

Chapter 1 : History of accounting - Wikipedia

Our Profession There are a many attributes that define and characterize an individual as professional and organizations as a profession. These include, having an ethical approach to practice (both how we think and what we do), having public good at the forefront of our agenda, being reflective in our practice and evaluating to improve the.

A lawyer can [adhere to all these requirements] and still fail to meet the standards of a true profession, standards calling for fearless advocacy within established canons of service. Introduction Surveys tell us that in terms of ethics and honesty only building contractors, politicians and car sales-people have lower ratings than lawyers. In a study done in the United States funeral directors rated more highly. It is also the case that the lawyer has divided loyalties - owing a duty to the court while at the same time owing a duty to the client. On occasions, these duties will be in conflict. In these cases, the lawyer is obliged to fulfil his or her obligations to the court. This is not generally understood by clients, or by some lawyers who carry the notion of the duty to the client too far and engage in practices that are unethical and that go to defeat the interests of justice. Making an allegation of fraud in circumstances where there is no evidence to support the claim is an example. Other examples include deliberately delaying proceedings, perhaps in order to force a settlement from the opposing client who is concerned about increasing costs; or issuing writs without their being any proper legal or factual foundation. This is where legal ethics comes in. A commitment to legal ethics involves a commitment to the introduction of Codes of Ethics or Standards of Professional Practice. However not all jurisdictions have Professional Codes and not all of those that do give sufficient attention to their enforcement. In any case, the lawyer who acts in accordance with a professional code of ethics may still be engaging in unethical practice. So why is ethics important to the practice of law? First because lawyers are integral to the working-out of the law and the Rule of Law itself is founded on principles of justice, fairness and equity. If lawyers do not adhere and promote these ethical principles then the law will fall into disrepute and people will resort to alternative means of resolving conflict. The Rule of Law will fail with a rise of public discontent. Second, lawyers are professionals. This concept conveys the notion that issues of ethical responsibility and duty are an inherent part of the legal profession. The legal profession especially must have the confidence of the community. Justice Kirby of the Australian High Court once noted: The challenge before the legal profession To reorganise itself in such a way as to provide more effective, real and affordable access to legal advice and representation by ordinary citizens. To preserve and where necessary, to defend the best of the old rules requiring honesty, fidelity loyalty, diligence, competence and dispassion in the service of clients, above mere self-interest and specifically above commercial self-advantage. Third, because lawyers are admitted as officers of the court and therefore have an obligation to serve the court and the administration of justice. And finally because lawyers are a privileged class for only lawyers can, for reward, take on the causes of others and bring them before the courts. The application of ethical principles to the legal profession There are a number of applications of ethical responsibilities so far as the practice of law is concerned. It is common to divide these ethical obligations into duties owed to the client and duties owed to the court. It should be noted that a breach of these ethical obligations may lead to civil proceedings by the client, for example an action for breach of confidence or an action for negligence; while at the same time may be grounds for disciplinary proceedings under the relevant Legal Practitioners legislation. Conflicts of interest It is well settled that a solicitor has a fiduciary duty to his or her client. That duty carries with it two presently relevant responsibilities. The second arises when he endeavours to serve two masters and requires Conflicts of interest have given rise to a number of legal and disciplinary actions. It is an area that is commonly identified by lawyers as a problem in legal practice. Conflicts of interest are not all that easy to resolve because some interests will require that the lawyer not act for the person while other conflicts may still allow for the lawyer to act for both parties. It is also an area that requires the balancing of two public interests; namely the interest in clients having full confidence in their lawyers, including the protecting of their confidences, and on the other hand, the interest in the freedom of a lawyer to take instructions and for the client to be represented by the lawyer of his or her choice. The difficult issue is this: Which conflicts, if not resolved, give rise to a breach of professional ethics and which do

not? There are four broad areas of potential conflict. The first relates to those cases where the lawyer acts for both parties. Acting for both parties It may be that a solicitor who tries to act for both parties puts himself in a position that he must be liable to one or the other whatever he does At the heart of this issue is the fact that the lawyer owes a fiduciary duty to respect the confidences of clients and at the same time to do his or her best for the client. If you have information from one client that is prejudicial to the interests of the other client how can you do your duty to each? We pause to say that various courts in a number of jurisdictions have decried the practice of the one solicitor acting for both vendor and purchaser It is an undesirable practice and it ought not to be permitted. And it does not seem to make any difference if one member of a firm deals with one client and another member of the same firm deals with the other client. A firm is in no better position than a sole practitioner if it purports to act for separate clients whose interest are in contention. If it purports to continue to act for both clients by imposing a qualification on the duties of partnership it thereby denies the respective clients the services the clients have sought from the firm, namely the delivery of such professional skill and advice as the partnership is able to provide. In such a circumstance the appearance provided to the public is that the interest of the solicitors as partners are in conflict with, and may be preferred to, the interest of one or both clients. Australia, as is common in most jurisdictions, has developed Model Rules of Professional Practice which are being implemented across all the Australian jurisdictions. A practitioner who intends to accept instructions from more than one party to any proceedings or transaction must be satisfied, before accepting a retainer to act, that each of the parties is aware that the practitioner is intending to act for the others and consents to the practitioner so acting in the knowledge that the practitioner: If a practitioner, who is acting for more than one party to any proceedings or transaction, determines that the practitioner cannot continue to act for all of the parties without acting in a manner contrary to the interests of one or more of them, the practitioner must thereupon cease to act for all parties. The question arises as to whether professional rules should preclude the lawyer from acting in any case where he or she is instructed by both parties. The problem that arises in small jurisdictions or country towns or villages cannot be ignored, however perhaps the starting position should be that the lawyer is not to act for both parties unless there is no other suitable practitioner available to take the instructions. Another requirement might be that the lawyer cannot negotiate with one party unless the other party is present or otherwise represented. There is a wider public interest here than the mere perception of conflict; there is a real risk in these circumstances that both parties might find themselves without representation and put to additional costs, or that a later dispute between the parties will bring the law into disrepute because of its failure to adequately foresee and protect one or both of the parties. In that case the defendant was a solicitor who was also a director and shareholder in three companies in the business of property investment. Over a period of years, clients of the defendant lent money to these companies at the suggestion of the defendant. The investments undertaken by the companies were very high risk and the clients stood to lose substantially in the event of failure. In some cases the client was only informed that his or her money had been lent to the companies after this had occurred. The investments turned bad and the clients lost money. This was an appeal on the point of whether the professional misconduct of the defendant was serious enough to warrant him being struck from the roll of solicitors. Where there is any conflict between the interests of the client and that of the solicitor, the duty of the solicitor is to act in perfect good faith and to make full disclosure of his interest. It must be a conscientious disclosure of all material circumstances, and everything known to him relating to the proposed transaction which might influence the conduct of the client or anybody from whom he might seek advice A solicitor who constantly promotes dealings with various clients clearly misuses his position, and puts it beyond his capacity to observe his primary duty to his clients. The price of being a member of an honourable profession, whose duty to his client ought not to be prejudiced in any degree, is that a solicitor is denied the freedom to take the benefit of any opportunity to deal with persons whom he has accepted as clients. Therefore, he ought neither to promote, suggest nor encourage a client to deal with him, but rather should take all reasonable steps positively to avoid dealing directly, or indirectly, with his client. By way of example the Model Rules referred to earlier state: This Rule is harsher than the Rule concerning acting for both parties in the sense that it prohibits any dealings where the lawyer may have a vested interest, rather than allowing for such interests after the client has been properly informed.

The overriding principle is, of course clear; namely that the relationship between lawyer and client continues after the original instructions have been completed. However, even if there is no opportunity for abuse of a confidence, there is authority for the view that acting against a former client is a breach of the terms of the retainer with the former client and a breach of professional ethics. Until recently, the common law position concerning the test for disqualification on the basis of a conflict of interest involving a former client was whether there was a reasonable probability of real mischief. Lord Millet noted at I prefer simply to say that the court should intervene unless it is satisfied that there is no risk of disclosure. It goes without saying that the risk must be a real one, and not merely fanciful or theoretical. But it need not be substantial. In my view no solicitor should, without the consent of his former client, accept instructions unless, viewed objectively, his doing so will not increase the risk that information which is confidential to the former client may come into the possession of a party with an adverse interest. The Supreme Court of Victoria in accepted these principles and suggested that when a court is determining whether a solicitor should be able to act against a former client, the following questions should be asked: This stricter approach reflects a concern that former clients might otherwise be exposed to potential and avoidable risks to which they had not consented and that former clients could not have sufficient assurance that their confidences would be respected. However there are gradations of conflicts - some being more likely to cause harm or public concern than others, and perhaps this should be reflected in Codes of Practice or Rules of Conduct. In any case, if there is no harm or disadvantage done to the client, should the fact that there has been a breach of the Rules give rise to disciplinary action? If the purpose of discipline is not to punish but to protect the public interest then arguably, disciplinary action arising out of a conflict of interest should be contingent on there being some harm or damage or disapproval by the client, unless it is a case which involves the community generally. Confidentiality The duty of confidence which a lawyer owes to a client can be based on various principles of law. It can be regarded as an implied term of the retainer or contract, or it can be based in tort as part of the duty owed by the lawyer to the client, or it may arise in equity. Apart from these legal principles, the duty of confidence also gives rise to an ethical obligation and thus a breach of client confidentiality would be grounds for disciplinary action. There are exceptions, such as where the client consents, or where the lawyer is compelled by law to disclose, or where the wider public interest requires disclosure. This last exception is still inadequately defined. If harm results from the disclosure then the answer is clear; however should Rules of Conduct be treated as absolutes? The obligation concerning the exercise of competence and care This obligation of course covers a multitude of circumstances. A failure to exercise competence and care can give rise to an action against the lawyer for damages as well as lead to disciplinary action. Competence and care is all about maintaining professional standards. Practitioners are cautioned to refrain from acting unless they are competent. The minimum standards include It would seem to follow that a solicitor fit to remain on the roll must make reasonable efforts to keep up with current developments in his field of practice. In a world of rapid change, he must try to keep up to date. In the United States Model Rule 1. A lawyer shall provide competent representation to a client. Competent representation requires the legal knowledge, skill, thoroughness and preparation reasonably necessary for the representation. The commentary on this Rule is as follows:

Chapter 2 : The Social Work Profession An Overview and Some History

The Social Work Profession. Some people associate social work with casework and, by analogy, Child Protective Services. A social worker can indeed make a career working in this capacity, but social work as a profession is much broader.

Bibliography expanded and updated to reflect recent research. Updated on 3 September The previous version of this content can be found here. Under the terms of the applicable license agreement governing use of the Encyclopedia of Social Work accessed online, an authorized individual user may print out a PDF of a single article for personal use, only for details see Privacy Policy and Legal Notice. History and Evolution Abstract and Keywords Social work is a profession that began its life as a call to help the poor, the destitute and the disenfranchised of a rapidly changing social order. It continues today still pursuing that quest, perhaps with some occasional deviations of direction from the original spirit. It is impossible to overstate the centrality or the importance of social work practice to the profession of social work. Much of what is important about the history of the profession is the history of social work practice. We must consider both social work practice per se the knowledge base, practice theories and techniques and the context for social work practice. The context of practice includes the agency setting, the policy framework and the large social system in which practice takes place. Social work practice is created within a political, social, cultural and economic matrix that shapes the assumptions of practice, the problems that practice must deal with and the preferred outcomes of practice. Over time, the base forces that create practice and create the context for practice, change. Midgley correctly notes that practice created in one social order is often inappropriate for work in another social order. Since the social order changes over time, practice created at one point in time may no longer be appropriate in the future. As Garvin and Cox note, industrialization led to the factory system, with its need for large numbers of concentrated workers, and subsequently created mass immigration, urbanization, and a host of consequent problems. Social work was a response to many urban problems such as mass poverty, disease, illiteracy, starvation, and mental health challenges. Both movements were imported from Great Britain and supplemented the efforts of religious groups and other associations, as well local and state governments in dealing with the problems of urbanization and industrialization. The Charities Organization Society and the Settlement Houses were important forces in shaping the development of American social work practice and the professionalization of social work. The Charities Organization Society COS represented the cause of scientific charity, which sought to introduce more rational methods to charity and philanthropy Trattner, There were also Councils of Social Agencies, which coordinated the efforts of social services agencies. It can be argued that the paid investigators were probably the precursors of caseworkers while the Councils of Social Agencies gave rise to social planning in community practice. Perhaps the final contribution made to social work practice by the COS was the mark it made on social work education through its role in creation of the New York School of Philanthropy. As Austin notes, the scholar practitioner model, where faculty come from a social work practice as opposed to a traditional academic model , is our prevailing mode of preparing social workers today. The Settlement House Movement aimed at the innercity and created houses as community centers in urban area. This was a completely different approach from that used by the COS. The settlement house workers used social group work to help socialize new immigrants to the city. They offered adult education for their urban neighbors and provided help and advice. They worked on community problems together with the other residents of poor urban neighborhoods. The Settlement House Movement is often most thought of for its social action efforts Trattner, Jane Addams was well known in this regard. Because many of the Settlement house workers were social scientists who worked in conjunction with university-based academic social scientists, they began important research into urban problems. Between these two movements lies the foundation of much of the practice we see today, accounting for casework, social group work, community development, social planning, and social action. The beginning of research supporting social policy is also here. These new specialties allowed the creation of practice methodology refined for certain populations and many other practices specialties emerged. All of this occurred during the process of

professionalization described by Lubove. This included the creation of professional organizations, a code of ethics, professional agencies, and the creation of professional schools and a knowledge base. In Abraham Flexner questioned whether social work was actually a profession because of what he saw as the lack of a scientific knowledge base. This created an underlying theme in the profession that has occasionally led to unfortunate results Austin, ; Eherenreich, This quest continues to this day. As the profession developed and changed, so did society. As America became more conservative, social action activities decreased. This was especially true during the first three decades of the 20th century. Eherenreich observes that the rediscovery of poverty and the changing national mood toward social programs created a crisis for the profession. It did not, on balance, lead to much in the way of changes in social work practice. Freud and psychoanalysis became very influential in social work from the early part of the 20th century until the sixties. While social work created its own variants that brought more social factors into the mix ego psychology and psychosocial treatment, psychodynamic treatment became fashionable. Psychoanalysis was popular with psychiatrists, which facilitated the creation of strong bonds with the medical profession and the emerging mental health movement see Eherenreich, Although, it is not completely clear whether the profession as a whole endorsed Freud or just its leadership see Alexander, The impact of psychoanalysis cannot be discounted. The individually centered nature of psychodynamic theory also served to push the profession further from social action. Although one can debate whether psychoanalysis was the cause or consequence of a disengagement from social action and the poor, it is clear that this extraordinarily individualistic practice method closed off many avenues of engagement. Casework was the dominant practice method, a trend that can be seen throughout the history of the profession, and this was, perhaps, its most individualistic form. The Milford Conference " came to an agreement on the importance of casework to the profession Eherenreich, There were dissenting voices in direct practice however. A group of social workers formed the Functionalist School, providing a challenge to psychoanalysis. Functionalist theory, based on the work of Otto Rank, advocated an agency-based view of practice, which was different from the psychodynamically based diagnostic school. The Functional-Diagnostic Debate continued, with the more psychodynamically based diagnostic school maintaining the upper hand. There were also social workers who bucked both the more conservative national mood and the conservative orientation of the social work profession and engaged in social action. They advocated more progressive politics and a movement away from casework Eherenreich, The response of the profession was less than positive and the conservative mood that characterized social work reflected a conservative political mood. Until the end of the s, social work was a far more unified profession. Disagreements had been worked out and the profession presented a singular face to the world. That was about to change as the nation and the profession encountered the s. The Profession Changes in the Sixties The sixties changed the social policy, and the forces changing the context of practice changed the nature of professional social work practice and ultimately the profession. The politically and culturally conservative fifties gave way to a new national mood and a series of social movements that changed the political agenda for a nation. Poverty was part of the national debate in a way that it had not been since the Depression. This time, the results were different for social work and social work practice. There were major changes in social work practice during the s. Those changes continued at least for the next four decades and will likely continue into the future. The most momentous change was the erosion of the psychodynamic influence in social casework. This does not mean that social workers no longer do psychodynamic practice, nor does it mean that social work schools no longer teach psychodynamic practice theory. The hold that Freudian and neo-Freudian approach had on social casework was, however, broken. In the macro area, politically oriented community action reemerged. Involvement in social planning was facilitated by the Model Cities Program and the regional planning agencies such as the Appalachian Regional Commission. This was less than 10 years before the Lurie, writing in the Boehm Report, had questioned the lack of integration in the field. It is fair to say that the s began a pattern of fundamental change in the profession and within social work practice. This change continues even today. The Changing Face of Social Work Practice In the three decades that followed the s there were a great many changes in the way that social work practice was described, conducted, and taught. This reflected an adaptation to changes in the context of practice, as well as the efforts of social workers to

move beyond the older agreement. Micro practice has taken advantage of models and approaches from the social sciences and from other helping groups. While some practitioners still use psychodynamic approaches, social workers also use behavioral and phenomenological approaches. Theories such as task-centered treatment, cognitive behavioral approaches, reality therapy, and so forth provide options for the social work micro practitioner. Turner and Payne describe a vast variety of clinical approaches that move beyond the single theory approach of the profession prior to the 1970s and will continue to develop as time goes forth. Community practice has developed new approaches that encompass a wide variety of strategies and techniques. Political organizing, locality development, and social planning have matured and developed. Administration frequently referred to as Social Administration once had an unclear place in social work practice, but is now clearly established as a method of social work practice. This began with a series of reports and projects in the 1960s and evolved into eventual recognition of the approach. Recognition of policy practice as a practice field is also established in most of the profession. This brings in policy analysis and policy change advocacy, lobbying, and so forth together in a single social work role. These are developments that would have been unthinkable in the past but, in many ways, the profession still lags behind other fields in the training of practitioners for macro practice. Going beyond the macro–micro divisions, the growth of generalist practice theory is noteworthy. Generalist social work means using an essentially constant set of approaches at multiple levels. Generalist practice has developed a robust set of theories and approaches to inform this perspective. Ecological systems theory and the Life Model, the Strengths Perspective and Empowerment practice, as well as Feminist Social Work Practice Theory, provide explanations at multiple levels that can encompass several types of techniques. These are, in many ways, recognition of the limitations of earlier approaches. The use of research findings to guide practice is an attractive theory and one that promises further improvement in the quality of practice. Also important are the developments in technology-based practice, including e-therapy, telemedicine, electronic advocacy, and other techniques that use high technology. These have grown in importance as the technology evolves, the online environment become more important and experience and research push the development of practice toward further refinement.

Chapter 3 : Professional Ethics | Center For The Study Of Ethics In The Professions

a. *An occupation or career: "One of the highest compliments a child can pay a parent is to choose his or her profession" (Joan Nathan).*

See Article History Nursing, profession that assumes responsibility for the continuous care of the sick, the injured, the disabled, and the dying. Nursing is also responsible for encouraging the health of individuals, families, and communities in medical and community settings. Nurses are actively involved in health care research, management, policy deliberations, and patient advocacy. Nurses with postbaccalaureate preparation assume independent responsibility for providing primary health care and specialty services to individuals, families, and communities. Professional nurses work both independently and in collaboration with other health care professionals such as physicians. Professional nurses supervise the work of nurses who have limited licenses, such as licensed practical nurses LPNs in the United States and enrolled nurses ENs in Australia. Professional nurses also oversee the work of nursing assistants in various settings. Nursing is the largest, the most diverse, and one of the most respected of all the health care professions. There are more than 2. While true demographic representation remains an elusive goal, nursing does have a higher proportional representation of racial and ethnic minorities than other health care professions. In some countries, however, men still remain significantly underrepresented. The demand for nursing remains high, and projections suggest that such demand will substantively increase. Advances in health care technology, rising expectations of people seeking care, and reorganization of health care systems require a greater number of highly educated professionals. Demographic changes, such as large aging populations in many countries of the world, also fuel this demand. History of nursing Although the origins of nursing predate the mid-19th century, the history of professional nursing traditionally begins with Florence Nightingale. Nightingale, the well-educated daughter of wealthy British parents, defied social conventions and decided to become a nurse. The nursing of strangers, either in hospitals or in their homes, was not then seen as a respectable career for well-bred ladies, who, if they wished to nurse, were expected to do so only for sick family and intimate friends. In a radical departure from these views, Nightingale believed that well-educated women, using scientific principles and informed education about healthy lifestyles, could dramatically improve the care of sick patients. Moreover, she believed that nursing provided an ideal independent calling full of intellectual and social freedom for women, who at that time had few other career options. Newspaper stories reporting that sick and wounded Russian soldiers nursed by religious orders fared much better than British soldiers inflamed public opinion. Within days of their arrival, Nightingale and her nurses had reorganized the barracks hospital in accordance with 19th-century science: Within weeks death rates plummeted, and soldiers were no longer sickened by infectious diseases arising from poor sanitary conditions. For centuries, most nursing of the sick had taken place at home and had been the responsibility of families, friends, and respected community members with reputations as effective healers. During epidemics, such as cholera, typhus, and smallpox, men took on active nursing roles. For example, Stephen Girard, a wealthy French-born banker, won the hearts of citizens of his adopted city of Philadelphia for his courageous and compassionate nursing of the victims of the yellow fever epidemic. Stephen Girard, lithograph by A. Newsam after a portrait by B. As urbanization and industrialization spread, those without families to care for them found themselves in hospitals where the quality of nursing care varied enormously. Some patients received excellent care. Women from religious nursing orders were particularly known for the quality of the nursing care they provided in the hospitals they established. Other hospitals depended on recovering patients or hired men and women for the nursing care of patients. Sometimes this care was excellent; other times it was deplorable, and the unreliability of hospital-based nursing care became a particular problem by the late 19th century, when changes in medical practices and treatments required competent nurses. Hospitals established their own training schools for nurses. In exchange for lectures and clinical instructions, students provided the hospital with two or three years of skilled free nursing care. This hospital-based educational model had significant long-term implications. It bound the education of nurses to hospitals rather than colleges, a tie that was not definitively broken until the latter half of the 20th century. The

hospital-based training model also reinforced segregation in society and in the health care system. For instance, African American student nurses were barred from almost all American hospitals and training schools. They could seek training only in schools established by African American hospitals. Still, nurses transformed hospitals. In addition to the skilled, compassionate care they gave to patients, they established an orderly, routine, and systemized environment within which patients healed. They administered increasingly complicated treatments and medication regimes. They maintained the aseptic and infection-control protocols that allowed more complex and invasive surgeries to proceed. In addition, they experimented with different models of nursing interventions that humanized increasingly technical and impersonal medical procedures. Outside hospitals, trained nurses quickly became critical in the fight against infectious diseases. Teaching methods of preventing the spread of diseases, such as tuberculosis, pneumonia, and influenza, became the domain of the visiting nurses in the United States and the district nurses in the United Kingdom and Europe. They were particularly committed to working with poor and immigrant communities, which often had little access to other health care services. The work of these nurses contributed to a dramatic decline in the mortality and morbidity rates from infectious diseases for children and adults. A child receiving a tuberculosis vaccine at school in Bulacan province, Philippines, c. 1900. Very soon, the supply of private-duty nurses was greater than the demand from families. At the turn of the 20th century, nurses in industrialized countries began to establish professional associations to set standards that differentiated the work of trained nurses from both assistive-nursing personnel and untrained nurses. More important, they successfully sought licensing protection for the practice of registered nursing. By the mid-20th century, the increasing technological and clinical demands of patient care, the escalating needs of patients for intensive nursing, and the resulting movement of such care out of homes and into hospitals demanded hospital staffs of trained rather than student nurses. By the mid-20th century, hospitals were the largest single employer of registered nurses. This trend continues, although as changes in health care systems have reemphasized care at home, a proportionately greater number of nurses work in outpatient clinics, home care, public health, and other community-based health care organizations. Other important changes in nursing occurred during the latter half of the 20th century. The profession grew more diverse. The American Nurses Association (ANA) desegregated in 1968, one of the first national professional associations to do so. But by the late 1960s some African American nurses felt that the ANA had neither the time nor the resources to adequately address all their concerns. All women can help learn how you can aid in army hospitals. Dependence on hospital-based training schools declined, and those schools were replaced with collegiate programs either in community or technical colleges or in universities. In addition, more systematic and widespread programs of graduate education began to emerge. These programs prepare nurses not only for roles in management and education but also for roles as clinical specialists and nurse practitioners. Nurses no longer had to seek doctoral degrees in fields other than nursing. By the 1970s nurses were establishing their own doctoral programs, emphasizing the nursing knowledge and science and research needed to address pressing nursing care and care-delivery issues. During the second half of the 20th century, nurses responded to rising numbers of sick patients with innovative reorganizations of their patterns of care. For example, critical care units in hospitals began when nurses started grouping their most critically ill patients together to provide more effective use of modern technology. The nursing profession also has been strengthened by its increasing emphasis on national and international work in developing countries and by its advocacy of healthy and safe environments. The international scope of nursing is supported by the World Health Organization (WHO), which recognizes nursing as the backbone of most health care systems around the world. National and state agencies also regulate the scope of nursing practice. Together, these bodies set forth legal parameters and guidelines for the practice of nurses as clinicians, educators, administrators, or researchers. Education for nursing practice Nurses enter practice as generalists. They care for individuals and families of all ages in homes, hospitals, schools, long-term-care facilities, outpatient clinics, and medical offices. Many countries require three to four years of education at the university level for generalist practice, although variations exist. For example, in the United States, nurses can enter generalist practice through a two-year program in a community college or a four-year program in a college or university. Research preparation in nursing takes place at the doctoral level. Coursework emphasizes nursing knowledge and science and research methods. An

original and substantive research study is required for completion of the doctoral degree. Forms of general nursing practice Hospital -based nursing practice Hospital nursing is perhaps the most familiar of all forms of nursing practice. Within hospitals, however, there are many different types of practices. Some nurses care for patients with illnesses such as diabetes or heart failure , whereas others care for patients before, during, and after surgery or in pediatric, psychiatric, or childbirth units. Nurses work in technologically sophisticated critical care units, such as intensive care or cardiac care units. They work in emergency departments, operating rooms, and recovery rooms, as well as in outpatient clinics. The skilled care and comfort nurses provide patients and families are only a part of their work. They are also responsible for teaching individuals and families ways to manage illnesses or injuries during recovery at home. When necessary, they teach patients ways to cope with chronic conditions. Most hospital-based nurses are generalists. Those with advanced nursing degrees provide clinical oversight and consultation, work in management, and conduct patient-care research. Over the past centuries and in different parts of the world, community health nurses were called district nurses, visiting nurses, public health nurses, home-care nurses, and community health nurses. Today community health nursing and public health nursing are the most common titles used by nurses whose practices focus on promoting and protecting the health of populations. Knowledge from nursing, social, and public health sciences informs community health nursing practices. In many countries, ensuring that needed health services are provided to the most vulnerable and disadvantaged groups is central to community health nursing practice. In the United States, community health nurses work in a variety of settings, including state and local health departments, school health programs, migrant health clinics, neighbourhood health centres, senior centres, occupational health programs, nursing centres, and home care programs. Care at home is often seen as a preferred alternative for caring for the sick. Globally, home care is being examined as a solution to the needs of the growing numbers of elderly requiring care. Mental health nursing practice Mental health or psychiatric nursing practice concentrates on the care of those with emotional or stress-related concerns. Nurses practice in inpatient units of hospitals or in outpatient mental health clinics, and they work with individuals, groups, and families. Advanced-practice mental health nurses also provide psychotherapy to individuals, groups, and families in private practice, consult with community organizations to provide mental health support, and work with other nurses in both inpatient and outpatient settings to meet the emotional needs of patients and families struggling with physical illnesses or injuries. The care of children The care of children, often referred to as pediatric nursing, focuses on the care of infants, children, and adolescents.

Chapter 4 : THE IMPORTANCE OF ETHICS AND THE APPLICATION OF ETHICAL PRINCIPLES TO TH

Purpose of the NASW Code of Ethics Professional ethics are at the core of social work. The profession has an obligation to articulate its basic values, ethical principles, and ethical standards.

Family and religion There has been a long need for counseling in helping individuals with transitions and other difficulties in their lives. The long tradition of counseling is first of family members helping with advice. Parents counsel their children. Grandparents and other family elders offer the wisdom of the years. In a close community, there may also be tribal elders or others with a concern for mental well-being. This role for many years was and still is taken on by the priest or religious person. For the individual, the priest offers confidentiality that enables discussion of family matters or things that are secret from the family. The priest meanwhile gets to steadily inculcate religious values, making it a valued relationship on both sides. The church tended to view mental illness as some form of possession and treatment, including exorcism, was of the soul rather than the body. Those with more incurable issues were generally tolerated. The village idiot was found a place in the fields and others were cared for or handled within the community. The industrial revolution With the age of the enlightenment and the rise of the industrial revolution through the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, populations became mobile as they sought employment in towns and cities that were often far from their original homes. This separated them from their natural counselors, although the religious support was still available. Yet with the rise of science, the power of the church declined and it was not always able to give the help that was needed. Capitalism and science also had subtle effects on beliefs, values and general cognition. Everything had to be explained. The work ethic was dominant and hedonism was an option for only a few. Along with the concentration of towns and cities came the need to protect its citizens and civic organizations such as police forces were developed. In small communities the power of shame and the threat of banishment is enough to sustain social control. In town, anonymity is an option which brings its own problems. Particularly in America, social mobility was very much a norm. As much to protect the populace as the individual concerned, somewhere between the workhouse, hospital and prison sat the lunatic asylum. Here, the insane as well as a few unhappy individuals who had embarrassed their families were incarcerated with little treatment. Science scoffed at the notion of possession by demons but had little idea what to do beyond basic approaches such as drugging and leeching. In the cruel days of misfit sideshows, the asylum was just another place to go and laugh at those less fortunate. The rise of psychotherapy Hypnotism had been known about for some time Mesmer lived around the turn of the eighteenth century , and was popular through the nineteenth century and was used as an informal therapeutic method. Nevertheless it perplexed scientists who were suspicious of its shamanistic roots. With the continued development and dominance of scientific medicine, establishment attention was eventually turned to matters of the mind something that empiricists had largely ignored as impenetrable. Medical science took over as the caretakers of the mentally disturbed and a new age of and discipline of psychiatry arose towards the end of the nineteenth century. Sigmund Freud was perhaps the most significant pioneer in seeking to understand and treat mental problems, at least in those who lived in normal society but who suffered from emotional and behavioral difficulties. Rather than try to treat mental problems as a physical issue, he chose to listen to them and try to work out what was happening from what they said, and then apply treatment in the opposite direction, again through words. Despite massive leaps, Freud was still trapped by notions of his day, such as the assumption that mental problems had an emotional basis and the derivation of ideas such as libido came from nineteenth century biological theories. Psychoanalysis thus developed and was evolved by people such as Jaques Lacan and Melanie Klein into the approaches still used today. Behaviorism and humanism In the way that a thing creates its opposite, the assumptions of psychoanalysis were challenged in the scientific search for hard evidence, and behaviorism and conditioning became popular for the focus on the external, measurable behavior. In the opposite direction, and particularly in the more liberal America, a different view arose amongst people such as Carl Rogers, Albert Ellis, Eric Berne and Abraham Maslow. These put the person and their experience at the middle of attention, as opposed to the more therapist and method focus of psychoanalysis. This may seem unfair but the humanist

approach is just that - human. It sees the client as a collaborative partner, not as a patient to be treated by an expert. Humanism, even more than Behaviorism and quite unlike Psychoanalysis, has a focus on the present rather than the past. Humanism was largely a practitioner philosophy and was largely ignored by academe for a long time. Nevertheless its warm message resonated with both therapists and clients and it was widely used. Despite secular leanings, this approach was influenced by Protestant values such as free choice by the individual and the personal journey. Secular society With the decline of the church as a social institution that exists at the heart of the community and the lives of its people, there arose a vacuum of meaning and care. Without the comfort of promised salvation, many lost their sense of purpose in the meaningless daily drudge. And without the sage and certain advice of the priest, the neuroses of industrial living worsened. Cities can be lonely places. With family far away and fickle friends who enjoy the fun but step back when emotional support is needed, a person can be out and dancing yet feel terribly alone. In such an environment there is a vacuum, a pent-up need for help towards the making of meaning for individual lives. It was this need, this pull, that created the new disciplines of therapy and counseling. It was the loss created by sundered societies that drove some to despair and other to consider what succor and treatment could be provided to create a more harmonious. Those who wanted just to do good and those who saw the social imperative worked to develop ways and means of putting people back together and back into society. In pursuit of happiness and the American Dream, self-development was a common focus. Even in the first world war, the US army employed psychologists and psychological testing was widespread. Twentieth century expansion Psychotherapy first caught on in a significant way in the USA, helped by a receptive culture and by European analysts who moved there away from fascist oppression. These ideas were then adopted into the American culture. Humanism in particular, as described above, was a particularly American approach. In the latter half of the twentieth century, counseling developed significantly as a distinct profession, differing from therapy at least in the contexts of use and often in the types of issues faced. Counseling happens in the social community, in schools and colleges as well as homes. Counseling is often paid for by the community or is voluntarily offered such as the Samaritans. Therapy is more likely to be a private practice. Counseling addresses issues from small to large. Therapy tends to deal in the bigger issues. Counseling may be limited. Therapy can continue as long as the client is able to pay. As with other new domains, there has been division of viewpoint and evolution of schools of thought. There have been views of counseling and therapy as a means to social change. The counselor-client relationship has been questioned. Even the dynamics resulting from the structure of expert-patient has been questioned. Throughout the development of counseling and therapy, there has been an evolution of thought about the way people are perceived and hence treated. In the days of the lunatic asylum, people were locked up and treated like animals. Freud viewed the person as conflicted and hidden. Behaviorists saw people as predictable machines. Humanists had a more botanical image, with ideas of feeding and growth.

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There is, of course, much more to a profession. During my research, however, I found the many lists describing the characteristics of professionalism to be filled in every case with irrelevancies, contradictions, non sequiturs, errors, or all of these! Never in my wildest imagination did I expect to encounter such a troubling situation and it left me with a crucial task to accomplish here. Given that apparently all other such examples are lacking in logic, integrity, and morality, I have undertaken the task of assembling what I submit as the essential list of characteristics of a profession. It differs from what you will find elsewhere by way of its integrity. Moreover, it will serve as the body of characteristics used in this treatise as the baseline for reference throughout. The fundamental characteristics of a profession: Great responsibility Professionals deal in matters of vital importance to their clients and are therefore entrusted with grave responsibilities and obligations. Accountability Professionals hold themselves ultimately accountable for the quality of their work with the client. The profession may or may not have mechanisms in place to reinforce and ensure adherence to this principle among its members. If not, the individual professional will e. Sometimes, this specialization will extend to access to the tools and technologies used in the profession e. Institutional preparation Professions typically require a significant period of hands-on, practical experience in the protected company of senior members before aspirants are recognized as professionals. After this provisional period, ongoing education toward professional development is compulsory. Autonomy Professionals have control over and, correspondingly, ultimate responsibility for their own work. Professionals tend to define the terms, processes, and conditions of work to be performed for clients either directly or as preconditions for their ongoing agency employment. Clients rather than customers Members of a profession exercise discrimination in choosing clients rather than simply accepting any interested party as a customer as merchants do. Direct working relationships Professionals habitually work directly with their clients rather than through intermediaries or proxies. Ethical constraints Due to the other characteristics on this list, there is a clear requirement for ethical constraints in the professions. Professionals are bound to a code of conduct or ethics specific to the distinct profession and sometimes the individual. Merit-based In a profession, members achieve employment and success based on merit and corresponding voluntary relationships rather than on corrupted ideals such as social principle, mandated support, or extortion e. Therefore, a professional is one who must attract clients and profits due to the merits of his work. In the absence of this characteristic, issues of responsibility, accountability, and ethical constraints become irrelevant, negating any otherwise-professional characteristics. Capitalist morality The responsibilities inherent to the practice of a profession are impossible to rationally maintain without a moral foundation that flows from a recognition of the singular right of the individual to his own life, along with all of its inherent and potential sovereign value; a concept that only capitalism recognizes, upholds and protects. Moral and Ethical Foundations As one means of classification, everyone on earth falls into one of two categories: Those who believe in moral absolutes have a moral core articulated by various core values. When those values are mutually consistent, the individual then, by definition, has integrity. Those who do not hold with moral absolutes can have no moral core and no corresponding core values or integrity. Those individuals behave according to moral relativism; responding to issues as if they are disconnected, discrete items to be evaluated in a vacuum. Instead, open-mindedness is the healthy idea that there remains the possibility one does not possess all the information. An open-minded person is ever willing to become better informed and learn more about something, and then allow that new information filtered by moral, qualitative discrimination to impact decisions. Without such a basis, his every action and decision will lack credibility and must be regarded with suspicion. A professional must hold with and operate according to the inviolate principles of his moral foundationâ€”and be free to do so. In any event, only those in the former groupâ€”those with integrityâ€”can be professionals. The latter group cannot be trusted in a professional capacityâ€”or any other for that matter. Common definitions of professionalism reference ethical codes of

behavior. As should be obvious, such behavior contradicts ethical constraint. True, one could theoretically be an immoral person and yet adhere strictly to ethical constraints in the course of professional practice. As history shows, however, this sort of theory does not meet with actual results. At best such individuals function merely as useful idiots in how they knowingly or unknowingly facilitate the incremental influx of immorality and irrationality into environments and circumstances where they participate. Ethics in practice An ethical code is a rational construct built upon a foundation of values. But not everyone is practiced at or has disciplined themselves to evaluate and make decisions in this manner. This fact is one reason why so few are suited to a profession. Dysfunctional Codes of Ethics A rational code of ethics with moral and functional integrity is not to be found from any popular or well-known design community source. These inadequate attempts at codified codes of ethics seem to ignore the fact that such an instrument must, by definition, embody rationality and integrity. This sort of confusion serves neither membership nor the design profession well. On the contrary, it works to destroy professionalism among designers. Such negligence demands redress. Details can be found in the appendix. It is probably quite obvious to you that rules and codes of conduct are not made for circumstances where it is easy to do what is right, but rather for when immediate factors might otherwise render the proper move unclear or obscured by ideas of expediency. More to the point, codes of conduct are made to guide us toward consistently proper or ethical choices so that we habitually avoid difficult and ambiguous situations. However, despite rules, constraints, training, or promises, human beings can only be trusted to act in accordance with their morality. Since a professional must unfailingly adhere to the rules of professional ethics, perhaps you can perceive the potential for problems presented by any allowance for relativism. A code of ethics precludes merely immediate factors in favor of inviolate standards. In order to be of use or relevant to a professional, a code of ethics requires internalization and habitual reference. Specifically, it requires a strong, consistent internal standard; quantifiable, integrated into every element of practice, and each component related to the others. The result of this standard put into practice is known as professionalism. I encourage design professionals to read, consider, and then publicly proclaim their support and adherence to it. A definition of professionalism The short definition is that professionalism means behaving in an ethical manner while assuming and fulfilling your rightful responsibilities in every situation every time, without fail. To get a bit more granular, one can say that it means, in part, conducting your affairs in such a way as to engender trust and confidence in every aspect of your work. It means having the requisite ability to be worthy of the confidence others place in you. It means having already made the right choices so that you attract the right sort of client and work under good circumstances rather than having to continually make the best of bad circumstances and take whatever is tossed your way, regardless of its quality. Perhaps most importantly, professionalism means, in every situation, willfully gathering responsibility rather than avoiding it. For example, you might now be thinking: As a design professional, my job is to create beautiful designs for my clients. I do the best I can with what I have and all I really need to know is how to design really well. Yes, you will always make do with what you have, but what you have is entirely of your own making and it always will be. If the response above could have come from you, remember that you choose to work where you work. You choose to work with the people you work with. You choose to take on the clients that the sales team feeds you. If you know that most of the clients you work with are business owners, it is your responsibility to study how to run a business in order to better understand and serve their needs. It is your responsibility to know how to conduct discovery in order to determine how best to design for your clients. Here are some important distinctions between professionals and those who are not: A professional makes deliberate choices where others have choices made for them or they simply react to what comes their way. A professional is afforded the luxury of making deliberate choices because he has made deliberate preparations. A professional can make deliberate preparations because his understanding of and familiarity with the relevant professional landscape informs him on how to prepare. Also, like the chess master, he is trained to understand the inevitable results of hundreds of different patterns; he has disciplined himself to observe the whole board and not just the most immediate features or the area with the most tension in the game. A professional is seldom caught off-balance. The discipline for deliberate preparation and the understanding that comes with it allow that even when something unexpected or unfamiliar is introduced, a professional can quickly understand

its basis and easily extrapolate the appropriate tactic, strategy, or process for ethically and successfully resolving issues. In this capacity, and most fundamentally, a professional habitually makes the right choices because all of his choices are based on the integrity provided by his moral and ethical foundation. Any choice of expedience over integrity can quite easily be recognized by anyone as the wrong choice. If we know these features of professionalism, we can then use them as a guide to build a fundamental blueprint for design professionalism.

Chapter 6 : Social Work Practice: History and Evolution - Encyclopedia of Social Work

Our profession demands that every Army soldier and civilian take personal responsibility for their own behavior, for courageously confronting unacceptable conduct, and for resolving any incident that violates the dignity and respect of any individual.

A social worker can indeed make a career working in this capacity, but social work as a profession is much broader. Modern social work grew out of attempts – often by women, often by volunteers -- to heal social ills. Poverty was frequently at the root of what they tackled – and yet not always. Nearly years ago, social workers were helping veterans who had been traumatized in World War I. They serve the sick as well as the disadvantaged. Some offer counseling services through their own private practices. Social work had a professional identity even in the early 20th century. Today, not surprisingly, there are more formal standards in place. The Council on Social Work Education sets the standards for undergraduate and graduate education. The Association of Social Work Boards develops and administers nationwide licensing exams. The National Association of Social Workers is a huge clearinghouse for professional resources; this well-known professional organization has chapters in every U. Learn more about this program. Types of Social Work Practice Social work can be classified in different ways. Often the terms micro and macro are used. Social workers at the micro level work with individuals. Macro social workers institute change on an organizational level: At the heart of social work education is the premise that many careers share a common set of core competencies. These include knowledge of human behavior within its social context, professionalism and ethics, knowledge of social service delivery systems, and ability to make sense of social research. At the higher levels, social workers can develop advanced competencies in specialty areas. They may become clinicians or administrators. They may focus on particular populations, like children or seniors. Many social workers pursue clinical social work. While each state define the scope of practice a bit differently, clinical social work generally involves diagnosing and treating mental disorders. In short, clinical social workers are mental health practitioners. They sometimes compete with other mental health practitioners counselors and even psychologists for jobs and clients. However, they often bring a unique perspective to the role. Social work programs emphasize looking at human behavior in a societal context; moreover, the profession has a history of attracting idealists. Just as some patients prefer advanced practice nurses over physicians citing compassion or greater focus on preventative care , some clients prefer social workers over mental health professionals from other disciplines. Clinical social workers tend to have salaries above the norm for the profession. These categories are broad, though, and tell only part of the story. NASW, meanwhile, has reported a correlation between health and mental health practice areas and higher salaries. Professional Identity All states license at least some social workers, though there is not national consensus about who needs licensing. Those who offer clinical services? Those at the independent level? In some locales, one can be a social services worker without a license, but not a social worker. But having the title – and the education that it is based on – can be a real asset. Those who do casework are not always social workers. Yet publications by NASW suggest that, to a disproportionate degree, those who are happy doing casework are. A NASW report, based on a large scale survey, found far greater job satisfaction among social workers employed in child welfare than what has been reported for child welfare workers as a whole. Social workers were more likely to report sufficient professional development and adequate meeting time with supervisors. They also tended to have smaller, more manageable caseloads – and better pay. Social workers did report a number of job stresses, but tended to focus more on the plight of families they served than on their own working conditions. There can be advantages to having a profession as well as a job – advantages for all concerned. Click here to request information about The Widener University online Masters in social work program.

Chapter 7 : "Advocating for our profession and its clients" by Angela M. Waguespack, Y. Del Nodal et al.

Chapter 1 Nursing and the Political Arena INTRODUCTION What is the future of nursing as a profession? What will its role be in the health care delivery system and on the social and political stages?

Ancient history[edit] Globular envelope known as a Bulla with a cluster of accountancy tokens, Uruk period , B. Louvre Museum Early development of accounting[edit] See also: History of mathematics , History of writing , and History of money Accounting records dating back more than 7, years have been found in Mesopotamia , [11] and documents from ancient Mesopotamia show lists of expenditures , and goods received and traded. In particular, there is evidence that a key step in the development of countingâ€”the transition from concrete to abstract countingâ€”was related to the early development of accounting and money and took place in Mesopotamia [1] Other early accounting records were also found in the ruins of ancient Babylon , Assyria and Sumeria , which date back more than 7, years. The people of that time relied on primitive accounting methods to record the growth of crops and herds. Because there was a natural season to farming and herding, it was easy to count and determine if a surplus had been gained after the crops had been harvested or the young animals weaned. The Phoenicians invented a phonetic alphabet "probably for bookkeeping purposes", based on the Egyptian hieratic script, and there is evidence that an individual in ancient Egypt held the title "comptroller of the scribes". There is also evidence for an early form of accounting in the Old Testament ; for example the Book of Exodus describes Moses engaging Ithamar to account for the materials that had been contributed towards the building of the tabernacle. An account of small cash sums received over a few days at the fort of Vindolanda circa AD shows that the fort could compute revenues in cash on a daily basis, perhaps from sales of surplus supplies or goods manufactured in the camp, items dispensed to slaves such as cervesa beer and clavi caligares nails for boots , as well as commodities bought by individual soldiers. The basic needs of the fort were met by a mixture of direct production , purchase and requisition ; in one letter, a request for money to buy 5, modii measures of braces a cereal used in brewing shows that the fort bought provisions for a considerable number of people. The bulk of the documents relate to the running of a large, private estate [15] is named after Heroninos because he was phrontistes Koine Greek: This information was then summarized as pieces of papyrus scroll into one big yearly account for each particular sub-division of the estate. Entries were arranged by sector, with cash expenses and gains extrapolated from all the different sectors. Accounts of this kind gave the owner the opportunity to take better economic decisions because the information was purposefully selected and arranged. Luca Pacioli and Double-entry bookkeeping system When medieval Europe moved towards a monetary economy in the 13th century, sedentary merchants depended on bookkeeping to oversee multiple simultaneous transactions financed by bank loans. One important breakthrough took place around that time: Debit in Latin means "he owes" and credit in Latin means "he trusts". The Messari accounts contain debits and credits journalised in a bilateral form and carry forward balances from the preceding year, and therefore enjoy general recognition as a double-entry system. His manuscript was first published in It included a page treatise on bookkeeping, "Particularis de Computis et Scripturis" Latin: Pacioli wrote primarily for, and sold mainly to, merchants who used the book as a reference text, as a source of pleasure from the mathematical puzzles it contained, and to aid the education of their sons. His work represents the first known printed treatise on bookkeeping; and it is widely believed[by whom? In Summa de arithmetica, Pacioli introduced symbols for plus and minus for the first time in a printed book, symbols which became standard notation in Italian Renaissance mathematics. Summa de arithmetica was also the first known book printed in Italy to contain algebra. Its regular use provides the merchant with continued information about his business, and allows him to evaluate how things are going and to act accordingly. Pacioli recommends the Venetian method of double-entry bookkeeping above all others. Three major books of account are at the direct basis of this system: It also enabled merchants to audit their own books and to ensure that the entries in the accounting records made by their bookkeepers complied with the method he described. Without such a system, all merchants who did not maintain their own records were at greater risk of theft by their employees and agents: Financial accounting and Management accounting The development of joint-stock

companies especially from about built wider audiences for accounting information, as investors without first-hand knowledge of their operations relied on accounts to provide the requisite information. Two concepts have formed the current state of the accountancy profession. Firstly, the development of the double-entry book-keeping system in the fourteenth and fifteenth century and secondly, accountancy professionalization which was created in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. During this time, accountants often belonged to the same associations as solicitors , and the latter solicitors sometimes offered accounting services to their clients. The Petition, signed by 49 Glasgow accountants, argued that the profession of accountancy had long existed in Scotland as a distinct profession of great respectability, and that although the number of practitioners had been originally few, the number had been rapidly increasing. The petition also pointed out that accountancy required a varied group of skills; as well as mathematical skills for calculation, the accountant had to have an acquaintance with the general principles of the legal system as they were frequently employed by the courts to give evidence on financial matters. The Edinburgh Society of accountants adopted the name "Chartered Accountant" for members. With the growth of the limited liability company and large scale manufacturing and logistics, demand surged for more technically proficient accountants capable of handling the increasingly complex world of high speed global transactions, able to calculate figures like asset depreciation and inventory valuation and cognizant of the latest changes in legislation such as the new Company law , then being introduced. As companies proliferated, the demand for reliable accountancy shot up, and the profession rapidly became an integral part of the business and financial system. To improve their status and combat criticism of low standards, local professional bodies in England amalgamated to form the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales , established by royal charter in

Chapter 8 : The Social Work Profession | Cal State LA

Counseling is a relatively new profession and context. Here's a brief history of how it came about.

Profession- Prescribes standards for itself. Is accountable to the public. When Obligations Conflict, important questions to ask: What seems to be the primary obligation? Which violation will cause more harm? Is there a way to make these obligations compatible? Judge foreclosing on a widow. Look for alternative that does the least harm. Ethics as a Context of Professional Work and identifying ethical issues in what you teach I. Ethics and other professional standards: Same purpose as other standards, namely 1. Protect public, serve client, support other standards, etc. Begins with common sense 2. Modified based on experience of profession 3. Never final since experience continues C. Needs practical context to make sense 1. Each profession is defined by a certain sort of judgment, not merely by the knowledge such judgment presupposes: Judgment can only be exercised in a context. Once you begin thinking about the ethical issues professionals in your field encounter on a day-to-day basis, it becomes relatively easy to identify ethical issues in what you teach. Draw on your practical experience—what bothered you? Ask practitioners what comes up in their work? Collect newspaper stories, novels, short stories, web sites, and the like that deal with your profession—what comes up there? For example, see the Codes of Ethics Collection, divided by professional category link F. Ask your students to write up problems based on their work experience or on the work experience of someone they interview For engineering instructions, you can see examples of cases developed by graduate students in the Ethics-in-Basket link G. Think about writing a report on research, design work, or evaluation of the material covered in course: Ethics in the classroom: Strategy—make room for judgment by adding context. Rewrite problems to include more information; e. Did students notice how much was going in? How many people might die as result? Responsibility beyond particular technical questions? Not just safety, also utility e. Which approach should we take and why? One approach could be cheaper in the short run, another cheaper in long run, another safer, and so on. What is professional responsibility here? Assign students to study report of some disaster or scandal relevant to material of course: Disasters are effective in teaching ethics because they are both real and dramatic. If you only use cases studies in your class that show failures to exercise ethical judgment, students may become cynical about the very possibility of professionals behaving ethically. Investigate technical standard relevant to course e. How was this table developed? Why do we record lab observations in ink, at time, in books that cannot leave lab? County of Alameda C. Tuesday, October 21, www. We can old many roles simultaneously in society, and these roles are constantly shifting and being negotiated by society and by ourselves. T author Michael Davis argues that codes of ethics are central to advising professionals on how to conduct themselves, how to judge the conduct of others, and how to understand their occupation as a profession. Using engineering as an example, Davis looks at the history of the Challenger Space Shuttle disaster, and shows the importance of professional codes of ethics and how it could have served as a guide for engineers involved in that incident. Handout from EAC Workshop, modified

Chapter 9 : Our Profession | WPHNA

Social work is a profession that began its life as a call to help the poor, the destitute and the disenfranchised of a rapidly changing social order. It continues today still pursuing that quest, perhaps with some occasional deviations of direction from the original www.nxgvision.com work practice is the primary means of achieving the profession's ends.