 34(1), 115-130.
- Guo, Y., Guan, Y., Yang, X., Xu, J., Zhou, X., She, Z., Jiang, P., Yang, W., Pan, J., Deng, Y., Pan, Z., & Fu, M. (2014). Career adaptability, calling and the professional competence of social work students in China: A career construction perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 85(3), 394-402.
- Hair, H. J. (2013). The purpose and duration of supervision, and the training and discipline of supervisors: What social workers say they need to provide effective services. *British Journal of Social Work*, 43, 1562-1588.
- Hall, R. H. (1963). The concept of bureaucracy: An empirical assessment. *American Journal of Sociology*, 69(1), 32-40.
- Hall, R. H. (1968). Professionalization and bureaucratization. *American Sociological Review*, 33(1), 92-104.
- Hamamura, T., Heine, S. J., & Paulhus, D. L. (2008). Cultural differences in response styles: The role of dialectical thinking. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 44(4), 932-942.
- Hammer, D. P. (2000). Professional attitudes and behaviors: the "A's and B's" of professionalism. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 64(4), 455-464.
- Hansan, J. E. (2013). Charity organization societies (1877 - 1893). *The Social Welfare History Project*. Retrieved from <http://www.socialwelfarehistory.com/organizations/charity-organization-societies-1877-1893/>
- Hair, H. J. (2013). The purpose and duration of supervision, and the training and discipline of supervisors: What social workers say they need to provide effective services? *British Journal of Social Work*, 43, 1562-1588.

- Harris, J. (1998). Scientific management, bureau-professionalism, new managerialism: The labour process of state social work. *British Journal of Social Work*, 28(6), 839-862.
- Heberlein, T. A., & Baumgartner, R. (1978). Factors affecting response rates to mailed questionnaires: A quantitative analysis of the published literature. *American Sociological Review*, 43(4), 447-462.
- Hoffman, L. M. (2010). *Patriotic professionalism in urban China: Fostering talent*. Temple University Press. Philadelphia: Pennsylvania
- Holden, R.R., & Fekken, G.C. (1990). Structured psychopathological test item characteristics and validity. *Psychological Assessment*, 2(1) 35–40.
- Howe, E. (1980). Public professions and the private model of professionalism. *Social Work*, 25(3), 179-191.
- Hugman, R. (2009). But is it social work? Some reflections on mistaken identities. *British Journal of Social Work*, 39(6), 1138-1153.
- Hui, C. H., & Triandis, H. C. (1989). Effects of culture and response format on extreme response style. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 20(3), 296-309.
- Hwang, J., Lou, F., Han, S., Cao, F., Kim, W., & Li, P. (2009). Professionalism: the major factor influencing job satisfaction among Korean and Chinese nurses. *International Nursing Review*, 56(3), 313-318. doi:10.1111/j.1466-7657.2009.00710.x
- Johnson, T.J. (1972). *Professionals and power*. London: Macmillan
- Johnson, J.M., Bristow, D.N. & Schneider, K.C. (2004). Did you not understand the question or not? An investigation of negatively worded questions in survey research. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 20(1), 75–86.
- Johnson, T., Kulesa, P., Cho, Y. I., & Shavitt, S. (2005). The relation between culture and response styles evidence from 19 countries. *Journal of Cross-cultural psychology*, 36(2), 264-277.
- Kaiser, H. F. (1970). A second generation little jiffy. *Psychometrika*, 35(4), 401-415.
- Kalbers, L.P., & Fogarty, T.J. (1995). Professionalism and its consequences: A study of internal auditors. *Auditing*, 14(1), 64 – 87.
- Kaplowitz, M. D., Hadlock, T. D., & Levine, R. (2004). A comparison of web and mail survey response rates. *Public opinion quarterly*, 68(1), 94-101.
- Kenny, D. A. (1987). *Statistics for the social and behavioral sciences*. Boston: Little, Brown.

- Kerr, S., Von Glinow, M. A., & Schriesheim, J. (1977). Issues in the study of “professionals” in organizations: The case of scientists and engineers. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 18(2), 329-345.
- Kingsmith, M. R. (1997). *An examination of structural and attitudinal attributes of professionalism in residential child and youth care practice in Alberta, Canada* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (Order No. 9729936).
- Krous, T., & Nauta, M. M. (2005). Values, motivations, and learning experiences of future professionals: Who wants to serve underserved populations? *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 36(6), 688.
- Larson, M. S. (1979). *The rise of professionalism: A sociological analysis*. Oakland: University of California Press.
- Larson, G. D. (1993). *Professional socialization and the development of professional self-image and professional identification in Alberta social workers* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (Order No. 9323463).
- Law, A. K. C., & Gu, J. X. (2008). Social work education in mainland China: development and issues. *Asian Social Work and Policy Review*, 2(1), 1-12.
- Leiby, J. (1978). *A history of social welfare and social work in the United States*. New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Leighninger, L. (1978). Professionalism and social work education: Substance and structure. *Journal of Sociology & Social Welfare*, 5(2), 188-213.
- Leung, J. (1990). The community-based welfare system in China. *Community Development Journal*, 25(3), 195-205. doi:10.1093/cdj/25.3.195
- Leung, T. T. F. (2012). The work sites as ground of contest: Professionalization of social work in China. *British Journal of Social Work*, 42(2), 335-352. doi:10.1093/bjsw/bcr063
- Leung, T.T.F., Yip, N.M., Huang, R., & Wu, Y. (2012). Governmentality and the politicisation of social work in China. *British Journal of Social Work*, 42(6), 1039-1059.
- Li, X. W., & Luo, J. P. (2015). 深圳社工协会发布行业年度数据报告.[*Shenzhen Social Work Association Published the profession annual survey report*]. Retrieved from <http://news.1wgy.com/show-14-6579-1.html>
- Li, Y., Han, W. J., & Huang, C. C. (2012). Development of social work education in China: Background, current status, and prospects. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 48(4), 635-653.
- Li, Y. Q. (2015, January 30). 去年深圳社工流失率为 22.2%。[Shenzhen social work turnover rate reached 22.2% last year] [Online news]. Retrieved from http://jb.sznews.com/html/2015-01/30/content_3137653.htm

- Li, Y. S., Han, W, J. & Huang, J. Z. (2011). 中国社会工作教育的发展. [Development of Social Work Education in China]. *社会科学*, 5, 82-90.
- Lin, M.B., Gabbard, W.J., Hwang, Y.S. & Jagers, J. (2011). Urban community-based services in China: Tensions in the transitions. *Community Development Journal*, 46(1), 122-131.
- Liu, Z. (2009). 我国社会福利制度的现状和问题. [The situation, problems and countermeasures of social work post creation in the civil administration institutions]. *中国社会工作*, 21, 12-16
- Lo, C. W. H., & Snape, E. (2005). Lawyers in the People's Republic of China: A study of commitment and professionalization. *The American Journal of Comparative Law*, 53(2), 433-455.
- Lou, V. W., Pearson, V., & Wong, Y. C. (2012). Humanitarian welfare values in a changing social environment: A survey of social work undergraduate students in Beijing and Shanghai. *Journal of Social Work*, 12(1), 65-83.
- Lubove, R. (1965). *The professional altruist: The emergence of social work as a career, 1880-1930*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Lui, S. S., Ngo, H. Y., & Tsang, A. W. N. (2003). Socialized to be a professional: A study of the professionalism of accountants in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(7), 1192-1205.
- Luo, G.C. (2011). 社工协会的角色仍然有待发展.[The role of social work associations need further development]. *中国社会工作*, 1, 1-1.
- Lymbery, M. (2005). *Social work with older people: context, policy and practice*. London: Sage Publications.
- Makeda, K. A. N. (2010). *The degree of professionalism among actively practicing registered nurses in south Texas* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (Order No. 3406530).
- Trow, M. (1947). *Problems in the Transition from Elite to Mass Higher Education*. Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, Berkeley, CA.
- May, T., & M. Buck. (1998). Power, professionalism and organisational transformation. *Sociological Research Online*, 3(2). Retrieved from <http://www.socresonline.org.uk/3/2/5.html>
- MCA. (2006). 社会工作者职业水平评价制度解读. [Provisional regulations on the assessment of the vocational standards of social workers]. Retrieved from <http://sw.mca.gov.cn/article/jd/200710/20071000002769.shtml>

- MCA. (2008). 关于民政事业单位岗位设置管理的指导意见.[*The guiding opinion on post setting in civil affairs public institutions*]. Retrieved from <http://sw.mca.gov.cn/article/tzgg/200810/20081000021803.shtml>
- MCA. (2010). 目前全国已开发 45000 多个社会工作岗位.[*More than 45, 000 social worker posts have been installed Nationwide*]. Retrieved from <http://mzst.mca.gov.cn/article/nzfxh2010/mtgz/201007/20100700087195.shtml>
- MCA. (2011). 关于加强社会工作专业队伍建设的意见. [*Building Stronger Professional Capacity among Social Workers*]. Retrieved from http://www.gov.cn/gzdt/2011-11/09/content_1988681.htm
- MCA. (2012). 社会工作专业队伍建设中长期规划(2011—2020 年). [*The long-term planning of social work professionals building*]. Retrieved from <http://www.mca.gov.cn/article/zwgk/jhgh/201204/20120400302325.shtml>
- MCA. (2016). 2015 年民政工作报告. [*Civil Affairs Work Report 2015*]. Retrieved from <http://images3.mca.gov.cn/www/file/201605/1462763666281.pdf>
- McMorrow, J. A. (2010). Professional responsibility in an uncertain profession: legal ethics in China. *Akron Law Review*, 43(3), 1081-1105. Retrieved from <http://lawdigitalcommons.bc.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1316&context=lsfp>
- Merton, R. K., Reader, G., & Kendall, P. L. (1957). The student physician: Introductory studies in the sociology of medical education.
- Miller, S. E. (2010). A conceptual framework for the professional socialization of social workers. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*, 20(7), 924-938.
- Miller, S. E. (2013). Professional socialization: A bridge between the explicit and implicit curricula. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 49(3), 368-386.
- Miller, J., & Fry, L. (1976). Measuring professionalism in law enforcement. *Criminology*, 14(3), 401-412.
- Mok, B. H. (1988). Grassroots organizing in China: the residents' committee as a linking mechanism between the bureaucracy and the community. *Community Development Journal*, 23(3), 164-69. doi:10.1093/cdj/23.3.164
- Montagna, P. D. (1968). Professionalization and bureaucratization in large professional organizations. *American Journal of Sociology*, 74 (2), 138-145.
- Moore, W. E. (1970). *The professions: Roles and rules*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Morrow, P. C., & Goetz, J. F. (1988). Professionalism as a form of work commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 32(1), 92-111.

- Moses, L. E., Emerson, J.D., & Hosseini, H. (1984). Analyzing data from ordered categories. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 311, 422-428.
- Munnell, T. C. (1972). *Bureaucratic orientation and attitudinal attributes of professionalism among professional social workers in a classical bureaucratic setting* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & These, (Order No. 7311547)
- Ngai, N. P. (1996). Revival of social work education in China. *International Social Work*, 39(3), 289-300.
- Noordegraaf, M. (2011). Remaking professionals? How associations and professional education connect professionalism and organizations. *Current Sociology*, 59(4), 465-488.
- Nulty, D. D. (2008). The adequacy of response rates to online and paper surveys: what can be done? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 33(3), 301-314.
- Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric Methods*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- O'Neill, S. (1999). Social work-a profession? *Journal of social work practice*, 13(1), 9-18.
- Peng. (2010). 上海社会工作机构的生成轨迹与发展困境. [The development track and dilemmas of Shanghai social work agencies]. *社会科学*, 2, 54-64.
- Policy Research Center of MCA. (2013). *社区社会工作人才队伍建设的探索研究. [An exploratory study on building a team of shequ social workers]*. Retrieved from <http://zyzx.mca.gov.cn/article/mzlt2012/hj/w/201303/20130300436906.shtml>
- Polit, D. F., Beck, C. T., & Owen, S. V. (2007). Is the CVI an acceptable indicator of content validity? Appraisal and recommendations. *Research in nursing & health*, 30(4), 459-467.
- Pösö, T., & Forsman, S. (2013). Messages to social work education: What makes social workers continue and cope in child welfare? *Social Work Education*, 32(5), 650-661.
- Reeser, L. C., & Epstein, I. (1990). *Professionalization and activism in social work: The sixties, the eighties, and the future*. New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Reinders, R. C. (1982). Toynbee hall and the American settlement movement. *Social Service Review*, 56(1), 39-54.
- Ritzer, G. (1975). Professionalization, bureaucratization and rationalization: the views of Max Weber. *Social Forces*, 53(4), 627-634.
- Roszkowski, M. J., & Soven, M. (2010). Shifting gears: Consequences of including two negatively worded items in the middle of a positively worded questionnaire. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35(1), 113-130.
- Sauro, J., & Lewis, J. R. (2011). When designing usability questionnaires, does it hurt to be positive? *SIGCHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, 2215-2224.

- Retrieved from
<http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.365.1039&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- SASW. (n.d.). 深圳市社会工作者协会简介. [*The introduction of Shenzhen Association of Social Workers*]. Retrieved from
<http://www.szswa.org/index/association/list.jsp?typeid=29>
- Schack, D. W., & Hepler, C. D. (1979). Modification of Hall's Professionalism Scale for use with pharmacists. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 43(2), 98-104.
- Schmitt, N. (1996). Uses and abuses of coefficient alpha. *Psychological Assessment*, 8(4), 350-353. Retrieved from
<http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.615.4053&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Scott, W. R. (1965). Reactions to supervision in a heteronomous professional organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 10(1), 65-81.
- Scott, W. R. (1966). Professionals in bureaucracies-areas of conflict. In H. Volmer & D. Mills (Eds.), *Professionalization* (pp. 265-275). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Scott, W. R. (1969). Professional employees in a bureaucratic structure: Social work. In A. Etzioni (Eds.), *The semi-professions and their organization* (pp. 82-140). New York: Free Press.
- Sha, W., Wong, Y. C., Lou, V. W., Pearson, V., & Gu, D. H. (2012). Career preferences of social work students in Beijing and Shanghai. *Social Work Education*, 31(1), 4-21.
- Shafer, W. E., Park, L. J., & Liao, W. M. (2002). Professionalism, organizational-professional conflict and work outcomes: a study of certified management accountants. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 15(1), 46-68.
- Shih, T. H., & Fan, X. (2009). Comparing response rates in e-mail and paper surveys: a meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, 4(1), 26-40.
- Snizek, W. E. (1972). Hall's professionalism scale: An empirical reassessment. *American Sociological Review*, 37(1), 109-114.
- Solinger, D. J. (1997). The impact of the floating population on the danwei: Shifts in the pattern of labor mobility control and entitlement provision. In X. Lü, & E. J. Perry (Eds.), *Danwei: the changing Chinese workplace in historical and comparative perspective* (pp. 195). Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe.
- Song, J. S. (2014). “持证社工”继续教育中的价值认同与能力提升问题探讨. [Discussions about strengthening of value identity of continuing education of the licensed social workers]. *社会工作教育*. 1, 53-59.
- Sorensen, J. E., & Sorensen, T. L. (1974). The conflict of professionals in bureaucratic organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 19(1), 98-106.

- Spencer-Rodgers, J., Williams, M. J., & Peng, K. (2010). Cultural differences in expectations of change and tolerance for contradiction: A decade of empirical research. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 14(3), 296-312.
- Stockburger, D.W. (1998). *Multivariate statistics: concepts, models, and application* [E-reader Version]. Retrieved from <http://www.psychstat.missouristate.edu/multibook/mlt08m.html>
- Stoltzfus, K. M. (2015). The motivation of Russian Federation social work students for pursuing a social work degree. *International Social Work*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1177/0020872815580043
- Strolin-Goltzman, J., Kollar, S., & Trinkle, J. (2010). Listening to the voices of children in foster care: Youths speak out about child welfare workforce turnover and selection. *Social Work*, 55(1), 47-53.
- Su-Mei, H. (1997). Does higher education enhance the professionalism of nursing? *Professional Nurse*, 24(3), 20-22.
- Swchina. (2014, October 9). 2013-2014 年度全国社会工作行业组织统计调查报告. [The report of social work organizations annual survey (2013-2014)]. Retrieved from <http://news.swchina.org/industrynews/2015/0316/21002.shtml>
- SZMZ. (2008). 深圳市社会工作专业岗位设置方案（试行）. [Social work professional positions design in Shenzhen (Trial)]. Retrieved from http://www.szmz.sz.gov.cn/xxgk/ywxx/shxx/zcfg/201110/t20111018_1743925.htm
- SZNEWS. (2015). 深圳发布社工行业数据. [Shenzhen published data on the development of social work profession]. Retrieved from http://www.sznews.com/news/content/2015-01/30/content_11129909.htm
- Taylor, L. E. (1988). *Professional commitment: The influences of the processes socialization and professionalization and selected socio-demographic factors in Canadian social work* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (Order No. NL46347)
- Tong, T. C. K., Keung, D. I. F., & Mei, A. L. S. (2009). Social work professionalization in China: The case of Shenzhen. *China Journal of Social Work*, 2 (2), 85-94. Retrieved from <http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edb&AN=43187561&site=eds-live&scope=site>
- Toren, N. (1969) Semi-professionalism and social work: A theoretical perspective. In A. Etzioni (Ed.), *The Semi-professions and their organization* (pp. 141-195), New York: Free Press.
- Toren, N. (1972). *Social work: The case of a semi-profession*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Tsang, A.K.T. & Yan, M.C. (2005). A Snapshot on the Development of Social Work Education in China: A Delphi Study. *Social Work Education*, 24(8), 883-901.

- Tsang, A. K. T., Sin, R., Jia, C., & Yan, M. C. (2008). Another snapshot of social work in China: Capturing multiple positioning and intersecting discourses in rapid movement. *Australian Social Work*, 61(1), 72-87. doi: 10.1080/03124070701818740
- Tschannen-Moran, M. (2009). Fostering teacher professionalism in schools the role of leadership orientation and trust. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 45(2), 217-247.
- Tsui, M. S. (1997). The roots of social work supervision: An historical review. *The Clinical Supervisor*, 15(2), 191-198.
- Valutis, S., Rubin, D., & Bell, M. (2012). Professional Socialization and Social Work Values: Who Are We Teaching? *Social Work Education*, 31(8), 1046-1057.
- Van Maanen, J. (1975). Police socialization: A longitudinal examination of job attitudes in an urban police department. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 20(2), 207-228.
- Varley, B. K. (1963). Socialization in social work education. *Social Work*, 8(3), 102-109.
- Vinokur-Kaplan, D., Jayaratne, S., & Chess, W. A. (1994). Job satisfaction and retention of social workers in public agencies, non-profit agencies, and private practice: The impact of workplace conditions and motivators. *Administration in Social Work*, 18(3), 93-121.
- Vollmer, H. M., & Mills, D. L. (1966). *Professionalization*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Wallace, J. E. (1995). Organizational and professional commitment in professional and nonprofessional organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 40, 228-255.
- Walton, R. G., & El Nasr, M. M. A. (1988). Indigenization and authentization in terms of social work in Egypt. *International Social Work*, 31(2), 135-144.
- Wang, S. J & Zhang, Q. Y. (2011). 社会工作者继续教育研究. [Social Work Continuing Education Research]. *继续教育研究*, 8, 12-14.
- Wang, S.B. (2006). 体制转变中社会工作的职业化进程.[The professionalization of social work in system transformation]. *Journal of University of Science and Technology Beijing (Social Sciences Edition)*, 22(1), 1-6. Retrieved from [http://www.fcxlx.com/UploadFiles/2011-12/fcxlx3/体制转变中社会工作的职业化进程\[1\].pdf](http://www.fcxlx.com/UploadFiles/2011-12/fcxlx3/体制转变中社会工作的职业化进程[1].pdf)
- Wang, Y. (2012). 中國社會工作專業化的發展過程研究: 國家, 社會與學術的多元互動 (1978-2006). [A study of the professionalization process of social work in the Chinese mainland: interaction of the state, the society and the academic community (1978-2006)] (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://hkir.ust.hk/hkir/Record/9999-279278>
- Wang, S. B. (2013). 中国社会工作的历程及发展. [Social Work Experience and Development in China]. *中国教育与社会*, 46(6), 79-91.

- Wang, S. B. (2013). 高校教师领办社会工作机构的叠错现象分析. [University Teacher Leading Social Service Agency: An Analysis of Overlap and Divergence of Teacher's Role]. *广东工业大学学报 (社会科学版)*, 4, 5-11.
- Wang, S. B. (2015). 积极发展农村社会工作. [Promoting the development of rural social work]. *中国社会工作*, 7, 61.
- Wang, S. J. & Zhang, Q. Y. (2011). 社会工作者继续教育研究. [The study of social work continuing education]. *继续教育研究*, 8, 12-14.
- Wayman, J. C. (2003). Multiple imputation for missing data: What is it and how can I use it. *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, Chicago, 2-16.
- Weber, M. (1968). *Economy and society*. New York: Bedminster.
- Weiss, I., Gal, J., & Cnaan, R. A. (2004). Social work education as professional socialization: A study of the impact of social work education upon students' professional preferences. *Journal of Social Service Research*, 31(1), 13-31.
- Wen, J. & Liu, X. (2015). 近 8 年以来中国社会工作研究的惠顾与反思. [The retrospect and introspection of China social work research from 2007]. *华东理工大学学报 (社会科学版)*, 6, 1-12.
- Weiss-Gal, I., & Welbourne, P. (2008). The professionalization of social work: A cross-national exploration. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 17(4), 281-290. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2397.2008.00574.x
- Wilensky, L. H. (1964). The professionalization of everyone? *American Journal of Sociology*, 70 (2), 137-158.
- Wilensky, H. L., & Lebeaux, C. N. (1966). *Industrial society and social welfare: The impact of industrialization on the supply and organization of social welfare services in the United States*. Detroit, Michigan: Free Press.
- Wong, Y., & Pearson, V. (2007). Mission possible; building social work professional identity through fieldwork placements in China. *Social Work Education*, 26(3), 292-310. doi: 10.1080/02615470601049883
- Wong, L. (1992). Community social services in the People's Republic of China. *International Social Work*, 35: 455-470.
- Wong, L., & Poon, B. (2005). From serving neighbors to recontrolling urban society: The transformation of China's community policy. *China Information*, 19(3), 413-442.
- Wong, N., Rindfleisch, A., & Burroughs, J. E. (2003). Do reverse-worded items confound measures in cross-cultural consumer research? The case of the material values scale. *Journal of consumer research*, 30(1), 72-91.

- Wu, B., Carter, M. W., Turner Goins, R., & Cheng, C. (2005). Emerging services for community-based long-term care in urban China: A systematic analysis of Shanghai's community-based agencies. *Journal of Aging and Social Policy*, 17(4), 37-60. doi: 10.1300/J031v17n04_03
- Xiang Z. (2008). *目前我国社区工作者队伍的现状调查*. [A study on the current situation of shequ workers in China] (Master's thesis). Retrieved from China National Knowledge Infrastructure.
- Xinhuanet. (2010, June 6). *中共中央国务院印发国家中长期人才发展规划纲要*. [Central Committee and State Council issued the national long-term talent development plan]. Retrieved from http://www.gov.cn/jrzq/2010-06/06/content_1621708.htm
- Xinhuanet. (2012, December 20). *我国现有1000多所民办社会工作服务机构*. [Our country now has more than 1,000 private social work agencies]. Retrieved from http://news.xinhuanet.com/politics/2012-12/20/c_114102049.htm
- Xinhuanet. (2013, August 13). *我国专业社会工作人才已达30万人*. [The professional social work professionals in our country has reached 300,000]. Retrieved from http://news.xinhuanet.com/fortune/2013-08/13/c_116927913.htm
- Xiong, Y., & Wang, S. (2007). Development of social work education in China in the context of new policy initiatives: Issues and challenges. *Social Work Education*, 26(6), 560-572. doi: 10.1080/02615470701456210
- Xu, Q.W. & Chow, J.C. (2011). Exploring the community-based service delivery model: elderly care in China. *International Social Work*, 54(3), 374-387. DOI: 10.1177/0020872810396260
- Xu, Q., & Jones, J. F. (2004). Community welfare services in urban China: A public-private experiment. *Journal of Chinese Political Science*, 9(2), 47-62.
- Xu, Q., Gao, J., & Yan, M. C. (2005). Community centers in urban China: Context, development, and limitations. *Journal of Community Practice*, 13(3), 73-90. doi: 10.1300/J125v13n03_05
- Xu, Y., & Ngai, N. P. (2011). Moral resources and political capital: Theorizing the relationship between voluntary service organizations and the development of civil society in China. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 40(2), 247-269.
- Yan, M. C. (2002). Recapturing the history of settlement house movement: Its philosophy, service model and implications in China's development of community-based centre services. *Asia Pacific Journal of Social Work and Development*, 12(1), 21-40.
- Yan, Y. B. (2013). 职业水平考试对社会工作专业人才培养的影响分析. [Analysis of the influence of level examination on the construction of professional social workers]. *社会工作*, 3, 138-144.

- Yan, M. C. & Cheung, K. W. (2006). The politics of indigenization: A case study of development of social work in China. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare*, 33(2), 63-83.
- Yan, M. C., & Gao, J. G. (2007). Social engineering of community building: Examination of policy process and characteristics of community construction in China. *Community Development Journal*, 42(2), 222-236.
- Yan, M. C., Gao, J. G., & Lam, C. M. (2013). The dawn is too distant: The experience of 28 social work graduates entering the social work field in China. *Social Work Education*, 32(4), 538-551. doi:10.1080/02615479.2012.688097
- Yan, M. C., Ge, Z. M., Cheng, S. L., & Tsang, A. K. T (2009). Imagining social work: a qualitative study of students' perspectives on social work in China. *Social Work Education*, 28(5), 528-543.
- Yan, M. C., & Tsui, M. S. (2007). The quest for western social work knowledge Literature in the USA and practice in China. *International social work*, 50(5), 641-653.
- Yang, Z. I. (2001). 社会工作专业中存在的问题. [Several problems within social work profession]. *福州大学教师*, 21(1), 7-15.
- Yi, S. G. (2011). 大学教师创办社工机构的背景、问题及建议. [The background, problems, and suggestions in regards of the faculty founded social work agencies]. *社会工作(实务版)*, 2, 5-7.
- Yi, S. G. (2013). 民办社会工作机构的问题与发展路向——以深圳为例. [Problems and the development path of private social work agencies: A case of Shenzhen]. *社会工作*, 5, 21-27.
- Yip, K. S. (2007). Professionalization of social work practice in the People's Republic of China: a tri-tensional analysis. *Asia Pacific Journal of Social Work and Development*, 17(2), 56-72.
- Yuen-Tsang, A. W. K. & Wang, S. (2002). Tensions confronting the development of social work education in China: challenges and opportunities. *International Social Work*, 45 (3), 375-388.
- Zhen, B. (2008). The establishment of a system for the vocationalization and professionalization of social workers in mainland China. *China Journal of Social Work*, 1(1), 77.
- Zhu, S. J. (2011). 城市社区工作者队伍建设的现状调研——以杭州市典型社区为例. [A study on the current situation of urban shequ workers' development]. *浙江社会科学*, 10, 145-152.

Zuo, F. R. & Liu, J. T. (2012). 改革开放以来中国社会工作教育发展进程研究评述.
[Literature review: Perspective on development of China's social work education since
the reform and opening up policy]. *南京社会科学*, 3, 73-79.

APPENDIX A - DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Are you:
 - Male
 - Female
2. What is your age?
 - 19-24
 - 25-30
 - 31-35
 - 36-40
 - 41-45
 - 46-50
 - >51
3. Are you currently employed?
 - Part-time
 - Full-time
 - Internship
 - Unemployed
4. Your employer is?
 - Governmental organization
 - Quasi-governmental organization
 - Residents' committee
 - Philanthropic foundation
 - Hospital
 - School
 - College
 - Social work agency
 - Other social service agency
 - Enterprise
 - Other
5. How long have you been working in this institution? _____(years)____(months)
6. What is the title of your position? (Select all that apply)
 - President-level
 - Civil cadres
 - Staffing of government affiliated institutions
 - Board member
 - Executive director
 - Manager
 - Manager assistant
 - Social work supervisor/ consultant
 - Assistant supervisor
 - Community social worker
 - Positioned social worker
 - Project social worker
 - Social worker assistant
 - Social work trainer
 - School teacher

- College professor
 - Medical professionals
 - Other
7. What is your highest education level?
- Lower than college degree
 - College degree
 - Associate/long-distance education
 - Bachelor's degree
 - Master's degree
 - Ph.D.
8. Do you currently hold any of the following social work degrees (Select all that apply)?
- No
 - BSW
 - MSW
 - Ph.D. in social work
9. Which type of social work license do you have currently? Which year did you obtain it?
(Please write down the year for your choice)
- Junior social worker _____
 - Intermediate Social worker _____
10. Do you have the supervision qualification?
- Yes
 - No
11. Please choose the type of continuing education you attended during the past year, and write down the hours for each type of continuing education (multiple choices).
- Online training _____(hours)
 - Workshops and classes _____(hours)
 - Field visit _____(hours)
 - Others _____(hours)
 - None
12. What is your income (RMB) in the most recent month?
- 1,000 or less
 - 1,000-2,000
 - 2,001-3,000
 - 3,001-4,000
 - 4,001-5,000
 - 5,001-6,000
 - 6,001-7,000
 - 7,001-8,000
 - 8,001-9,000
 - 9,001-10,000
 - 10,001 or more

APPENDIX B - PROFESSIONALISM SCALE

The following items attempt to measure certain aspects of what is commonly called "professionalism." Please respond according to what you feel is your profession.

There are five possible responses to each item. They are designed to measure how well each item corresponds to your attitudes and/ or behavior. The choices are Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neutral Opinion (3), Disagree (2), and Strongly disagree (1). Please circle the symbol for the response that best describes your attitudes or behavior.

1.	I systematically read social work professional journals.	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Other professions are actually more vital to society than social work.	5	4	3	2	1
3.	I make my own decisions in regard to what is to be done in my work.	5	4	3	2	1
4.	I regularly attend social work professional meetings at the local level.	5	4	3	2	1
5.	I think that social work profession, more than any other, is essential for society.	5	4	3	2	1
6.	My fellow professionals have a pretty good idea about each other's competence.	5	4	3	2	1
7.	People in social work profession have a real "calling" for their work	5	4	3	2	1
8.	The importance of social work profession is sometimes overstressed.	5	4	3	2	1
9.	The dedication of people in social work field is most gratifying.	5	4	3	2	1
10.	I don't have much opportunity to exercise my own judgment.	5	4	3	2	1
11.	I believe that social work professional organization(s) should be supported.	5	4	3	2	1
12.	Some other occupations are actually more important to society than social work.	5	4	3	2	1
13.	A problem in social work profession is that no one really knows what his/her colleagues are doing.	5	4	3	2	1
14.	It is encouraging to see the high level of idealism which is maintained by people in social work field.	5	4	3	2	1
15.	The social work professional organization really doesn't do too much for the average member.	5	4	3	2	1
16.	We really have no way of judging each other's competence.	5	4	3	2	1
17.	Although I would like to, I really don't read social work journals too often.	5	4	3	2	1
18.	Most people would stay in social work profession even if their incomes	5	4	3	2	1

	were reduced.					
19.	My own decisions are subject to review.	5	4	3	2	1
20.	There is not much opportunity to judge how another person does his/her works.	5	4	3	2	1
21.	I am my own boss in almost every work-related situation.	5	4	3	2	1
22.	If ever an occupation is indispensable, it is social work.	5	4	3	2	1
23.	My colleagues pretty well know how well we all do in our work.	5	4	3	2	1
24.	There are very few people who don't really believe in social work profession.	5	4	3	2	1
25.	Most of my decisions are reviewed by other people.	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX C - BUREAUCRACY SCALE

The following items attempt to measure certain aspects of what is commonly called "Bureaucracy." Please respond according to what you feel is your profession.

There are five possible responses to each item. They are designed to measure how well each item corresponds to your attitudes and/ or behavior. The choices are Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neutral Opinion (3), Disagree (2), and Strongly disagree (1). Please circle the symbol for the response that best describes your attitudes or behavior.

1.	Workers here can make their own decisions without checking with someone else.	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Workers here report on their activities to their supervisor every day.	5	4	3	2	1
3.	There can be little action here until a supervisor approves a decision.	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Only people in supervisory positions can decide a job is to be done.	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Everyone has a specific job to do here.	5	4	3	2	1
7.	There is a written and specific job description every job.	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Every worker has a specific function which is performed regularly.	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Most jobs here involve many different kinds of activities.	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Few people around here were trained for the specific job they are doing.	5	4	3	2	1
11.	This organization has a manual of rules and regulations to be followed.	5	4	3	2	1
12.	Workers are rarely checked up on for rule violation.	5	4	3	2	1
13.	People here make their own rules up on the job.	5	4	3	2	1
14.	There are rules covering most types of behavior here.	5	4	3	2	1
15.	Most workers follow the rules quite closely.	5	4	3	2	1
16.	We have specific procedures for dealing with most situations.	5	4	3	2	1
17.	We are encouraged to "cut the red tape" to get things done quickly.	5	4	3	2	1
18.	Workers are often left to their own judgement regarding how to handle problems.	5	4	3	2	1
19.	As long as the work gets done, it doesn't matter to the organization how we do it.	5	4	3	2	1
20.	We have to follow strict operating procedures at all times.	5	4	3	2	1

21.	Supervisors here stick pretty much to themselves.	5	4	3	2	1
22.	There is an openly friendly atmosphere here.	5	4	3	2	1
23.	Very few people call their supervisor by his or her first name.	5	4	3	2	1
24.	Workers here like to be on a first name basis with each other.	5	4	3	2	1
25.	Workers are treated as employees instead of individuals here.	5	4	3	2	1
26.	Workers are regularly evaluated to see how well they do their job.	5	4	3	2	1
27.	Promotions here are based on demonstrated competence.	5	4	3	2	1
28.	Having “pull” is important for getting ahead here.	5	4	3	2	1
29.	People here are giving raises according to how well they are linked rather than how well they do their job.	5	4	3	2	1
30.	Skills and experience are carefully evaluated before new workers are hired.	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX D – PRE-NOTIFICATION MESSAGE

Dear ***,

Happy New Year!

This is Ning Tang, a social work doctoral candidate from the University of Alabama, USA. You are invited to participate in my dissertation research, which studies the professionalism of Chinese licensed social workers. This study has been approved and greatly supported by SASW. You will have an opportunity to win one of twenty e-red envelopes (RMB100) by completing an anonymous online survey (15~20 mins).

Please reply [1] if you want to receive the survey link through the message, reply [2] if you want to receive an invitation email, reply [3] if you prefer paper survey delivered by mail. I will reply you in two days. Your participation is completely voluntary. Thank you!

APPENDIX E - INVITATION LETTER

Dear social worker,

Hello!

My name is Ning Tang. I am a doctoral candidate from the University of Alabama (USA) School of Social Work. I sincerely invite you to participate in my doctoral dissertation research.

The title of my research is: The degree of attitudinal professionalism among licensed social workers in China. The main objective of the study is to utilize valid instruments to investigate the relationship between professionalism and educational background among Chinese licensed social workers. In addition, the study will also investigate whether the organizational bureaucracy would moderate the relationship between professionalism and educational background. This study intends to help Chinese and foreign readers better understand the development of Chinese social work, as well as to provide suggestions on how to improve China's social work education, professional development, and job settings. This research has been approved and greatly supported by Shunde Association of Social Workers.

Taking part in this study involves completing a web survey that will take 15-20 minutes. The survey contains questions about your attitudes toward professionalism and your reflection on the bureaucratic degree of your organization, as well as some demographic information. I will protect your confidentiality by keeping all information unidentified. The data will be stored in a University of Alabama secure Box folder that only the researcher have access to. Only summarized data will be presented at meetings or in publications, and will be only used for research purposes.

The chief risk is that some of the questions may make you uncomfortable. You may choose not to participate and you may withdraw your consent to participate at any time. You

will not be penalized in any way should you decide not to participate or to withdraw from this study. In appreciation of your time and support, you will have an opportunity to win one of twenty e-red envelopes (RMB100) by providing your phone number or email address at the end of the survey.

If you have any questions or concerns about this study or if any problems arise, please contact Ning Tang by email: 690504311@qq.com. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact Ms. Tanta Mayles (the University Compliance Officer) at +01 (205) 348-8461 or toll-free at 1-877-820-3066.

YOUR PARTICIPATION IS COMPLETELY VOLUNTARY. You are free not to participate or stop participating any time before you submit your answers.

Sincerely,

Ning Tang

MSW, Ph.D. candidate

School of Social Work, University of Alabama

APPENDIX F – IRB APPROVAL



February 1, 2016

Ning Tang
School of Social Work
Box 870314

Re: IRB#: 16-OR-044 "The Degree of Attitudinal Professionalism among
Licensed Social Workers in China"

Dear Ning Tang:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for
your proposed research.

Your application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part
46. You have also been granted the requested waiver of written documentation of
informed consent. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7
as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but
not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language,
communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research
employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation,
human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies

Your application will expire on January 31, 2017. If your research will continue
beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of the IRB Renewal Application.
If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved
Protocol Form. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval,
except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants.
When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of the IRB Request for
Study Closure Form.

Please use reproductions of the IRB approved stamped consent forms to provide
to your participants.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal,
please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



Chirpalata J. Myles, MSM, CHM, CIP
Director & Research Compliance Officer

IRB Executive Assistant Building
Box 870 214
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0127
(205) 548-8461
fax (205) 548-7149
toll free (877) 820-0066

APPENDIX G – MAIL SURVEY IN CHINESE



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA®

研究邀请函

尊敬的社会工作者，

您好！

我叫唐宁，是美国阿拉巴马大学社会工作学院的博士候选人，在此诚挚邀请您参与我的博士论文研究。

我的论文题目为：《中国持证社会工作者的专业性调查》。该研究的主要目的是通过有效量表分析中国持证社工的专业性及其与教育背景的关系。此外，本研究还会调查机构行政化是否会影响专业性与教育背景之间的关系。本研究希望能帮助中外读者了解中国的社会工作发展，并将为如何提高中国社工的教育水平、专业化发展、岗位设置等问题提供参考意见。该研究已经得到了顺德社会工作者的审核通过及大力支持。

接下来您将要用 15-20 分钟的时间填写一份问卷，问卷问题包含对社工专业性的态度、所在单位的行政化表现、以及一些基本个人信息。参与该研究是完全自主自愿的行为，参与者的所有信息及答案都会得到妥善保管，不对外公开，只有综合性的结论会展示在学术会议和学术期刊上。

该问卷上可能有些问题令您感到不适，您可以随时选择退出问卷填写。您将有机会获取 100 元的支付宝 / 微信红包（20 个名额），获奖名单将在问卷收集结束后随机抽取，我将直接联系获奖人员并协商红包支付方式。

如果您有任何问题或疑惑，请给我发邮件：690504311@qq.com。如果您希望对您作为研究对象的权益有所了解，请拨打以下电话联系阿拉巴马大学研究监督办公室的迈尔斯女士：（+1）205-348-8461 或者 1-877820-3066（免费）。

您的参与完全是自愿的，您可以自由选择不参与或在中途退出。如果您阅读并理解了该份说明，年龄在 19 岁以上，并自愿参与该研究，请填写该问卷并将其用我提供的空信封寄回给我。

唐宁

MSW, Ph.D. candidate

社会工作学院，阿拉巴马大学

（+1）205-567-5338

690504311@qq.com

中国持证社会工作者的专业性研究 调查问卷

填写要求：

- 请先仔细阅读研究邀请函的内容。
- 请在符合您的情况的选项上画圈。
- 请尽量回答所有的问题。
- 如果有任何问题您不想回答，可以直接跳过去回答下一题。
- 问卷填写完成后，请用提供给您空信封将问卷寄出。

如果您阅读并理解了研究邀请函中的内容，年龄在 19 岁以上，并自愿参与该研究，请填写该问卷并将其用附上的空信封寄回给我。感谢您的参与！

第一部分: 基本情况

1. 您的性别:

男
女

2. 您的年龄? _____

3. 您现在的工作状态是?

兼职工作
全职工作
实习中
无业中

4. 您所在的机构是?

政府机关
事业单位
社会工作机构
其它非盈利机构
其它

5. 您已在该机构工作了_____ (年)。

6. 您的工作性质

行政工作
社区社工
岗位社工
其它

7. 您的职位

理事
经理 / 主任
一线社工
其它

8. 您的最高学历

高中及以下
大专学历
本科学历
硕士学历
博士学历

9. 您现在已获得以下哪种社工学位? (可多选)

没有
社工学士
社工硕士
社工博士

10. 您拥有以下哪种社工证? 请在选项后注明获证年份。

初级助理师 _____
社会工作师 _____
高级社工师 _____
无 _____

11. 您拥有以下哪种督导证书? 请在选项后注明获证年份。

督导助理 _____
初级助理 _____
高级助理 _____
无 _____

12. 请选择在过去一年中您参与的继续教育课程并注明其总时长。

在线课程 _____ (小时)
工作坊 / 现场课程 _____ (小时)
参观走访 _____ (小时)
其它 _____ (小时)
无

13. 您每月拿到手的工资? _____ (元)

第二部分：专业性量表

下面的量表是用来测量“专业性”的。请按照您对社会工作专业的看法和体验来给每一个句子评分，分数从5-1，分别表示着：非常同意（5），同意（4），一般（3），不同意（2），非常不容易（1）。请将符合您的判断的分数画上圈。

	陈述	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
1.	我会系统地阅读社会工作专业期刊。	5	4	3	2	1
2.	实际上其它专业比社会工作对社会更重要。	5	4	3	2	1
3.	工作中需要做什么由我自己来决定。	5	4	3	2	1
4.	我会定期参加本地举办的社会工作专业会议。	5	4	3	2	1
5.	比起其他任何专业，我认为社会工作对社会来说是更必要的专业。	5	4	3	2	1
6.	我的专业同行都非常了解彼此对工作的胜任能力。	5	4	3	2	1
	陈述	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
7.	社会工作者对他们的工作有一种真切的使命感。	5	4	3	2	1
8.	社会工作的重要性有时候被过分强调了。	5	4	3	2	1
9.	社会工作者的奉献精神是最令人感到满意的。	5	4	3	2	1
10.	我没有太多机会行使自己的判断力。	5	4	3	2	1
11.	我认为社会工作专业协会应该得到支持。	5	4	3	2	1
12.	其他一些职业实际上比社会工作对社会更重要。	5	4	3	2	1

13.	社会工作领域里存在一个问题：没有人真正知道他/她的同事在做什么。	5	4	3	2	1
	陈述	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
14.	看到社会工作者们保持着高度的理想主义，这很令人鼓舞。	5	4	3	2	1
15.	社会工作专业协会没有为普通会员做很多事情。	5	4	3	2	1
16.	我们难以对同事的工作胜任能力进行判断。	5	4	3	2	1
17.	虽然我很想经常阅读专业期刊，但我实际上并没有。	5	4	3	2	1
18.	即便收入减少，大多数人还是会留在社会工作领域。	5	4	3	2	1
19.	我做的决定都会受到上级的审核。	5	4	3	2	1
	陈述	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
20.	我没有太多机会去判断其它社工的工作做得如何。	5	4	3	2	1
21.	几乎在每一个与工作相关的情况下，我都可以自己做主。	5	4	3	2	1
22.	如果有一个职业是必不可少的，那就是社会工作。	5	4	3	2	1
23.	我的同事们非常清楚我们的工作做得怎样。	5	4	3	2	1
24.	在社会工作领域里，只有极少数人不相信他们工作的价值。	5	4	3	2	1
25.	工作中我的大多数决定都经由他人审核。	5	4	3	2	1

第三部分：行政化量表

下面的量表是用来测量“机构行政化”的。请按照您对社会工作专业的看法和体验来给每一个句子评分，分数从5-1，分别表示着：非常同意（5），同意（4），一般（3），不同意（2），非常不容易（1）。请将符合您的判断的分数画上圈。

	陈述	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
1.	这里的员工不用跟他人确认便可以自己做决定。	5	4	3	2	1
2.	这里的每一个员工都有一份常规的具体工作职能。	5	4	3	2	1
3.	这个单位有一份需要遵守的规章制度守则。	5	4	3	2	1
4.	这里的主管往往只跟同是主管级别的人交流。	5	4	3	2	1
5.	这里的员工每天都向主管汇报他们的行动。	5	4	3	2	1
6.	对大部分情况我们都有具体的处理程序。	5	4	3	2	1
7.	员工的工作表现会受到定期评估。	5	4	3	2	1
	陈述	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
8.	这里的每一项工作都有一个书面且具体的工作职责描述。	5	4	3	2	1
9.	在主管批准一个决定前，单位里几乎不会有任何行动。	5	4	3	2	1
10.	我们被鼓励简化行政手续，以尽快完成工作。	5	4	3	2	1
11.	这里有一个开放、友好的工作氛围。	5	4	3	2	1
12.	这里的升职是基于得以证实的能力。	5	4	3	2	1

13.	即便是很小的事情也要向上级汇报，并以上级的最终答复为准。	5	4	3	2	1
14.	这里的员工们很少因违反规定而被调查。	5	4	3	2	1
	陈述	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
15.	这里的大部分工作都包含了许多不同种类的活动。	5	4	3	2	1
16.	有影响力对个人在单位出人头地很重要。	5	4	3	2	1
17.	很少有人对他们的主管直呼其名。	5	4	3	2	1
18.	只有主管级别的人才可以决定一项工作要如何开展。	5	4	3	2	1
19.	这里的人在工作中自行制定规则。	5	4	3	2	1
20.	员工们经常只能依靠自己的判断来处理问题。	5	4	3	2	1
21.	这里给员工加薪主要取决于他们的人情关系，而不是看他们的工作做得多好。	5	4	3	2	1
	陈述	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
22.	这里的规定涵盖了大部分类型的工作行为。	5	4	3	2	1
23.	这里的每一个人都有一份具体工作去做。	5	4	3	2	1
24.	只要任务得以完成，单位并不关心我们是怎样完成任务的。	5	4	3	2	1
25.	这里的员工习惯用亲切的名字称呼彼此。	5	4	3	2	1
26.	这里很少人就他们现在从事的具体工作接受过专门的培训。	5	4	3	2	1
27.	在任何时候我们都必须遵守严格的操作程序。	5	4	3	2	1

28.	新员工被雇用之前，其技能和经验都会被仔细考核。	5	4	3	2	1
29.	大部分员工都会相当严格地遵守规定。	5	4	3	2	1
30.	这里的员工被当作雇工对待，而非独立的个体。	5	4	3	2	1

感谢您的参与！
请用提供给您空信封将问卷寄出。