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Recommended Citation

DOI: [https://doi.org/10.61611/2165-4611.1193](https://doi.org/10.61611/2165-4611.1193)  
Available at: [https://digitalcommons.murraystate.edu/crsw/vol13/iss1/3](https://digitalcommons.murraystate.edu/crsw/vol13/iss1/3)

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Abstract. This study explores regional differences in student learning outcomes from pre and post-test surveys of undergraduate and first year graduate social work students (*N* = 373) enrolled in a social welfare policy class at six different CSWE accredited institutions. As expected, overall results showed a shift in student attitudes away from a personal deficiency explanation for poverty, a decline in stigmatization of poverty, and toward a more structural explanation for the causes of poverty, but significant differences were reported by geographical region. Future research should explore the instructor, pedagogical, and geographical factors that may help of hinder attitudinal preparation for practice social work students.

*Keywords:* poverty, social welfare policy class

Garreau (1981) and Woodard (2011) have argued that there are significant differences between regions unbounded by state lines in North America. Both labelled these distinct regions as *nations*. In Garreau’s earlier assessment, he identified nine nations in North America that were distinguished by histories, economies, cultures, and futures. As he stated, “the layers of unifying flavor and substances that define these nations help explain the major storms and excursions through which our public affairs pass” (Garreau, 1981 p. 3). Three decades later Woodard identified 11 nations in North America, delineated by the changing dynamics underlying regional cultures (2011). To date, regional differences have not been acknowledged or addressed in an explicit manner by social work educators. Only Castillo and Becerra (2012) called for research on the impact of geographical region on social work students’ perceptions and beliefs about
poverty, but this call has not evoked a response. This study is an initial and preliminary attempt to begin a response.

**Literature Review**

**Geographic Influences on Student Attitudinal Change**

A modest focus on geographical differences has been produced in the international literature. Weiss (2005) contended that variations in the training of social workers on an international level was contingent upon legislation and statutory licensing that existed in each country. Minkov et al. (2018) studied cultural and national differences in what parents teach their children in 54 countries finding substantial East-West and North-South differences. Other international research on educational outcomes does suggest a significant role for geographical region. Ajayi and Buesing (2015) found geographical region in Ghana to be a stronger predictor of educational choices than individual, family, or school-level factors. Costanzo and Desimoni (2017) found that geographical region in Italy joined with gender and immigration status to predict educational outcomes. In Spain, student educational excellence was associated with urban educational settings over rural settings (Hernández-Torrano, 2018), and Zhou et al. (2014) constructed a macro geographical factor in Welsh regions of approximately 1,500 people by combining income, health, access, housing, the physical environment, and community safety variables. The complex interplay of these joined local factors predicted childhood educational attainment better than the individual factors alone.

In the United States, Brasington (2002) reported differences in education in secondary schools in Ohio districts. For example, a five-year difference in teacher experience affected educational quality in rural areas, but not in urban areas, suggesting that educational outcomes may be predicted by different factors based on geographical differences. Peguero (2010) also found geography, language proficiency, and immigration status were significant predictors of Latino student participation in extracurricular activities that further predicted educational success. Geography in each of these studies is less about terrain and space than it is about a host of differences in culture, resource allocation, and social norms. Taken as a whole, the sparse international and national research on regional differences suggests that social work educators may be well advised not to neglect consideration of geography when developing educational interventions to promote attainment of student competencies.

**Social Welfare Policy Class and Student Attitudinal Change**

A growing body of research has focused on the potential for change in social work student attitudes by completing a course in social welfare policy (Delavega et al., 2017; Granruth et al., 2018; Kindle & Delavega, 2018; Castillo & Becerra, 2012; Clark, 2007; Weaver & Yun, 2011; Weiss, 2005; 2006). Social welfare policy classes have been shown to be effective in changing student attitudes related to poverty (Clark, 2007; Delavega et al., 2017; Weaver & Yun, 2011; Weiss, 2005, 2006), awareness of White privilege (Kindle & Delavega, 2018), and government assistance programs (Granruth et al., 2018). Some personal factors predicting social work student perspectives have been identified. Castillo and Becerra (2012) reported on the
relationships between the socio-demographic characteristics of social work students \((N = 264)\) and the students’ perceptions of poverty and social welfare programs. Results indicated that socio-demographic predictors (gender, age, socioeconomic status, race, education, and living/travelling abroad) had relatively modest associations with student perceptions \((R^2\) ranging from .005 to .102). Goerdt et al. (2019) identified specific instructor characteristics valued by social work students (e.g., respect, helpfulness, grading fairness, courtesy, expertise, and logically structured courses) utilizing a well-respected marketing tool to determine essential characteristics for consumer (i.e., student) satisfaction; however, virtually no research has been conducted examining the extent, if any, of geographical differences in social work students’ educational experiences in the United States. Castillo and Becerra (2012) did note that travel abroad experiences were associated with changes in student perceptions, but domestic differences have yet to be documented in the literature.

Some of the most important aspects of social work education are helping students identify their beliefs about poverty and challenging them as needed to change such beliefs to reflect a value of equality and social justice (Castillo & Becerra, 2012; Clark, 2007; Delavega et al., 2017; Weaver & Yun, 2011; Weiss, 2005, 2006). Social work educators carry the responsibility of constructing a curriculum that ensures students are taught about systematic and institutional poverty, taught to identify and examine their biases and attitudes about poverty, and taught to consider various interventions that may be effective in helping reduce poverty (Delavega et al., 2017; Weaver & Yun, 2011). The emphasis on achieving measurable change in student knowledge, values, skills, and cognitive/affective processes (CSWE, 2015) is operationalized as social work students gaining sufficient self-awareness to control the influences of personal biases and values in working with diverse groups and advocating for human rights and social and economic justice.

**This Study**

Because of student attitudes toward poverty are important preparation for socially just practice and because of the widespread success in different disciplines of changing student perceptions of poverty using a variety of pedagogical approaches (Buchanan et al., 2007; Clark, 2007; Delavega et al., 2017; Nickols & Nielsen, 2011; Patterson & Hulton, 2011; Seider et al., 2011; Smith-Campbell, 2005; Wear & Kuczewski, 2008; Weaver & Yun, 2011; Weiss, 2005, 2006), we selected student attitudes toward poverty as the variable of interest in this study. Using an American social work student sample \((N = 373)\) of undergraduate \((n = 296)\) and graduate students \((n = 77)\) from six different public institutions, this study explored differences in change in student attitudes toward poverty for four distinct geographical regions of the U.S.: Upper Midwest, Mid-South, South, and Middle Atlantic. We assessed the change in student attitude toward poverty as the result of a single upper division (a junior or senior level class) undergraduate or foundation year graduate policy course with a poverty emphasis using a 21-item (three-factor) Attitude Toward Poverty Scale (Yun & Weaver, 2010). We include both BSW and MSW students because of the commonality between the generalist focus in the BSW and MSW foundation year courses, a commonality supported by granting advanced standing in many jurisdictions. Although legislation, licensing, and policy from the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) and National Association of Social Workers (NASW) establish national
expectations for student learning outcomes, we hypothesized that geographical differences will influence student attitudinal change.

**Methods**

**Participants**

After IRB approval at each institution, social work policy instructors at six different institutions conducted single group, pre and post-test surveys of enrolled students during the 2014 to 2015 academic year. Instructors who choose to do so offered extra credit up to 5% of the final grade for completing both the pre-test and post-tests. Only students enrolled in an undergraduate policy course or the generalist policy course in a graduate program were eligible to participate with students electing not to participate having an alternative bonus opportunity, if relevant. The response rate was 78.7% \((N = 373)\).

**Definition**

For the purposes of this study, poverty was defined as inability to meet basic needs due to lack of resources. Data from the U.S. Census Bureau identified poverty thresholds for individuals and families. Aspects of poverty included personal deficiency, stigma, and structural perspectives.

**Instrumentation**

Students were asked to complete the Attitudes toward Poverty–Short Form (Yun & Weaver, 2010) at both pre-test and post-test. Demographic questions were asked only at pre-test and included institution, instructor, level of program, sex, race/ethnicity, where they grew up, mother’s highest level of education, and age.

The Attitudes toward Poverty–Short Form (ATP-SF) developed by Yun and Weaver (2010) is a 21-item, five-point Likert scale with adequate internal reliability \((\alpha = .87)\) that produces three factors (Personal Deficiency, Stigma, and Structural Perspective) with acceptable internal consistency ranging from .67 to .82. Factor loadings in the Yun and Weaver study \((N = 329)\) exceeded .40 for each item, and convergent validity suggested by a strong association \((r = .826)\) with the 37-item ATP developed by Atherton et al. (1993). Additional known groups’ validity was suggested by student self-identification of political orientation (conservative or liberals/social democrats/socialists).

**Procedures**

After student email addresses were provided to one participating instructor, Survey Monkey data collectors were developed for the project. Emails soliciting student participation at pre-test were distributed in the first month of the term with post-test solicitations at instructor discretion near the end of each term. Once the data collectors were closed, instructors were
provided student names and emails to award bonus credit, but no response data was provided. Individual responses were downloaded electronically into IBM SPSS Statistics 24 data files. Pre-test and post-test responses were matched using student email addresses. After matching, the data set was de-identified and uploaded into a secured server for security. Respondents who did not complete both the pre- and post-tests were omitted from the data set before statistical analysis was conducted. Missing data resulted in list wise deletion.

**Results**

Student respondents were predominantly female ($n = 327, 87.7\%$) and White ($n = 236, 63.3\%$), with a sizeable sample of African American subsample ($n = 103, 27.6\%$). The average respondent was 26.9 years of age ($SD = 8.55$). Most respondents were BSW students ($n = 296, 79.4\%$). A plurality of respondents grew up in a rural area ($n = 143, 38.3\%$), but urban ($n = 99, 26.5\%$) and suburban ($n = 131, 35.1\%$) backgrounds were also reported. Useful subsamples of respondents reported socioeconomic background status using mother’s education as a proxy with no high school ($n = 37, 9.9\%$), high school ($n = 117, 31.4\%$), some college ($n = 90, 24.1\%$), college degree ($n = 95, 25.5\%$), and graduate degree ($n = 34, 9.1\%$) reported.

The change in ATP-SF from pre-test to post-test after recoding the items for the structural perspective yielded a statistically significant shift in student attitudes toward a more structural attribution for each factor and the overall scores on the ATP-SF (Table 1) with a small positive skew (.133) and adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .869$). At post-test, students reported a significantly lower level of stigma toward poverty and a significantly lower personal deficiency explanation for poverty. The students also reported a significantly higher understanding of the structural explanation for poverty (appearing in Table 1 as a reduction due to reverse coding). This shift in attitudes was not statistically associated with age ($r = .035, p = .53$), and no statistical difference was found between BSW and MSW students [$t(332) = -.328, p = .743$]; male and female students [$t(330) = -1.113, p = .266$]; race recoded as African American, White, and Other [$F(2, 331) = .444, p = .642$]; rural, urban, or suburban backgrounds [$F(2, 331) = 1.629, p = .198$]; or socioeconomic status as measured by mother’s level of education [$F(4, 329) = .199, p = .969$]. Demographic variables did not statistically explain any of the change in ATP-SF from pre-test to post-test suggesting that the change in attitude was explained primarily by the students’ educational experience over the semester.

### Table 1

**ATP-SF Pre- and Post-Test Responses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>$\Delta$</th>
<th>$\delta$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Deficiency</td>
<td>13.07</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>12.54</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>-0.56*</td>
<td>.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stigma</td>
<td>19.74</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>18.19</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>-1.47**</td>
<td>.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural Perspective</td>
<td>13.67</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>13.01</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>-0.69*</td>
<td>.169</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Total ATP-SF     46.49  10.74     43.60  11.38     -2.54** .230

Items for Structural Perspective reverse scored. Pair samples t-test determined significance.
* p < .01; ** p < .001

Further analysis revealed significant variability in student attitudinal shift based on region of the country (Table 2), documenting for the first-time geographical differences in educational outcome by CSWE accredited programs. As would be anticipated by the small sample sizes for some instructors (e.g., less than 30 students), statistical significance by instructor was noted for only four of the eight instructors participating. Regional differences were significant with the two institutions in the South showing no statistical difference between pre- and post-test. While student perceptions of instructor characteristics and methods were not included as part of this study, changes in student attitudes were not explained by the instructor’s gender \[ t (332) = -.864, \ p = .388 \].

**Table 2**

*ATP-SF Paired t-test Comparisons by Region*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>δ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upper Midwest</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.487</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-South</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>2.666</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1.234</td>
<td>.221</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-Atlantic</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>5.011</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>5.748</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.230</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

As in any exploratory research, our findings must be interpreted as tentative and preliminary. However, consistent with other studies (Castillo & Becerra, 2012; Clark, 2007; Delavega et al., 2017; Weaver & Yun, 2011; Weiss, 2005, 2006), we found that students’ attitudes toward poverty shifted significantly toward a structural rather than a personal deficiency explanation as a result of taking a social welfare policy class. This shift in attitude was not associated with student demographic variables but did vary substantially between geographical regions.

Geographical regions of the country in this limited sample appeared to be associated with significant differences in three of the four regions (Upper Midwest, Mid-South, and Mid-Atlantic). Only the South region did not report significant differences in attitudes toward poverty. What can be noted is that regional differences would be consistent with an expectation of cultural, political, or ideological differences as proposed by Garreau (1981) and Woodard...
(2011), and if sustained by future research, might be of particular significance for smaller BSW programs in geographically remote regions as smaller BSW programs may lack the resources to fund travel to assist faculty to adequately participate in faculty development activities. If geographical differences are found to reflect cultural or political ideologies that require tailored pedagogical interventions, a reasonable inference from several sources (Frank, 2004; Garreau, 1982; Woodard, 2011; Wuthnow, 2018), then future research needs to explore the causes of geographical variation and identify relevant pedagogical approaches and course materials. Findings of such research may even affect assessment of student competencies for accreditation.

**Limitations**

There are several limitations that should be taken into consideration when interpreting our findings. No pedagogical commonality was adopted by the instructors participating in this study, however, regardless of region it is assumed that programs in this study adhere to Council on Social Work Education guidelines which are designed to ensure quality and consistency in social work education. Although the response rate was relatively high at 78.7%, the sample was not randomly selected precluding generalization of results. This limitation is especially acute when considering generalizability toward geographical regions as the number of participating programs and the number of student respondents is quite modest. The most that might be implied from these results is the possibility that regional differences may influence student learning outcomes and social work pedagogy. Additional research should be conducted to determine the degree that regional differences should be addressed by social work educators.

The only instructor-relevant data collected was gender and teaching experience (i.e., untenured), and neither variable was significant in explaining the differences noted. Instructor variation cannot be further explained from our data; however, other studies suggest that adoption of the understanding of teaching as critical reflection with a problem-solving orientation (Gambrill, 2014) and a student-focus (Gonzalez, 2011) may be an effective starting point for future studies. Goerd et al. (2019) would suggest that specific instructor characteristics are also likely to increase student satisfaction and possibly improve student learning outcomes.

**Implications for Practice, Research, and Policy**

It is hoped that our results increase awareness for educators of the potency and importance of a single policy class. Instructors of policy classes may benefit in knowing that this study and other studies with similar outcomes show results indicating policy class can make a difference in student attitudes and beliefs about poverty. Results from this study could be influential to BSW administrators and faculty members who construct curriculums and programs, showing them the importance and power of one policy class and providing impetus for increased support and resources. While all courses and classes in social work programs should prepare students to have a mindset toward advocacy and policy change, bachelor of social work programs would be strengthened with a stronger focus on developing and implementing policy classes in their programs.

It has long been known that undergraduate social work students are more likely to find initial employment working in a public rather than private agency (Gardella, 1997), a setting in...
which they are more likely to engage with clients with low incomes. Even those who do not practice in a public agency are most likely to work in direct practice with individual, families, or groups, whether graduating with a BSW or an MSW (The George Washington University Health Workforce Institute, 2018).

Additional research is required to discover the specific factors that explain student attitudinal change whether those factors are related to specific instructor characteristics or pedagogical approaches. We interpret our results to suggest that serious consideration of regional differences, perhaps rooted in cultural variations or political ideologies, should be considered as potential explanatory factors as well.

Another possibility in helping explain variation of results from different regions lies in students themselves. In their study, Clump and Skogsberg (2003) reported finding differences in learning styles in students attending similar universities with different geographic locations. More specifically, they found differences in utilizing deep processing and methodological learning styles which have been associated with academic achievement. Future studies might consider if differences in economic class of students impact their reaction to policy class and whether differences in attitudes and beliefs about poverty exist between students in public versus private colleges and universities.

Social workers know the importance of culture on individuals, which includes learners. For example, Erskine-Meusa (2017) reported that instructors may be different than the cultural majority served by a regional university, and that culturally responsive instructors enhanced learning experiences of their students. Likewise, results of this current study may reflect the influence of culture on BSW and MSW students.

References


