IN SEARCH OF QUALITY AND COMPETENCE:

PRACTICE TEACHING / FIELD INSTRUCTION

IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

A Study of Training Programmes for Practice Teachers
in the United Kingdom and Field Instructors in Canada

by

Gayla Rogers

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF LAW, ENVIRONMENT AND

SOCIAL SCIENCES

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEWCASTLE UPON TYNE

IN FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE

DEGREE OF PH.D.

June 1995

DEDICATION

To the memory of my mother, Clarice, who by her example taught me the value of lifelong learning and the meaning of commitment to community. To the memory of my brother Eric, an extraordinary person whose life was a lesson on perseverance in the face of adversity.

IN SEARCH OF QUALITY AND COMPETENCE:
PRACTICE TEACHING / FIELD INSTRUCTION
IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

A Study of Training Programmes for Practice Teachers
in the United Kingdom and Field Instructors in Canada

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

An integral feature of education for the social work profession in the United Kingdom and in Canada is preparation for practice. This requires a curriculum design that combines classroom instruction with supervised social work practice opportunities. Throughout the historical development of the profession of social work on both sides of the Atlantic, practice learning and practice teaching have been an essential element in the education and training of social workers. This element relies, in part, on social service providers who offer students practice placements within their agencies, and, in part, on experienced social work practitioners who provide an environment whereby students, under their tutelage, can acquire the requisite practice knowledge, skills and professional identity for the social work profession. Social workers who take on the role of practice teacher provide a major contribution to the professional preparation of social work practitioners and have a profound influence on students' professional development. Pivotal to the success of a student's practice learning experience is the ability of his/her practice teacher to direct and facilitate the educational process. To do this competently requires from practice teachers an understanding of the complexities of learning and teaching adults in a social work setting. Thus, to acquire competence in the role of practice teacher, the skills of an adult educator need to be included in his/her repertoire of professional knowledge and practice abilities.

As *competent* practice teachers are salient to preparing students for professional social work practice in the United Kingdom and Canada, a *quality* practice teaching programme includes training for practice teachers. This research has investigated how practice teacher training is conceptualised and delivered by inquiring into the extent, structure, content and process of existing training courses for practice teachers and by incorporating the perceptions of practice teachers about their experience on training programmes in each country.

This study has examined the existing knowledge and practice base with reference to models, methods and meanings of practice teacher training from theoretical, empirical and practical perspectives. It has considered the perspectives of course directors of the Central Council

for Education and Training in Social Work (CCETSW) approved practice teacher courses in the United Kingdom and field directors of Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work (CASSW) accredited schools of social work in Canada; and practice teachers / field instructors in each country who have shared their training as they were experiencing it.

The findings describe the current state of training for practice teachers in each country. They present a full picture of what training programmes look like and what they contain, who participates in training and what is expected of the participants as a result of training. Cases of training programmes in each country were studied to obtain the view of practice teachers who were engaged in a training process. A description of the training experience at its beginning set the scene for analysing and understanding participants' perceptions and opinions, thoughts and feelings at the end of the course and approximately six months later. Both descriptions, the national scene and the case studies, were a precursor to uncovering the principles and theories informing the practice of preparing practice teachers. Also identified were critical issues and assumptions located in the historical, social, political and cultural contexts in which social work practice and social work education are embedded and which need to be confronted if the profession of social work is to meet the challenges of the 21st century.

This research has endeavoured to search for elements of quality and competence in practice teaching that can inform the preparation of practice teachers and thereby contribute to improvements in the practice of practice teaching and the education of social workers. It suggests that training for practice teaching must be reconstructed by shifting paradigms and reasserting the importance of collaborative learning. It is argued that practice teaching has a distinct and distinguishable body of knowledge and skills which has been generated through research, built from experience, and drawn from related disciplines. It can be articulated, transmitted and made accessible to practice teachers and field instructors, through carefully designed and delivered courses.

CHAPTER ONE
PRACTICE LEARNING:
THE HEART OF SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION?

An integral feature of education for the social work profession in the United Kingdom and in Canada is preparation for practice. This requires a curriculum design that combines classroom instruction with supervised social work practice opportunities. Throughout the historical development of the profession of social work on both sides of the Atlantic, practice learning and practice teaching have been an essential element in the education and training of social workers. This element relies, in part, on social service providers who offer students practice placements within their agencies, and, in part, on experienced social work practitioners who provide an environment whereby students, under their tutelage, can acquire the requisite practice knowledge, skills and professional identity for the social work profession. Social workers who take on the role of practice teacher provide a major contribution to the professional preparation of social work practitioners and have a profound influence on students' professional development. How best to train these practice teachers for this responsibility is the central question of this research.

The overall objective of practice teaching is to provide the "aspiring entrant to social work with a protected and guided experience of contemporary social work practice . . ." (Ford & Jones, 1987, p. 1). In general terms, this includes the development and use of appropriate and effective practice skills, the application and integration of theory with practice, and the development of a professional identity.

Pivotal to the success of a student's practice learning experience is the ability of his/her practice teacher to direct and facilitate the educational process. To do this competently requires of practice teachers an understanding of the complexities of learning and teaching adults in a social work setting. Thus, to acquire competence in the role of practice teacher, the skills of an adult educator need to be included in his/her repertoire of professional knowledge and practice abilities.

1

At the same time, to safeguard the quality of the practice teaching component, programme directors in the educational institutions and agency management in the participating organisations need to ensure that practice teachers are provided with the specific education and training required for this role. All too often, however, practice teachers are expected to shift roles from practitioner to educator with little formal preparation. Those programme directors and agency managers who incorporate and sanction practice teacher training, demonstrate a commitment to quality field education through a planned approach to facilitating the learning/teaching process.

A *quality* practice teaching programme, therefore, includes training for practice teachers. As *competent* practice teachers are salient to preparing students for professional social work practice in the United Kingdom and Canada, investigation into how practice teacher training is conceptualised and delivered is considered a worthwhile research endeavour. Attention to the extent, structure, content and process of existing training courses will facilitate the creation of an integrated, comprehensive model and curriculum for preparing competent practice teachers. Incorporating the perceptions of practice teachers about the helpfulness and experience of the training they receive will also strengthen and enhance the quality of practice teacher training programmes.

Thus, in search of quality and competence, the purpose of this study is to contribute to the existing knowledge and practice base with reference to models, methods and meanings of practice teacher training from theoretical, empirical and practical perspectives. To accomplish this purpose, the objectives of this research are three-fold: to examine and compare the extent and scope of practice teacher training in the United Kingdom and Canada; to examine the content and process of practice teacher training in the United Kingdom and Canada; and to examine the perceptions of recipients of training in both countries regarding its helpfulness in preparing them to be competent practice teachers.

This research is not attempting to evaluate the extent to which training practice teachers produces better prepared or more competent students capable of delivering a superior service. Neither will it determine if trained practice teachers are more effective or perform better than practice teachers who have not received specific training for the role. The questions this research addresses are as follows: What can be learned by examining the British, Canadian and international perspectives in the related literature? What are the existing models and

practices of training practice teachers in the United Kingdom and Canada? What do trained practice teachers get from the training, that is, what is their perspective on how helpful the training is to their work as practice teachers? Can and do practice teachers transfer what they learn in a training course to their practices with students? And finally, what content and process comprise quality training for practice teachers?

Several assumptions underpin this study. First, it is assumed that practice learning is a valid and important component of the social work curriculum and that it prepares social work students for professional practice; second, supervised practice opportunities, under the guidance of a competent practice teacher, enhance the quality of practice learning; and third, qualified social workers require additional training for the role of practice teacher, that is, skilfullness and competence in practice teaching will not automatically emerge with the assignment of the task or as a natural progression of a practitioner's professional develop- ment. Fourth, while various models of training practice teachers exist, they have not been typologised or examined in a coherent way prior to this study. Fifth, there is an existing, albeit disjointed, and modest knowledge, practice and research base regarding practice teaching and learning which has evolved, quite independent of the other, in both the United Kingdom and Canada. By examining these in a logical and integrative manner, the existing base can be built upon and expanded. The sixth and final assumption is that the development of a more comprehensive knowledge base and the application of specific practice skills is critical in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning for practice teachers and students at a time of rapid change in social work education.

Cognisance of the historical background and existing framework within which practice teacher training occurs is important for a contextual understanding of the topic. The social work profession in Canada owes its origins to the British Poor Laws. Social work education in Canada was also strongly influenced by the British system early in its inception but later became more closely aligned with American models of professional education. Notwith- standing similarities in origins, social work education in the United Kingdom and Canada is operationalised in substantially different ways. The political and organisational climates in each country undoubtedly have an influence. This study took place during a time of considerable change in social work education in the United Kingdom that has suffered, yet survived, the effects of Thatcherism. These changes have impacted the role and preparation of practice teachers in new and exciting ways. In Canada deficit reduction and the

dismantling of the social safety net are at the top of the political agenda. Chapter Two elaborates on this background by providing an overview of the British and Canadian contexts.

The topic of practice teacher training is embedded in a rich literature that is both specific and multidisciplinary in nature. This includes practice teaching, supervision, social work practice, social work education, education and training in a range of caring professions, and adult and higher education. This literature and related research is reviewed from the perspective of each country in Chapter Three. There have been no other cross national studies and there are some important but few large scale national studies in each country. There are, however, a plethora of small scale studies and accounts, conceptual pieces and educational innovations reported in the literature. Despite this offering, there is little published material that exposes the perspectives of practice teachers.

A considerable challenge to a researcher exists in attempting to systematically compare practice teacher training in these two countries. The differential use of language and terminology is one area of difficulty. Meanings of commonly used concepts are construed differently and require considerable effort to obtain consistency in definitions and mutuality in understanding. A glossary is provided at the end of this chapter to ensure terms that are used interchangeably are interpreted consistently. Another challenge is posed by the policy and structural differences in the organisation, administration, funding, and control of social work education. Chapter Four discusses these special considerations and the research methods selected for this study.

Both extensive and intensive research methods have been utilised in this study. The extensive methods include the collection of information from course directors of all Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work (CCETSW) Approved Practice Teacher Training Programmes in the United Kingdom, and the collection of similar information from field directors of all Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work (CASSW) accredited programmes of social work education in Canada. This information was collated and analysed so that it could be compared and categorised.

The intensive research methods involve case studies of a practice teacher training programme in the United Kingdom, and of two types of field instructor training courses in Canada. These cases were studied in three phases: initially a participant observation strategy was

used; this was followed by obtaining information from the participants upon completion of each course of training using a postal survey; and approximately six to nine months later, further data was obtained from a stratified sample of the participants from each course using a semi-structured guided interview. The information illuminated in this manner provides an understanding of the processes, interactions and content of one nationally approved training course in the UK and two distinct types of courses in Canada.

The data analyses are presented in three chapters, Five, Six and Seven. The analyses of the national survey data from each country are presented in Chapter Five. These findings specifically address the three stated objectives of the study and describe the extent and scope, content and process of practice teacher training in the United Kingdom and Canada from the perspectives of course directors of CCETSW-approved practice teacher courses and field directors of CASSW-accredited schools of social work. The experience of the researcher in participating and observing 'a day on the course' in each case is reflected in thick description along with a thematic analysis in Chapter Six. The views of the participants on the training courses under study are presented in Chapter Seven in two ways: their perspectives of training immediately following the taught course, and their retrospective views of the course and its influence on their practice teaching some six to nine months later.

The significance of the study and directions for future research are discussed in Chapter Eight. The synthesis of the findings represents a comprehensive study of practice teacher training that incorporates and integrates the perspectives, practices and literature of the United Kingdom and Canada which, to date, is without precedent. This study has implications for social work educators, social service providers, practice teachers and students. The profession itself stands to benefit as it relies on the combination of academic and practice learning to provide qualified professional practitioners to perform practice activities.

The quality of the practice teaching experience is a fundamental contributing factor in the preparedness of the qualified competent practitioner. Since the learning process is highly complex and idiosyncratic for professions like social work, practice teachers who can make accurate educational assessments and individualise their approach to a diverse student population will be more effective. Understanding this phenomena is part of the responsibility of the social work course in providing optimum conditions for learning and teaching in the

placement. It is incumbent on the educational system to better understand the process on behalf of those involved in order to maximise the effectiveness of professional education.

I believe there is much to be gained by the sharing of ideas, experience and expertise between the United Kingdom and Canada. This type of exchange is commonly found in other areas of interest within the social work discipline, such as child welfare and gerontology, but heretofore has not occurred on this particular aspect of social work education. Shardlow and Doel (1992) have suggested that our empirical knowledge of practice teaching is slight and conceptualisation remains rudimentary. Any endeavour to enhance a practice teacher's ability to be a competent educator, supervisor and role model provides a significant benefit to the social work profession. This study seeks to make such a contribution.

It is worth noting the caution raised by Sinclair (1991, p. 68) that "the political and organisational context of the research is almost certainly more important in determining the use which is made of the research than the rigour or relevance of the research itself." In response to this caution, it is my sincere hope that this research will be useful on both sides of the Atlantic, regardless of the flavour-of-the-day political agenda, organisational restructuring, paradigm shifts, cutbacks, downsizing and the pressure to do more with less.

Social work as an organised profession will endure and continue to make a difference to the lives of the marginalised, disenfranchised and powerless groups in our society. It will carry on its tradition of seeking to promote a more just and peaceful society while assisting and empowering communities, families and individuals to negotiate, mediate and interact in healthy and helpful ways with each other and with the systems in which they are inextricably bound. To do so requires an educational structure and curriculum that is responsive to the current realities and emerging trends while honouring the value base and ethical stance underpinning the profession and the knowledge base built through research, practice and the wisdom of our foremothers.

More than at any other time in our history we need to educate social workers who are knowledgeable, aware, flexible, adaptable, innovative, skilful, assertive and sensitive. This may suggest we need a new breed of social worker who can be critically reflective practitioner-researchers. Developing such social workers means in part exposing them to exemplars from our practice communities who can demonstrate and discuss practice and be

a model and mentor for student social workers. We need to do the very best we can to prepare and support those social workers who undertake this responsibility.

> Examination of the day-to-day practice of social work reveals a hard practical job of work, concerned with things that matter deeply in human life, and shot through with moral dilemmas. What is important in the evaluation of social work training is to get away from the ideology of social work and down to what practitioners say they need and clients say they value. (Sinclair, 1990, p. 42)

The more we know about existing training for practice teachers in terms of the extent, scope, content and process the more we can critically examine and integrate present practices into a coherent and meaningful set of best practices that can be articulated, conceptualised, applied and further developed. Research into practice teacher training will inform this process and augment the transformation of practitioner to educator. It honours the invaluable contribution of practice teachers and gives voice to their desire to make a difference in a responsible, positive and informed manner.

Glossary of Terms

Wherever possible the terms selected conform to British conventional usage while the North American terms are used selectively when specifically and only referring to North America where they more appropriately enhance meaning and interpretation. In some cases the terms are interchangeable and in other cases the words have different connotations.

Social Work Course: In the UK the word *course* is used synonymously with the word *programme*, but in North America *course* means a single class or subject taught within a programme. In North America the word *programme* is used interchangeable with the word *school*, as in *School of Social Work* or *Social Work Programme*.

Practice learning: These words describe that component of the social work course which is undertaken in an agency where students have supervised practice opportunities whereby they learn to practice social work. This is not a commonly used term in North America but the same phenomenon is described as *field education*.

Practice teacher: The individual social work practitioner who takes primary responsibility for supervising, instructing and assessing the students' practice learning. In North America this person is referred to as a *field instructor* or *field supervisor*.

Practice teaching: This recently coined expression describes what the practice teacher does with the student. It used to be referred to as *supervision*, the term used in North America and used interchangeably with *field instruction*.

Practice placement: The location, site or place of practice learning, usually in a social work agency or department. The comparable term used in North America is *field practicum* or *field placement*.

Staff: Those persons from the college or educational institutions who teach on the academic or classroom side of a social work course. In North America they are referred to as *faculty*.

Tutor: The staff person on the social work course providing a liaison with the practice teacher and student. In North America this person is most commonly referred to as the *faculty liaison*.

This glossary provides a guide to the subtle and more obvious variations in terminology which are reflective of sometimes fine and sometimes blatant differences in the meanings, constructs and assumptions implied in the terms. The role that practice teachers play in present-day social work education is in many respects a product of history. That history can only be understood in relation to the context of social work and social work education as it evolved in its common and distinct ways in the United Kingdom and Canada. This context will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER TWO
SOCIAL WORK AND SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION IN CONTEXT

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a context from which this research can be understood. It will serve to illuminate the major historical developments and policies surrounding the evolution of social work and social work education as well as examine the prevailing climate and conditions in the United Kingdom and Canada regarding social work and social work education today. This chapter will begin by examining the common roots of social work shared by both countries. It will then trace the separate developments marking the distinct histories of social work and social work education in the United Kingdom and Canada. It will conclude with a description of social work education today in both countries, with a particular emphasis on establishing the context for practice teaching.

ROOTS OF SOCIAL WORK: A COMMON HISTORY

The roots of social welfare services and the discipline of social work can be traced to those who fought against the harsh attitudes and policies of the Industrial Revolution in the 18th and 19th centuries. The earliest provision of aid to the disadvantaged and the destitute came from religious groups in the form of volunteer help. Victorian concepts of relief were based on punishment, control or removal of those who could not be adequately cared for within their families. Workhouses, prisons, asylums and orphanages categorised and contained the mad, bad, sick and destitute (Walker, 1991). Local parishes assumed responsibility for distinguishing between the needy and the idle, while local communities were encouraged to offer voluntary self-help, the beginnings of the Co-operative movement.

The Early Activists

Throughout the Victorian era, humanitarian and Christian beliefs inspired many people to become involved in social causes. Octavia Hill has been referred to as the grandmother of

9

modern social work because of her work in training voluntary helpers (Young & Ashton, 1956, cited in Walker, 1991). Dr. Barnado, Elizabeth Fry, John Howard, Mary Carpenter, and Lord Shaftesbury, among others, paved the way for a network of voluntary services. The origins of social work in the United Kingdom can be traced to diverse but related organisations and movements including Charity Organisation Societies (COS), the settlement house movements, the police court missions, and the almoners (Parry & Parry, 1979). These movements spread to the new world initially modelled after their English derivatives and later becoming uniquely Canadian.

Reform workers in England supported a theory of humanitarianism that considered persons in need to be outside of their own control. These reformers worked for the abolition of illiteracy, preventable diseases, sweated labour, slums and overcrowding, unemployment and poverty (Younghusband, 1964). Parallel to the development of the social reform movement was the establishment in England of COS in 1869, formed to coordinate services and offer effective intervention. It had an emphasis on the detailed investigation of individual cases of distress (Younghusband, 1964). Volunteers were recruited to befriend applicants, make individual assessments, and help correct their problems. This voluntary, charitable sector evolved in tandem with the development of state services, a duality of provision which still exists today in both countries.

Charity Organisation Societies, run predominately by volunteers, were established to coordinate attempts to abolish public relief and replace almsgiving with a more scientific administration of charity. The idea was to have the well-to-do initiate and foster reciprocal relations of friendship with poor families. Despite their firm beliefs that moral defects were the cause of poverty, COS workers could not deny the evidence of families with good moral character being overwhelmed by inescapable social environment problems beyond their control. Extracts from a paper given in 1900 to a conference of the COS Special Committee on Training stress the necessity of a dual role for social work both in helping individuals and in community development (Smith, 1965). The preventative side of these organisations and an emphasis on social reform surfaced near the end of the 19th century.

Distinguishing the Worthy from the Unworthy

From these movements it was shown that "pauper conditions make paupers and that social reform, education and personal service, based on a belief in the goodness and the strengths in human nature, can cure some social ills that ruin individual lives" (Younghusband, 1964, pp. 23-24).   Unfortunately, mistaken moral judgements about the 'worthiness' and 'unworthiness' of those less able remained prevalent throughout the industrialisation of the western world.   These attitudes had been reinforced by two influential but questionable 17th and 18th century theories: the Malthusian theory that there is a fundamental inadequacy of life support on our planet (meaning that poverty and misery for millions of human beings must be accepted as normal and unavoidable); and Darwin's theory of evolution and his hypothesis that evolution was based on the survival of the fittest (Fuller, 1963; 1981).

The influence of these theories was fuelled by Herbert Spencer's thesis that "survival of the fittest" should apply to human society, that poverty was part of natural selection and therefore, he contended that "helping the poor would only serve to make them lazy and nonindustrious" (Barker, 1987, p. 185).   Spencer's theory was supported by followers of the Protestant Ethic that had gained influence throughout England, parts of Europe and in the colonies of the New World.   Followers of the Protestant Ethic emphasised self-discipline, frugality and hard work, and encouraged others to disapprove of those who were dependent on others.   These attitudes relied heavily on the belief that one's right to human existence and heavenly reward was predicated on the requirement of 'earning a living' in order to qualify.

Out of these theories and philosophies emerged an elitist principle of 'survival of the privileged few' which became the mainspring of world political policy.

> Humans in all regions of the world exploited other humans to become part
> of the privileged few (as found in sexism, racism, nationalism); ideologies
> competed with ideologies to dominate the societal norms of human social
> functioning (as found between capitalism, socialism and communism); and,
> military technology dominated human strategies to gain the ultimate edge
> over others. (Ramsay, 1988, p. 11)

Despite this moral certainty approach, theories suggesting that events outside individual responsibility might explain the cause of poverty were gradually gaining some prominence. From England, it was the rise of new liberalism and the Fabian movement which fought for social legislation to protect men, women and children against the harsh laissez-faire policies

of industrialisation (Bellamy & Irving, 1986). The English Poor Laws of 1601 were an example of such legislation with a long-standing impact on society in Britain and North America. Since the Poor Laws of Elizabethan England, the State has assumed some responsibility for those who are not able to look after themselves. The Poor Laws represented society's guarantee against destitution and starvation but carried a moral stigma.

Legislating for Social Responsibility

The English Poor Laws empowered local justices to license the poor and handicapped, enabling them to beg for a living, established a classification system for different types of poor, restricted fund raising to local jurisdictions, legislated the State's responsibility for some role in caring for the poor, and prescribed harsh treatment for the able-bodied poor (Barker, 1987, p. 183). The punitive attitudes inherent in these conditional provision policies were entrenched by reforms to the Poor Laws in the 1800s. The denigrating principles of 'less eligibility' and 'perception of need' were imbedded in society's attitudes toward the poor and the less able during this period (Ramsay, 1988). The Poor Law principles were introduced by the Plymouth colonists to the New World early in the 17th century and centuries later we were still dividing the poor and unfortunate into two groups: those who fell upon hard times they could not avoid, and those who were to blame for their hard times. Believers in moral certainty felt that "poverty could be avoided by anyone who really wanted to" (Carniol, 1987, p. 25).

The first sign of social welfare being other than a local government responsibility was established in 1883 when Chancellor Bismarck of a newly united Germany introduced the first national health insurance system. The legislation establishing this system became a model for social security programs world-wide during the last century. The 1909 Royal Commission on Poor Laws and the Unemployed in England introduced insurance, pensions and unemployment assistance which represented a shift from a punitive to a more curative and preventive approach to social problems. The National Insurances Act of Great Britain of 1911 was the first to follow Bismarck's lead providing a national health and compensation program paid for by tripartite contributions from workers, employers and the public. In Canada the first such social legislation was passed in 1927 with the Old Age Pensions Act (Yelaja, 1985). The Atlantic Charter of 1941, an historical meeting between Prime Minister Churchill and President Roosevelt, formulated as one of its agreements the "Citizen's Right

to Social Security" (Turner, J., 1986, p. 56). In 1942 the Beveridge Report was issued recommending an integrated social security system that would give 'cradle-to-grave' economic protection for its citizens. A year later the Marsh report was released in Canada establishing many of the guidelines for Canada's social welfare system that developed over the last half of the century.

The Birth of a Discipline

The modern-day discipline of social work, born during the Industrial Revolution, emerged out of these conflicting social welfare perspectives: social reform of the environment and provision of individualised personal social services. Although early leaders conceptualised social work from a broadbase incorporating both perspectives, a divisive dichotomy emerged with individual change on one side and social reform on the other.

Social work in the United Kingdom and Canada, as in other countries, has had difficulty in establishing a definition of itself as a professional discipline. Consider the conflicting and complicated mandate expressed in this recent statement of purpose:

> Social workers have to balance the needs, rights, responsibilities and resources of people with those of the wider community, and provide appropriate levels of support, care, protection and control. (Doherty, Pierce, & Smith, 1994, p. 3)

To be fully understood, this difficulty must be examined from a historical perspective in each country.

FROM THE LEADING EDGE TO THE MARGINS, OR THE MARGINS TO THE LEADING EDGE? SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION IN BRITAIN

The Charity Organisation Societies in England pioneered scientific methods of social casework with the belief in self-help and the notion that poverty was the result of personal failing (Fraser, 1984). From this diversity grew a variety of social work forms. The common feature was an increasing incorporation of social work as a "function of the state, reflected in the direct employment of social workers in local government agencies" (Hugman, 1991, p. 199). Social work was divided into child care, mental health, health and welfare, probation and hospitals. Each of these fields of social work had arrived at different stages of having control over their work, training requirements and criteria for employment. Since

the emergence of social work, there appeared to be a continuing debate about the nature and purposes of social work.

The classical conception of the Welfare State as it developed in Britain during and after the second world war centred on a set of state social services in income maintenance, health, education and housing (Webb & Wistow, 1987). The Beveridge Report (1942) stated government should grant family allowances, create a comprehensive health service and maintain full employment which would provide 'cradle-to-grave' benefits. The intent of these comprehensive social policies was protection against the five giants of Want, Disease, Ignorance, Squalor, and Idleness (Fraser, 1984). Services were no longer aimed at a minority group but were to be universally available.

At least eight groups of social workers could be identified, some with statutory authority to carry out their roles: psychiatric social workers; medical social workers; probation officers; child-care officers; mental-welfare officers; welfare officers; housing-welfare officers; and education-welfare officers. Of these, only the first four had professional standing. The types of training offered to each group varied as did the proportions of practitioners with professional qualifications. This resulted in a serious fragmentation of services and service delivery. The original dual focus gave way to a preoccupation with individuals and families as social workers espoused psychoanalytic theory as their theory of choice in the 1940s and 1950s (Smith, 1965). Social workers were lulled into complacency regarding social reform believing that the post-war reforms of the 1940s had eradicated poverty (Forder, 1974).

The Seebohm Committee was appointed in 1965 to "review the organisation and responsibilities of the local authority personal social services . . ." and it recommended the unification of the social work profession (Seebohm Report, 1968, p. 1). The outcome of the Seebohm Report was that by 1970 only probation work with offenders remained as a specialism under the separate auspices of the probation service. All other specialisms were now delivered through newly created Social Service Departments (SSDs) in the form of generic social work practice to provide a community-based service, available to all with the intent of replacing institutional care with support services designed to keep people in their communities (Walker, 1991). This generic base of community-based care contributed to the theme of a comprehensive continuum of services with access to specialised knowledge as a resource or on a consultancy basis.

A Profession in Search of an Identity: Finding the Common Base

The search for a common professional identity rested on structural reorganisation to bring the professional sub-groups together and required generic training to underlie the performance of all types of social work. It was believed that these changes commanded increased professionalism moving social work away from its vocational nature and reliance on untrained staff. The establishment of the Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work (CCETSW) in 1971 and the introduction of a single qualification in social work (CQSW) was considered a step towards professionalisation in that it ensured consistency in education and training standards. Thus, the Seebohm Committee became a general review of the future of social work and the need for an effective organisational structure.

> The vision was of a model of the personal social services based on a comprehensive system of services permitting a continuum of responses appropriate to varying degrees and types of need; preventive as well as crisis work; a universal rather than a residual approach such that stigmatisation would be minimised and access maximised; a community orientation which embraced the decentralisation of work and much decision-making to area teams and also a commitment to working with communities and to encouraging consumer participation; a generic base for social work practice which broke free from mere symptom-oriented specialisation and treatment. (Webb & Wistow, 1987, p. 57)

Methods of work were to include community work, advocacy and welfare-rights work, and social planning, as well as the traditional social casework. The move towards professionalisation and the expansion of training resulted in distinguishing unqualified social workers and aides from qualified colleagues. The former were predominantly found in residential and day-care settings, the latter were field social workers.

A major strand in the history of British social work has been the search for professional status and respect. In the mid-1930s, the British Federation of Social Workers was founded and began to press for professional unification but by the 1950s and 1960s unification was viewed as a problem of professional training and service structure, rather than stemming from differentiation of roles and tasks. The British Association of Social Workers superseded its forerunner in 1970 aiming to establish a social workers' register and by 1971, social work seemed to have "realised its most fundamental objective of establishing an organisational base in which it—and not medicine—was the dominant influence" (Webb & Wistow, 1987, p. 264). Critics of social work at that time characterise it both by professional arrogance and

a certain paralysis of indecision which gave rise to an anti-professional ethos. The goal of professionalisation was central to the social work upsurge of the 1960s and 1970s; a fully trained profession was central to that goal. Professional training became the cornerstone of professional recognition and the pressure for longer and more tightly packed training grew. Studies underlined the gap between expectations and skills derived from professional training and the tasks fulfilled by practising Social Service Department (SSD) social workers (Goldberg & Warburton, 1979; Stevenson & Parsloe, 1978).

Professionalism or Elitism?

In contrast to the argument for professionalisation, the 1960s and 1970s also saw a renewed interest in social and political action that was fuelled by a Marxist analysis of the role of social work (Forder, 1974). This was the beginning of a radical critique which attacked the class basis of the idea of professionalism (Bailey & Brake, 1975). The critique is related specifically to issues of organisation and professionalism. Simpkin (1979), for example, argued that social workers had deluded themselves in pursuit of autonomy centred on claims to the traits of more established professions. The vision anticipated by Seebohm did not materialise as it became increasingly unrealistic to expect every social worker to have the skills to meet all needs of all groups in society. Generic training and practice, albeit a lofty ideal, could not possibly incorporate the range of roles and tasks required in the provision of comprehensive personal social services and public welfare. "Limited public approval, partly reflecting a belief that social work does not work" (Webb & Wistow, 1987, p. 190), became widespread criticism of the profession, leading to a thorough review by Barclay (1982) of its roles, tasks and skills in the early 1980s.

The Barclay Report (1982) was written during a prevailing view that 'professionalism' creates "barriers between social workers and service users, and that to remove these would be beneficial" (Hugman, 1991, p. 205). It explicitly advocated the adoption of community social work as a necessary means for developing "a close working partnership with citizens focusing more closely on the community and its strengths" (Barclay, 1982, p. 198). The report argued that "social services departments need to discover and bring into play the potential self-help, volunteer help, community organisation, voluntary, and private facilities that exist" (Barclay, 1982, p. 198). In this regard, Barclay reaffirmed Seebohm who had advocated that the

community should define its own needs and then contribute to the services designed to meet them.

The Barclay Report (1982) acknowledged the inflexibility of overly hierarchical and centralised structures, the need for greater accessibility and the necessity of responding to the growth of social care as a primary function of SSDs. This report is another example of the many attempts to define the nature of social work in the UK and integrate the competing claims of specialisation versus localisation. Specialisation is grounded in a claim to distinct knowledge and skills and is based on concepts of counselling and advising (Stevenson, 1981). Localisation is grounded in concepts of liaising and networking in which knowledge of a small geographical area and the resources within it, take priority over individualised knowledge about causes of, and solutions to, social problems (Hugman, 1991).

In effect, Barclay attempted to bring together community work, social care and decentralised social planning in a new model of social work. The 'patch' based movement, derived from the Barclay Report, recognised that large and remote bureaucratic organisations can easily become oppressive and unresponsive to the needs of service users (Roys, 1990). The report sought a compromise position in its attempt to reformulate the relationship between organisation and professionalism through the management of a community care model. The vision of the 1980s was of social workers and consumers of service as partners in the provision of social care.

Back to the Future

The post-Barclay years have seen a re-emergence of specialist workers within the generic model. In many ways, statutory services have come full circle from specialism to genericism and back to specialism. It is not surprising that social work is still grappling with defining itself and its identity. The struggle to respond to social and economic conditions, as well as cope with disadvantaged, marginalised and oppressed groups, has demanded both the maintenance of social order and the promotion of a better quality of life. "Rooted in differing philosophies and beliefs, many interventions appear confused and contradictory as social workers attempt to combine surveillance, treatment, support and compulsion in a tangled web of care and control" (Walker, 1991, p. 195).

17

British Social Work Today: Reframing Professionalism

According to Jones and Novak (1993), social work in Britain has undergone a significant transformation over the last fifteen years. Under increasing attack from both the media and the 'new right,' social work has faced an increasing criticism challenging its legitimacy and sense of identity. Social workers have found themselves with fewer resources to meet the needs of more desperate client groups. In this context,

> legislative, administrative and financial changes have pushed social work into an increasingly antagonistic relationship with clients and have left it demoralized and without a clear sense of direction. While social workers feel and act like besieged gatekeepers to an inadequate and crumbling system of support, they have been pushed remorselessly towards practices of surveillance, monitoring and control. (Jones & Novak, 1993, pp. 195-6)

This has compelled agencies to develop even more elaborate procedures for regulating social workers in their dispersal of goods and services. It inevitably leads to a process whereby the liberal and humanitarian characteristics of social work are stripped away, leaving behind those authoritarian and controlling dimensions which have always been part of the underlying ideology of the provision of help in Britain.

The tightening of procedures and guidelines, which determine clients' access to resources, simultaneously deprofessionalises social workers. Their autonomy and influence has become severely curtailed and regulated, changing the status of the social worker from a semi-autonomous professional to state technician. This process of deprofessionalisation can be seen in the new forms of education and training that have been introduced in recent years (Jones, 1989). According to many employers who were critical of social work education and training, the courses "make them difficult employees more concerned to change the system than to get on with the job" (CCETSW, 1975, p. 39). The new Diploma in Social Work and proposals for the reorganisation of post-qualifying training pass power firmly into the hands of employers and managers. The input of social sciences, liberal arts and the humanities is now limited to its direct applicability to social work practice. Even where a more liberal interpretation of this constraint is attempted, it is found that the increased prescription of the content of training along the lines of specific competencies that must be achieved leaves little or no room for its development (Jones & Novak, 1993). The fight for professional autonomy offering a vision of social work which is committed to social justice, equality and social

18

democracy appears to be losing ground to the growth of social work as an occupation with restricted roles and strictly defined tasks within a mixed economy of welfare.

Social Work in a Mixed Economy

It is important to understand the concept of a 'mixed economy' of welfare meaning that social service provision resides in informal, private (market place), voluntary, and statutory (SSDs) arenas. The minister responsible for exercising policy is the Secretary of State for Social Services, and the Department of Health and Social Security (DHSS) is the responsible central government department in England. Its remit includes three fields of social service provision along two organisational lines: social security and health and personal social services. The National Health Service is responsible for health and the local authorities' Social Services Departments look after personal social services. These include residential, day and domiciliary care, and field social work. The three basic functions are social control, the promotion of change and social maintenance.

The United Kingdom is comprised of Great Britain (England, Scotland and Wales) and Northern Ireland. In England and Wales, most social workers are employed by local authorities, usually in their SSDs, which have wide-ranging responsibilities regarding people who are aged, physically or mentally handicapped, sick or mentally ill, and children and young persons. Those working with clients in their own homes are normally based in area offices. The area team may include a field social worker, community worker, a home-help organiser, social work aides and some voluntary workers. SSD social workers are also deployed in day centres and residential facilities, hospitals and health centres and with Local Authority Education Departments. Social workers are also employed as Probation Officers by the National Probation Service. Voluntary organisations employ social workers across the complete range of client groups and work settings. Private organisations are growing rapidly although still comprise a very small number of social work posts.

In Scotland, most social workers are employed by the regional authorities in their social work departments which have wide ranging powers to 'promote social welfare.' This includes probation as there is no separate probation service in Scotland. There are many similarities between social work practice in Scotland and England/Wales, but there are differences in the legal system, legislation, and procedures for juvenile justice. Voluntary organisations are

19

strong in Scotland and employ many social workers. In contrast, the private sector is relatively underdeveloped. In Northern Ireland, most social workers are employed by Health and Social Services Boards. They carry a similar range of duties to social workers in SSDs in England and Wales as do the probation officers. Social workers are also employed in voluntary and private organisations.

Social Work's Remit

Throughout the UK, social work is separate from social security. While most functions carried by social workers are clearly distinguishable from those of nursing and other professions ancillary to medicine, there are overlaps. For example, both social workers and nurses are employed in day and residential services for people who are aged, ill or handicapped, often without their respective roles and functions being clarified. There is also a degree of overlap with occupational therapists. Although social workers work with young people, there are also youth workers. Similarly, social workers often do community work but 'Youth and Community Work' is identified as a distinct profession with its own education and training requirements.

Membership in the British Association of Social Workers (BASW) is not restricted to qualified social workers but is open to social workers throughout the UK who hold the DipSW, CQSW, CSS or are employed in social work posts. Membership of the National Association of Probation Officers is restricted to probation officers who must be qualified social workers, although there appears to be a move towards lifting this requirement. There is no overall system for regulating or licensing social workers in the UK except through qualification to practice and title is not restricted. Some categories of social workers are regulated by legislation, such as probation officers in England and Wales, field social workers in Scotland and Northern Ireland, and those social workers carrying out specified mental health duties.

Most recent changes to the nature and the practice of social work in the UK can best be described by examining the community care model. This model, which is explicated in the Community Care White Paper, *Caring for People* (Department of Health, 1989), involves the development of devolved budgets through which social workers individually negotiate packages of care with service users, informal and volunteer carers and a variety of statutory services (Challis & Davies, 1986). Case management has been developed during a period in

which the welfare state as a whole has been subject to a major political debate guided by the ideology of free market economics. The costs of sustaining the welfare state have created a financial instability in capitalism. The politics of the 'new right' have embraced critical ideas about the increasing cost of welfare and advocate the restructuring of welfare along free market lines (Hugman, 1991).

Fraser (1984) describes the 'welfare state' as a system of social organisation which restricts free market operations in three principal ways: by the designation of certain groups whose rights are guaranteed and whose welfare is protected by the community; by the delivery of services such as education or medical care, so that no citizen shall be deprived access to them; and by transfer payments which maintain income in times of exceptional need. From a capitalistic perspective, welfare measures are seen as serving the economic interests of a modernising society by bearing the social costs of industrialisation and by promoting a social organisation geared to the needs of business. The democratic perspective views social welfare as a response to democratic consumer demand. The conspiratorial perspective views welfare as one of the means by which order and authority are preserved, social revolution avoided and political stability is maintained. Thus, it is possible for the same social policy to be regarded as a benevolent reform, a solution to practical problems, an effective bureaucratic expedient, in conformity with prevailing ideas, a prop to the existing social and political system, an asset to industry, and a legitimate popular demand (Fraser, 1984).

The New Face of Social Work in the United Kingdom

The Community Care White Paper, *Caring for People* (Department of Health, 1989) expects local authorities to make maximum use of the independent sector. Case managers take on the roles of advocate and their assessments are part of the process of identifying clients' needs but the emphasis is on the efficient allocation of resources rather than on client advocacy (Alaszewski & Manthorpe, 1990, p. 249). The new legislation will alter the role of social workers:

> Not only will social work be split between service purchasers (case managers) and service providers (residential and day care workers) but the activities will come under greater scrutiny. Case managers will have increased flexibility to manage packages of resources but they will have to account for their use of resources. In theory they will be advocates for clients . . . but in practice as gatekeepers they will experience increasing accountability to management.

21

A major feature of the privatisation process is the reduction of costs which is often accomplished by an increase in part-time work and segregation in employment (Hugman, 1991). Of growing concern is that segregation between hierarchical levels and between types of work have clear features of sexism and racism (Stubbs, 1985). Not only is gender a key feature of management/practice divisions, but also between areas of work defined in terms of client need (Howe, 1986) or of a distinction between virtuoso skill and general caring (Davies, 1985).

According to Dominelli (1988), racism has gone unrecognised precisely because managers, practitioners and academics are white and have failed to recognise the ethnocentricity and institutional racism in their concepts of professionalism and in the patterns of organisation that have been established to deliver social work. For example, white ethnocentric concepts are incorporated within professional practices in a way that projects pathology on to black cultures (Stubbs, 1987). In terms of employment, black social workers, who are usually unqualified, tend to be recruited to specially funded posts as specialists in work with black people, which creates marginal black services (Stubbs, 1985).

As the 1990s move toward the possibilities of privatised forms of practice and a more residual role for local government departments as contractors and monitors, the logic for a regulatory social work body has attracted a wide group (Hugman, 1991). In the 1970s and 1980s, with the growth of an anti-professional ethos reflected in widespread trade union action, and with most social workers employed in single large departments, there was little pressure to form a council (Hugman, 1991), consequently, it has taken until 1992 for a proposal to establish a General Social Services Council to be seriously considered. The Council would set standards of practice and conduct in that it would require all workers to be registered, whether or not they have formal qualifications, by creating a four-tiered registry system providing for unqualified or inexperienced care staff as well as highly trained professionals (Cervi, 1992). It would also serve to unite training standards and practice standards which have never been unified in social work or in school teaching, the only major welfare professions which have not developed occupational control through councils and registers (Hugman, 1991).

The benefits for social workers now in the backing of a collective approach to defining practices and setting standards is balanced by the interests employers have in relating to social

work as a single entity. "Only the trade unions are opposed to the creation of a council to regulate entry and exert collective discipline over members" (Hugman, 1991, p. 213). They want to hold onto to their power by continuing to stress the status of social workers as employees and the commonality they have with staff who would not be covered by such a body.

In an occupation which relies on interpersonal relationships rather than the provision of concrete goods and services, the discrediting of social work has entailed attacking social workers themselves as well as discrediting important aspects of social work's practice and theory. This attack has become part of the process of restructuring social work and the imposition of new limits on the profession's active resistance to the restructuring of the welfare state.

> Things are going wrong in social services. I am not discussing a local problem or a wrangle with a proposed change. Nor am I talking about some slight political change soon to hit the fan. I am talking about a significant change in the morality, organisation, security and ability of departments to help people. (Oppenhiem, 1987, p. 10)

Jones (1993) suggests that very similar processes of de-intellectualisation and de-professionalisation have been evident across the spectrum of human services and occupations. But unlike doctors and teachers, social workers have not been able to organise a counterattack as demoralisation and exhaustion predominate (Jones & Novak, 1993). The 'radical right', the media and the conservative government have seized upon state social work as a metaphor for all that is wrong with the British welfare system and have systematically transformed social work from a professional activity informed by the social sciences to a technical occupation in which social workers are governed by agency practice demands, line managers instructions and tick-box procedures (Midgley & Jones, 1994). The impact of 15 years of Thatcher-style conservatism on the education and training of social workers will be discussed in a later section of this chapter. Let us now turn to the Canadian context.

IN SEARCH OF A CANADIAN IDENTITY: TRACING THE HISTORY OF SOCIAL WORK IN CANADA

Before the turn of the twentieth century, social work in North America was characterised by a disparate range of voluntary philanthropy in the form of charity organisation societies, settlement houses, social reform movements and women's liberation advocacy (Ramsay, 1984;

Turner & Turner, 1986; Wharf, 1992; Yelaja, 1985). Collectively, all forms of social philanthropy represented a dual purpose and dichotomised approaches to problems of social functioning characterized by C. Wright Mills as "the private troubles of milieu" and the "public issues of social structure" (1959, p. 8).

Charity organisations in North America, with strong leadership from Mary Richmond, focused on assistance to individuals and families. The helping philosophy of these volunteer-based services was directed toward individuals rather than toward the social conditions that affected them. Settlement house and reform work, supported by Jane Addams (derived from her links with to the British settlement house movement) and other pioneer champions of social justice, focused on social environmental changes. These social reform and women's liberation volunteers were community activists out to improve the social well-being of those deprived or discriminated against because of gender difference or visible minority status.

The modern-day discipline of social work in Canada emerged out of the conflicting social welfare perspectives concerning social reform of the environment and provision of individualised personal social services. In addition, influences emanating from south of the border, across the ocean, and French/Francophone perspectives all contributed to the evolution of social work in Canada. Thus, practice developments in Canada should be understood in their international and historical contexts (Ramsay, 1984). Unlike the United States, the settlement house and charity organisation movements were less a factor in the development of social work in Canada. Humanitarian groups in Quebec in the mid-18th century established centres for the relief of the poor, evidence of a growing social responsibility toward the 'worthy' poor (Turner, 1986).

When the British North America Act was passed in 1867, responsibility for social welfare was given to the provinces. But welfare was not seen as a major function of governments, and municipalities were obliged to look after the poor. This view persisted until well into the Great Depression of the 1930s. In Canada social reforms in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century were spearheaded by the urban reform movement, the social gospel movement and some crusading journalists (Guest, 1980; Wharf, 1991).

Who's Who in Canadian Social Work History

According to Guest (1980, p. 29), the pioneering work in 1896 of wealthy businessman Herbert Ames "helped Canadians redefine the causes of poverty by demonstrating that the problem was largely rooted in economic and social arrangements." The crusading journalist, J.J. Kelso, campaigned for legislation to protect children and became the first president of the Toronto Children's Aid Society in 1891 (Wharf, 1991). J.S. Woodsworth, a Methodist minister, became the secretary of the Canadian Welfare League and organized the first university-based training program in social work in 1915 (McInnis, 1953). These men and other early social reformers such as Nellie McClung and Agnes MacPhail who fought for the rights of women, were identified as social workers. As a result of their efforts, state or state-supported agencies were developed to protect children and assist the poor. However, the staff in these agencies were prohibited from engaging in reform activities and, in a very real sense, these constraints have continued to the present day (Wharf, 1991). Nevertheless, a handful of Canadian social workers like Charlotte Whitton, Harry Cassidy and Leonard Marsh, carried on the reform tradition and were the architects of much of the existing social security system in Canada.

From their earliest beginnings in Canada, French settlers brought a tradition wherein assistance to the needy was provided by the Church and/or family. This approach differed radically from the English traditions, whose orientation stemmed from the Elizabethan Poor Laws whereby the State was recognised as the primary provider of relief for the indigent or disadvantaged members of society (Yelaja, 1985). By the late 1800s, a large number of voluntary philanthropic organisations had been established in Canada and some major pieces of social policy legislation had been enacted (Yelaja, 1985). The country's historical links to Great Britain did have an influence on Canada's pioneer social work educators and social policy leaders. In the early years, training for work in the charitable organisations or for the implementation of the governmental policies was carried out in a way similar to that described for the voluntary organisations in Britain. It was in the form of apprenticeships and on-the-job training designed to prepare the worker for a specific, permanent position in an agency (Lubove, 1965).

The Great Debate: Is Social Work a Profession?

The history of professional development in the United States and Canada was profoundly affected by Abraham Flexner when, in 1915, he concluded that social work met only some of the traits of a profession, thus failing to qualify as an 'established profession' (Austin, 1983). Although Flexner was not a social worker, he was America's most influential expert on professional education as he had chaired a highly critical study of medical education in Canada and the United States. He developed a set of classic statements of sociological traits to define a profession. With respect to social work, Flexner (1915) was critical that the social welfare domain was too broad to be addressed by one professional body. His analysis concluded that social work lacked an exclusive knowledge base and did not have a scientific method to address the complexity of social welfare issues.

Richmond's much heralded 1917 publication of *Social Diagnosis* identified social casework, with a heavy emphasis on investigative fact-finding, as social work's teachable scientific method. This publication supplied the young profession with its first authoritative answer to Flexner's criticism and it narrowed the profession's 'person-in-his-environment' domain to a focus on individual functioning and a clinical model of treatment. Casework emerged as the professional technique that could be taught in formalised social work education settings and it was seen as the only route to legitimising social work as a profession. The individualised focus of social casework became the dominant approach in a profession that had, early in its development, championed the need for both individual and social change. Advocates of personal change modalities became the ruling majority and supporters of social reform approaches were left as a struggling minority. This led to the fragmentation of social work and the development of specialisations similar to the British experience. The result was a preoccupation with the search for professional recognition that obsessed the profession for more than the first half of the century.

Casework specialties quickly emerged and by the 1920s there were several clinically oriented fields of practice: child welfare, family, psychiatric, medical, and school social work. Despite the fact that the social casework method dominated fields of practice early in our history, the need for a common communicable technique was not overlooked. The Milford Conference of 1925 addressed the question, "What is generic social casework?" (AASW, 1929, p. 7). The report stressed that,

> . . . research of the social case worker should go beyond discussing of data
> and principles . . . to throw light upon deep-seated factors in social life which
> lead to difficulties of adjustment between the individual and his social
> environment. (AASW, 1929, p. 42)

Up to the 1950s social work had been evolving as a profession based on its efforts to adhere to the method approach of scientific disciplines. In the 1930s, Bertha Reynolds (1942) saw social work in a 'between client and community context' while Hamilton (1940) defined 'person-in-situation,' and Perlman (1957), Boehm (1959), and others advocated the 'person-in-environment' domain of social work. This orientation required social workers to have a broadbased, comprehensive understanding of their profession before becoming committed to a specific, specialised practice method.

Unifying Theories for a Unified Profession

New models for defining professions emerged in the 1950s and 1960s, revising Flexner's trait model, were used by social workers to defend their claim that social work was a legitimate profession (Greenwood, 1957; Popple, 1985). In 1980, Leighninger (1980, p. 10) warned that, "Without the development of a core professional identity based on a combination of a common approach to problem analysis, a recognized heritage and a shared repertoire of basic skills, social work will be unable to achieve or maintain its unique position as a profession." Unifying theories (Bartlett, 1970) relied primarily on models derived from general systems (Pincus & Minahan, 1973) and ecological systems perspectives (Germain & Gitterman, 1980).

These various influences have impacted social work in Canada in different ways. For example, the practice methods of Canadian social work have generally been dominated by American developments. With regard to education, the first school of social work in Canada at the University of Toronto developed a curriculum that tried to balance within the Canadian context, the theoretical British focus on a "solid foundation of the theory of social work and social organisation" and the pragmatic American approach to "the study of local problems, legislation, and social work methodology" (Hurl, 1983, pp. 4-5). In terms of social policy, social insurance programs were introduced in Canada as early as 1927. Regarding professional organisation, Canadian social workers did not experience the same kind of specialisation differentiation in their professional association developments as did the Americans. The United States did not have a single integrated professional association until the amalgamation of seven separate groups into the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) in 1955. A single national association, the Canadian Association of Social Workers

(CASW), was founded in 1926 and operated with a network of chapters until 1975 when it was reorganised into a federated structure with provincial associations (Gowanlock, 1984). By the end of the 1960s, almost all provinces had enacted self-regulatory legislation for social workers. In all cases, the legislation provides for voluntary registration rather than the sought-after mandatory registration similar to that of the fully self-regulated professions of law and medicine.

Canadian Brand Social Work

Out of these developments, "Canadian social workers adapted American-based social work methods within a social policy and social program environment vastly different from their American neighbours" (Ramsay, 1984, p. 12). Because of these multiple influences, the social welfare structure of Canada is a mosaic of laws, services, institutions, programs and settings that provide various kinds of benefits to individuals, families, groups and communities (Turner, 1986). However, in recent years the provincial and federal governments have sought to cut back on social welfare programs in order to reduce provincial and federal debts. While not expressed in the same forthright way as in the UK where Thatcherism viewed "social and health programs as problems to be eliminated, the social policy agenda in Canada is directed toward reducing health and social programs" (Wharf, 1991, p. 21). The cutbacks and dismantling of the social safety net and universal social programmes have served to widen the gap between the haves and the have-nots and increase demands on an already overworked social service delivery system. However, there has not been an attack against the profession of social work like that in the UK and consequently the education of social workers has not undergone anything similar to the changes in the UK.

Some Common Understandings

To recap this discussion of the professional identity of social work, we appear to be operating on similar understandings at one level, that is, what social work is, but on different understandings regarding what social work does. Social work in both the UK and Canada is concerned with individuals' and groups' capacities to function and with the institutions and processes that facilitate and inhibit those capacities. Thus its knowledge base, definitions of value priorities and practice orientation are inherently susceptible to shifts in dominant ideologies (Henkel, 1994). Ambiguity between the functions of social control and personal growth, between social care and individual self-determination, and between a focus on private

28

troubles and public issues is at the core of its identity. The challenge for social work is in balancing the needs and wants of individual members of a society with the resources and structures available, to negotiate between government and citizen, individual and family, service provider and service user and on behalf of the most vulnerable, marginalised groups. However, social workers' expertise, authority and capacity to manage these ambiguities and negotiations varies between the two countries because of the differences in the systems in which they practice, the recognition they are accorded and the education they receive. The education of social worker in both countries is the focus of the next section.

EDUCATING SOCIAL WORKERS: SEARCHING FOR CURRICULA

There is no generally agreed-upon moment in time when social work suddenly entered the modern world as a profession (Yelaja, 1985). The hiring of paid 'secretaries' in 1840 to train volunteers for work in the British charitable organisations might be considered as the beginning of social work as a profession rather than a vocation (Smith, 1965). These early training programs recognised that specific techniques and skills along with theoretical knowledge needed to be taught and that to deliver services to the needy required more than simply a desire to 'do good.' A parallel shift in the location of social work education from agency-based training to the universities took place almost simultaneously in Britain, Canada and the United States (1912, 1914 and 1916, respectively). "As the charitable organisations themselves began to shift from a voluntary approach to the delivery of the philanthropic services to a more scientific view of the human services, the emphasis on the type and kind of professional education itself changed" (Yelaja, 1985, p. 18). Professional social work education was developed as an alternative to apprenticeship programs, and to move social work from vocational to professional status (Murty & Lacerte, 1989).

A CLOSE ENCOUNTER WITH GOVERNMENT

Preparing Social Workers British Style: Education AND Training

The growth of the social sciences in the latter half of the twentieth century saw an expansion in the subject areas put forward for inclusion in the social work curriculum (Secker, 1991). The resulting pressure on the curriculum created a dilemma and ongoing debate regarding what is the core of social work (Haines, 1975; Younghusband, 1978). This problem of

29

inclusivity was furthered by the arguments for 'injections of positivism' to improve the scientific rigour in the field (Sheldon, 1978) countered with arguments that the humanistic nature, the 'art' of social work practice, necessitates recognition of traditions of thought other than the scientific, positivistic tradition. The lack of consensus about the role and purpose of social work and the requisite knowledge and skills for practice has permeated the definition of educational objectives.

In 1977, an apprenticeship model of social work education was advocated as a solution to the criticism that "social work as it is practised in social services departments, and social work as it is learned in colleges . . . bear little relationship to one another" (Payne, 1977, p. 8). Payne reviews the criticisms of social work education that content and teaching methods do not prepare students for work in Social Service Departments (SSDs). He believes the attitude of college staff is hostile to SSDs, that the basics are treated with less importance than idealistic theoretical models bearing little relation to reality. Payne's perspective on the widening of the rift between practice and education are that faculty tended to be from pre-Seebohm specialisations and they continued to teach what they knew because they were uncertain of generalist knowledge. With the virtual elimination of specialisations in social work and the emergence of SSDs, a lot of inexperienced people got over-promoted and they found they had to do their own training for staff. This training was focused on getting the job done rather than critically examining practice. Academics lost status and an anti-intellectual attitude was prevalent in practice because they were not teaching what was relevant to the job of social work in SSDs. Training on the job through the development of training departments within SSDs became a preferred route, following the industrial apprenticeship model, as departments were then assured that staff was trained to do 'the job.'

A Course in Search of Content

If the purpose of social work education is to develop and enhance individual attributes demonstrated by warmth, genuineness and empathy, then attention would be focused on the selection of appropriate students. Richards (1978, p. 13) suggests,

> how the applicant communicates, what is motivating him to come into social work, . . . his warmth and genuineness, what personal difficulties he has encountered and survived, are more important factors to . . . his helping capacity, than decisions about what he is going to be taught.

It may be interesting to convince the academic board of a college or university that having a 'splendid personality' is more important than previous academic achievement; however,

if the purpose of social work education is to develop competence to practice demonstrated by client outcomes, then attention must be given to how employers want their staff (social workers) to perform.

Two arguments used against social work education in 1977, that generic courses are inappropriate and the belief that the ability to help is "caught not taught," were seen as attempts by social service directors to "turn the screw on social work courses" as they wanted "neatly packaged social workers trained to follow agency rules without question" (Shaw & Walton, 1986, p. 34). Parsloe (1982, p. 20) suggested that "social service workers need to be both educated and trained for the job," but training alone will be useless unless organisational structures and supervision are provided to make such work possible. She suggests managers are in desperate need of post-qualifying training as it seems that "social work managers had lost the social work part in the promotion process" (Parsloe, 1982, p. 21).

'Edu-training': Aiming to Please All

Harris (1983) argues that the distinction between training and education needs to be made more clear in order to resolve the issue of interpreting and operationalising CCETSW's requirement for transfer of learning. Payne (1990) believes that attempts to resolve theory/practice issues cannot be made by institutional means. To allow employers greater influence over education does not remove fundamental differences between important traditions in social work ideas. Whether and how theory links with practice has been a matter of concern and debate to educationalists, managers and practitioners in social work. These concerns are not wholly about theory and practice relationships but about a wider struggle for influence over definitions of the nature of social work (Payne, 1990), that is, is it a vocation requiring job-specific technical training or is it a profession requiring education based on core values and a body of knowledge (Siegrist, 1994) for a whole range of possible practice applications. Sheldon (1978), for example, has suggested two subcultures exist, a theoretical subculture based in academia and an anti-intellectual subculture based in practice. The preoccupation with this struggle resulted in numerous studies to ascertain whether social workers use theory in practice (e.g., Carew, 1979; Curnock & Hardiker, 1979; Stevenson & Parsloe, 1978; Waterhouse, 1987) and the kinds of knowledge they use (Barbour, 1984; Evans, 1976; Paley, 1984, 1987). This discussion of the theory practice debate will be furthered in the next chapter as it relates to practice learning and practice teaching.

31

Suffice it to say, there seems to be some uncertainty about whether social work in Britain is a profession or if social workers are nothing more than public servants who can be trained for this as a vocation. Possibly due to government interventionism, social work in the UK has a particularly marginal status when compared to North America and other European countries. Henkel (1994, p. 101) suggests there are three reasons social work in the UK is marginal profession:

> . . . the almost wholesale integration of social work into larger state welfare delivery systems; the inability to resolve problems of differentiation; and the failure to establish a clear rationale or a rigorous intellectual base for the profession.

This is evidenced in many ways but most notably in the vacillation, indecision and government interference over whether social workers need to be *educated* or *trained*. The concomitant issues regarding who does this 'edu-training' (a term I coined to reflect my observations of British social work education), what is included in it, and what are the desirable outcomes can be traced in the Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work's (CCETSW) efforts over the past 20 years to respond with various new course requirements depending on where they happen to fall on the continuum between education in preparation for the social work profession and training for a social work job. One end of the continuum is exemplified by comments recently made by a Training Officer in a Social Service Department who said, "I don't care what they *know* so long as they can get the job done" (personal communication, 1991 November); and, "The course is way too deep for what they actually need to do around here" (personal communication, 1992 March). The other end of the curriculum is represented by a comment from a social work course tutor who stated, "Training practice teachers will not compensate for the brevity and inadequacy of DipSW Programmes to properly educate social workers" (personal communication, 1992, March).

The Governance of Social Work Education

CCETSW was established by an Act of Parliament in 1971 and has the statutory authority to regulate, approve and fund social work courses and related education and training for work in the personal social services throughout the United Kingdom. It is a non-departmental public body established by statute to operate at arm's length from the Department of Health, an arrangement which gives scope for wide variations of involvement and control on the part of central government (Greenwood & Wilson, 1989). The Council comprises 25 members appointed by Ministers on behalf of Government but conducts most of its work through

committees. For example, the Black Perspectives Committee advises Council on anti-racist policies and practices. There are 50 Social Work Education Advisors attached to seven regional offices and the central office is in London.

CCETSW, since its inception, has attempted to address issues and concerns related to social work education and training through research, consultation and changes to requirements. Starting from its functions as described in legislation, CCETSW has taken as its area of responsibility the provision of training for field and residential staff in the personal social services and from 1974, for domiciliary and day services staff. In practice, this has come to mean staff from these sectors in local authority social service/social work departments and corresponding providers of service in the voluntary sector, probation officers and some staff from the education service, notably education welfare officers and care staff from residential schools. This has resulted in attempts to install a framework for progressive qualification that would address the low level of training in the workforce, particularly residential care and provide an adequate level of post-qualifying education. Bids to introduce levels of qualifications were objected to on the grounds of elitism and inequality.

There are presently three recognised basic professional qualifications in social work in the UK, all awarded by CCETSW: the Certificate of Qualification in Social Work (CQSW); the Certificate in Social Service (CSS); and the Diploma in Social Work (DipSW). The CQSW was introduced in 1971 as the one generic qualification in social work replacing the previous specialist qualifications. In 1974, CCETSW approved the Certificate in Social Service (CSS) as a recognised qualification in social work for existing unqualified staff in the personal social services, and training schemes rapidly grew throughout the United Kingdom. CSS training was designed to meet the overwhelming need for trained staff in the statutory social services, residential settings and community care. In particular, it was developed as a means of recruiting to training ethnic and other minority groups (Young, 1984). Agencies now were able to participate formally and directly in the planning and management of qualifying training and colleges of further education and could build upon their experience in providing in-service training (CCETSW, 1983).

The dichotomy of the CQSW qualification for field and probation services and the CSS qualification for residential services was never intended but predictable with the latter employing so may unqualified staff with little demand for pre-entry training. What began in

1984 (see CCETSW, Durham Papers, 1984) with a desire to contribute to a unified system of training in social work, resulted in 1989 with the creation of a single qualification in social work, the Diploma in Social Work (DipSW) and the phasing out of the separate qualifications of CQSW and CSS. One of the issues under debate is about the extent to which merging the CSS and CQSW will inevitably dilute the academic level of the qualifications and, therefore, the intellectual and professional status of social work (Kerr, 1988).

A further concern for CCETSW is the uncertainty both about the rights of UK trained social workers to practise in continental Europe and about their competency to do so. The definition of a profession formulated in the European Community Directive of 1989 stipulated a minimum period of three years training among other modes of regulations (Barr, 1990). There is an emerging literature and research agenda comparing educational outcomes, requisite knowledge and skill, and linking arrangements between British and European social work courses (Bradley & Harris, 1993; Cornwell, 1994; Lyons, 1989; Shardlow & Shardlow, 1994). The pressure to meet a European standard is yet another point of tension facing CCETSW and social work educationalists.

The DipSW is located in the wider arena of training for national vocational and professional qualifications resulting in a progressive framework of education and training in social work and social care (see Paper 31, CCETSW, 1990a). The new DipSW programmes (see Paper 30, CCETSW, 1991b) which last for a minimum of two years are planned and run by partnerships or consortium of colleges and agencies working together as 'Programme Providers.' The movement is towards partnership and collaboration with greater emphasis being placed on the importance of practice-based knowledge and experience. The partnership operates in many different ways: in planning DipSW programmes; in selecting candidates for programmes; and, in joint teaching on DipSW and Practice Teachers Programmes. Courses can take a variety of patterns designed for both new entrants and existing staff. Innovations including modular patterns and open learning are being encouraged as long as the rules and requirements as specified by CCETSW are followed. Qualifications may be available to people who have not received formal training but whose prior experiences and learning have enabled them to demonstrate competence at the required level. The DipSW will signify that a student has attained a national standard.

A wide variety of routes to qualification is being offered and caters to the needs of different types of students—graduates, undergraduates, non-graduates and those already employed with no differentiation of qualifications on any of the above bases. Access and opportunity are being increased by distance learning, provision for the accreditation of prior learning and the accumulation and transfer of credits (Storan, 1991). So while social work education in the UK has a long history of being associated with universities, this has not resulted in the establishment of social work as a graduate profession as it has in North America. There appears to be little distinction between the role of the universities, old and new, or colleges and institutes of higher education and colleges of further education, which perpetuates the view that the role of educational institutions only marginally impinges on the practical component of the training (Henkel, 1994).

DipSW programmes provide students with the opportunity to apply their core social work skills in a particular work setting requiring each student to undergo a placement of at least 80 days in an area of particular practice during the second year of their course. This area of particular practice competence is noted on a statement issued along with the DipSW. It must be noted, however, at the time of writing that the 'Firm Draft' reviewing the DipSW has recommended removing this requirement in favour of "general and particular pathways" giving students a choice (Doherty, Pierce, & Smith, 1994).

Focus on Practice Learning: Bridging the Gap

A proposal by CCETSW to extend training to three years was rejected by government in 1988 presumably due to the costs. Instead the government provided money to improve practice learning. Current developments in social work education thus highlight the importance of practice teaching as a skilled and essential area of work. The development of the Practice Teaching Award and the accreditation of practice teachers is located within this framework. In recent years, the term 'Student Supervisor' has tended to be replaced by the term 'Practice Teacher' (Shardlow & Doel, 1992). Thompson, Osada, and Anderson (1990) suggest this represents not simply a changing fashion of terminology but rather a more radical change in our understanding of what the role entails, viewing it as a teaching role rather than a predominantly supervisory one. The majority of recent writing refers to practice teaching rather than student supervision with some notable exceptions (Gardiner, 1989). Thus, the role of the practice teacher in the new DipSW programmes is a significant and critical one. As

well as practice teaching, practice teachers can make a valuable contribution to the operation of the course by interviewing students being selected for DipSW programmes, and by being members of practice assessment panels which make decisions about whether students pass or fail.

To address concerns about the quantity and quality of practice learning opportunities, CCETSW introduced a new system for the training, assessment and accreditation of practice teachers, and the approval of agencies (CCETSW, Paper 26.3, 1989b). CCETSW intends to set a date by which all students' practice must be supervised by accredited practice teachers and all placements will be undertaken in agencies which have been approved for practice teaching. CCETSW also stipulates that all practice learning must take place in an environment where there is clear staff commitment to enabling students to develop ethnically sensitive practice and to preparing them to combat institutional and other forms of racism. A more thorough discussion of the implications of CCETSW's requirements on practice teaching is provided in the next chapter.

The new qualification, the Diploma in Social Work, is another attempt to try to find its place on the vocation/profession continuum. In summary, it requires that courses are offered by a consortium of agencies and colleges who work together in partnership, that agencies seek approval to provide placements for social work students, and that practice teachers become accredited for the position through CCETSW-approved courses leading to a post-qualifying award. CCETSW believes this will go a long way towards mending the hostility and tension between practitioners and academics, and between social service departments and educational institutions.

Those supporting this move believe that practitioners and managers will perceive these new arrangements as moving closer to training them to do the job, which according to them, is a much needed move. The academics believe the new arrangements will develop and intellectualise all practitioners, moving them towards professionalism. The rift itself is still not being addressed and perhaps cannot be until government control is curtailed and the movement away from the world of higher education is reversed. The political context has created an ethos critical of the social science, liberal arts foundation of social work education that 'corrupts the minds of social workers' (Jones, 1993). Employing agencies contributed

to this attack on social work education complaining that 'difficult employees' were being produced. Courses were accused of imparting to the students,

> a view that they were autonomous professionals with rights (even obligations) to speak out on behalf of their clients and to be critical of agency policy and procedure where it undermined the clients and to be critical of agency policy and procedure where it undermined the client's welfare. (Midgley & Jones, 1994, p. 120)

What was wanted were competent, pliant technicists, not troublesome, liberal-thinking activists.

The Definition of a 'Good' Social Worker

In all probability, the definition of a good social worker and the training that produces her/him will "pass out of the hands of the traditional teacher and into the hands of those whose experience lies outside education and inside the management of welfare bureaucracies" (Howe, 1990-91, p. 45). According to Howe, whoever controls the content of practice determines the type of knowledge a social worker should know, which determines how the social worker should be trained. He feels that the managers are coming out on top over the consumer/client and the professional expert.

> CCETSW's insistence that training programmes develop their courses in partnership with employers provides managers with a direct opportunity to influence the content of practice. On the surface this appears a good thing . . . but it does produce only one version of a social worker. The manager attempts to make the organisation's environment regular, predictable and standardised so that responses can be routinised, programmed and prescribed. The professionally orientated social worker is a potentially awkward employee . . . an independent, free-thinking social worker produces unpredictable demands on the organisation and is therefore a liability. The social workers [from the manager's perspective] are not required to be technologically sophisticated or client-centred. They should be trained to read procedure manuals and follow check lists, deploy resources . . . become skilled functionaries rather than expert professionals. (Howe, 1990-91, pp. 48-49)

On the other hand, Hindmarsh's (1992) study found that graduates of qualifying courses had constructs of 'good' social work that differed from that which was proffered in the agencies and this construct incorporated the ideas that they ought to change agency situations and challenge the conservative views and practices of colleagues.

The hope was that the new qualification would mend the 'town versus gown' hostility, but it is with foreboding that we should regard these partnership arrangements. How much influence should employers exert over curriculum? How accountable can the agencies be over delivering the quantity and quality of placements and providing accredited practice teachers? What happens to the course if the agency decides to pull out of the partnership? What is the incentive for higher education institutions to stay in the business of educating social workers? Consider the time and effort spent on collaboration, for college staff and agency personnel to negotiate, plan and provide a course; select, supervise and assess students; provide required documentation to CCETSW and external assessors on each student; and provide data and evidence to CCETSW on the course regarding such issues as numbers of black students, black practice teachers and evidence of equal opportunities and anti-racism policies in all agencies. It is all of these issues that led Robert Harris to say of CCETSW:

> . . . it has survived and grown as a unique experiment in the centralised bureaucratic control of social work education. No other country has an analogous body and if we were beginning today it is inconceivable that we should "invent" a CCETSW. (1990, p. 151)

And for Chris Jones to comment:

> We also confront in CCETSW a paradoxical agency which on the one hand has yielded to pressure from black communities to incorporate anti-racist perspectives but at the very same time has yielded to employer pressure for a social work qualification (DipSW) which has been intellectually gutted to conform to their demand for a bureaucratically compliant workforce. (1993, p. 15)

Competence: The Buzz Word of the Nineties

The concept of competence is of central importance in social work education policy. The new approaches in social work education are moving the focus away from the *content* of training and emphasising the *outcomes* of training. The key is the demonstrated competence of the student at the end of the course. As an organising principle in the successful attainment of the DipSW, it signifies an alignment with the National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) framework based on workplace criteria crossing the boundaries aimed at reducing the boundaries between vocational and professional training (Henkel, 1994). Humphries (1993, p. 7) argues that "the emphasis on competencies has led towards anti-intellectualism, and emphasis on skills devoid of critical reflection." It is furthered argued that the concept of competence is,

> reductionistic and atomistic and denies holistic and reflective conceptions of
> practice; that it reduces the significance of theory, knowledge and understand-
> ing in social work education in favour of practice, skills and decision-making
> . . . it strengthens the claims of those who would make higher education a
> subsidiary or even redundant partner in the development and delivery of
> social work training. (Henkel, 1994, p. 96)

This is countered by arguments that the DipSW strengthens the value and knowledge base by requiring demonstrated evidence of having acquired competency in these areas (Shardlow & Doel, 1993), and the belief that competence can and does incorporate a range of complex, higher order abilities associated with the transfer of learning, innovation, and managing in non-routine situations required of professional practice.

EDUCATING SOCIAL WORKERS IN CANADA: AN ACADEMIC ENTERPRISE

The earliest structure of social work education was based on a two-year programme but with two kinds of approaches. One approach, founded by Mary Richmond, was based on the objective of preparing individuals to be caseworkers first and social investigators second. This school emphasised field work experience with a perspective that might be considered vocational. The second approach, with an academic perspective, was supported by Jane Addams. The curriculum was based on social theory with an analytical, social research and social reform orientation.

At the end of the first two decades of the century, social work education was practice-driven with social agencies sponsoring most of the training schools for social workers. In the late twenties, the Chicago school was the only strong advocate for an education-driven programme and based its approach on three principles of education: commitment to public welfare, graduate professional training based on a liberal arts undergraduate study, and advancement of the field through student and faculty research (Diner, 1977, p. 10).

From the Shop Floor to the Hallowed Halls

While the body of knowledge taught in the earliest years would hardly resemble the curriculum content of modern-day programmes as they exist today in Canada and the United Kingdom, most social work programmes do continue the tradition of teaching the techniques and skills required in practice through practice placements in social welfare agencies where

the student learns to integrate theoretical knowledge with agency experiences (Smith, 1965). Practice learning (field education) has always been an essential element in the training and education of social workers. In the early days of social work education, it took the form of apprenticeship training in the field with volunteers and beginning social workers being taught the requisite skills by more senior staff. Near the turn of the twentieth century, settlement house workers, charity organisation society workers, and child welfare advocates were untrained individuals with no shared sense of identity and little in common except a commitment to helping people (Murty & Lacerte, 1989).

Training was on-the-job designed to prepare the worker for a specific task. Formalised classroom study was gradually added to field work evolving into the formation of social work schools. Professional education was to replace apprenticeship programmes moving social work from vocational to professional status. The curricula of schools of social work were oriented toward broad principles and general techniques, rather than particular agency procedures. In 1898, Mary Richmond suggested a training school in applied philanthropy where both theory and practice would be stressed. She prescribed a "vital connection between the learning institutions and the agencies of the city so that theory and practice would go hand in hand" (cited in Polinger, 1991, p. 3). Later, these schools became affiliated with colleges and universities leading first to the graduate degree of Master of Social Work (MSW), then to the undergraduate social work degree (BSW), and subsequently, the Ph.D. in Social Work or Doctorate in Social Work (DSW) degree.

With the rapid expansion of universal social programmes in Canada in the years following 1914, the need for trained professional social workers increased dramatically (Yelaja, 1985). Canadian programmes for social work education developed more slowly, forcing those interested in pursuing professional training at the university level to other countries, primarily Britain and the United States. The post-war expansion of universities increased the Canadian opportunity for specialised education (Sheffield, Campbell, Holmes, Kymlicka, & Whitelaw, 1978). The first professional social work degree, MSW, was offered in Canada in 1947, and,in 1951 the University of Toronto offered the first, and what was to be the only, doctoral programme in Canada until 1990. By 1966, when the first Bachelor of Social Work (BSW) was awarded in Canada, the task begun in 1914 of achieving 'balance within the Canadian context' was well in hand with more than a dozen schools offering social work programmes reflecting the realities of delivering social welfare services in Canada (Turner, 1984, p. 214).

The continued pressure for trained personnel also encouraged the growth of community college programmes for the training of a variety of social service technicians in the mid-1960s.

Canadian Control Over Accreditation

Until 1970, the US Council on Social Work Education served as the accrediting body that ensured the "establishment and maintenance of·high standards of advanced education" in social work (Yelaja, 1985, p. 19). It had begun the task in 1919 by reviewing North American universities offering Master's degrees. In 1970, the newly formed Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work (CASSW) took over this function. The development of this Canadian body to review and regulate the curricula of the professional schools underlines the achievement of a level of agreed upon content and context for professionals in Canada.

CASSW, as described in its 1991 *Directory*, is a voluntary, national, non-profit association of university faculties, schools or departments offering professional education in social work at the undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate levels. The purpose of CASSW is the advancement of university education for the profession of social work and the advancement of understanding of the nature and role of social work practice and social welfare in Canadian society. In pursuing these purposes, CASSW (1991a, p. 1-2) undertakes the formulation and recommendation of educational policies and the accreditation of professional social work educational programmes according to established standards and procedures. It is involved in the promotion, coordination, planning and undertaking of research, the publication of a scholarly periodical, and other dissemination of information. CASSW conducts General Assemblies and other forums for discussion and debate, and participates in the presentation and promotion of positions relating to the objectives and standards of social work education to public and private bodies. CASSW operates in consultation and collaboration with faculties and schools, students, universities, and other national and international organisations. It participates in the advancement of social work education in developing and developed countries through membership in the IASSW; and in the collection of information and

response to requests from a variety of sources on the nature and organisation of social work education in Canada.

The Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work

CASSW (1991a) reports a total of 26 member schools offering 23 accredited Bachelor's degree programs and 12 accredited Master's degree programs. CASSW does not accredit doctoral programs in social work of which there are presently four in Canada. Undergraduate social work education in Canada most often consists of a liberal arts foundation of one or two years (no less than 40% of the baccalaureate) followed by social work courses including the field practicum (practice learning) in the latter years of a four-year degree programme. Field practicum is considered an integral aspect of the curriculum but the organisation of this component is left up to the discretion of individual programmes. Schools vary with regard to the number of field practicum hours although CASSW specifies a minimum of 700 hours for a BSW in its appendix (CASSW, 1993). Graduate programmes in Canada are either a minimum of one year for those whose admission requires a BSW degree or two years for those with entry requirements of an undergraduate degree other than the BSW. Most graduate programmes require a field practicum; however, the number of hours varies considerably. CASSW has specified 500 hours as the minimum for MSW programmes where the field practicum is required (CASSW, 1993).

There is wide variation in the format and structure of both undergraduate and graduate field practica because some programmes employ a block model while others use a concurrent approach and some use both or a combination. A block approach has students in the field placement for close to a full work week during which time they take no other courses other than some type of integrative seminar. The concurrent model has students in the field placement two or three days per week and taking courses during the other days of the week. These placements usually occur over a longer period of time.

In 1980, CASSW initiated a study which investigated trends and issues in the field preparation of the social work manpower in an attempt to develop an understanding of the field practice component in the preparation of professional social workers in Canada (Thomlison, Watt, & Kimberley, 1980). There was concern that standards for accreditation of the field education (practicum) component of programs was not well articulated resulting in wide variation in policies and practices across the country. There were also questions about the costs and

benefits, the overall quality of educational experience, and the effectiveness of the field practicum in preparing social workers. A number of recommendations for educational policy, accreditation standards and guidelines regarding the field practicum component of the curriculum were made (Kimberley & Watt, 1982).

It was not until ten years later, however, that CASSW, in 1992, finally adopted a set of educational policy statements about field education which has become part of the accreditation standards, albeit appended to the standards and not incorporated directly into them. These statements explicitly spell out minimum standards which schools must demonstrate they are attempting to achieve (CASSW, 1993). These standards specify, for example, number of hours, qualification of field instructors, requirements regarding the administration and structure of field programmes, and training for field instructors. Social work courses are expected to demonstrate movement towards meeting those standards in the appendices.

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES: THE UNITED KINGDOM AND CANADA

Social work in Canada has likely not undergone any attack from the right since both federally and provincially it is does not present a politically united voice nor does it have a strong political arm, although there are small pockets of active social policy lobbyists. So, in spite of its historical roots in poor relief, Canadian social work has been relatively silent on major social and economic issues confronting those most vulnerable and marginalised populations today (Riches, 1989).

There seems to be a preference for clinical practice and a decline in public sector and community practice although not to quite the same extent as their neighbours to the south. In fact, a recent study of one school has shown an increase in students' interests in working with the disadvantaged (Bogo, Raphael, & Roberts, 1993). Whereas studies of US students' reasons for entering social work programmes found a majority wanting to become psychotherapists in private practice and a disinterest in working with the poor (Rubin, Johnson & DeWeaver, 1986). The trend towards privatisation and for-profit services has created an interest in the profit-making side of human services, while studies show those working in the commercial sector earn more than those in either the public or not-for-profit sectors (Gibelman & Whiting, 1991). There are notable efforts by schools of social work to prepare professionals with a commitment to public welfare work such as the state of

California example (Grossman & Perry, 1995). It would appear that Canadians fall somewhere between their British and American counterparts regarding training and employment opportunities in the public sector.

The biggest distinction between Canadian and British social work education lies in its relationship to the university and higher education and the degree of government involvement. It should be noted that tension and strain exists in both countries between a perceived mismatch in what education provides and employment demands. The UK has been particularly responsive to this through mandated collaboration and partnerships, whereas social work programmes in Canada desire collaboration with their professional communities but do so on an ad hoc basis grounded in nothing more than good will. This results in varying arrangements throughout the country but nowhere in Canada have the universities relinquished control over the syllabus or the assessment of students.

There is a clear differentiation of levels of qualification in Canada based on levels in higher education: from a community college two-year diploma, to a four-year undergraduate baccalaureate degree (which is considered the first professional degree), to a master's degree and then a doctorate all in social work. In the UK it is certainly possibly to attain levels of higher degrees, one built upon the other, but there exists only one social work qualification regardless of the level of academic attainment. For these reasons it appears that social work in Britain is more vulnerable to external intervention and control and attacks from both the traditional institutions of higher learning and the workplace which renders social work a profession in search of its status. In Canada social work remains a relatively apolitical body with pockets of individuals interested in championing social causes and advocating for structural change but the majority are concerned with the rigours of academia and the realities of the workplace and balancing professional education with preparation for practice.

CURRENT SOCIAL ISSUES IN CONTEXT

A full picture of the context in which social work practice and education occurs in the United Kingdom and Canada cannot be presented without examining the current social issues of equality, social justice and its antithesis, discrimination and oppression. Each country's response to this issue and attempts to grapple with it have implications for this research. For example, content and skills related to anti-discriminatory practice are in principle at the

forefront of practice teacher training courses in the United Kingdom. This topic has only recently been recognised as something to be included and covered in social work courses in Canada and has barely reached the discussion stage in the training of field instructors.

The British Perspective: Anti-Racist, Anti-Oppressive Practice

In 1986, the British Association of Social Workers passed a series of resolutions in response to the continuing failure of social work and social services to respond appropriately to the needs of minority ethnic groups. The resolutions called for the Association to:

- formulate an equal opportunity policy;
- counteract personal and institutional racism within the Association;
- revise the Code of Ethics to require a commitment to combat racism in all its forms;
- ensure that Black perspectives are an integral part of all policy papers, conferences and publications;
- instigate regular reviews and commitments to anti-racist strategies; and
- enable the development of an increased element of ethnically sensitive social work input in research and training. (Malahleka & Woolfe, 1991, p. 48)

The findings of the British Association of Social Workers Action Research Project into Ethnically Sensitive Social Work (1988) concluded that promoting an anti-racist, equal opportunities policy demands commitment and action on the part of both managers and workers. Senior managers need to accept the responsibility of providing appropriate training, offering guidelines for practice and disseminating information. Workers have an individual responsibility for actively supporting an anti-racist, equal opportunities policy and implementing this in their day-to-day practice. They need to keep themselves well informed, examine their own attitudes and challenge racism where it is met. Only by individual and corporate action can the obstacles be surmounted and the eventual aim be achieved.

Ethnically sensitive social work, as defined by Malahleka and Woolfe is the:

. . . provision by social work agencies of a service which elicits and responds to the needs, resources and culture of people from black and ethnic minority groups and offers appropriate choices to service users properly founded on clear principles and understanding of equality and social justice. (1991, pp. 49-50)

For social workers this means respect for the dignity and individuality of the service user and the avoidance of stereotyping. It requires social workers, educators and managers to listen,

45

take account of, and reflect the views of black people in their practice and decision making. It acknowledges that inherent racism in institutions and individuals results in discrimination against black individuals and groups, and takes steps to redress this power imbalance in every aspect of social work. It is, therefore, impossible to consider ethnically sensitive social work without an anti-racist strategy (Malahleka & Woolfe, 1991). This notion may be implied in North American literature and teachings but it is rarely so explicitly stated.

Dominelli (1992) argues that collectively and individually social work educators and practitioners in Britain have failed to adequately address the issue of racism in either social work theories or practice. According to Ferns (1990), apathy has been a powerful factor in maintaining institutional racism. It does not require individuals in a system to be actively discriminatory but merely unnoticing and uncritical. Furthermore, the profession has not fulfilled its aim in its relationship with black people, whether they are clients, workers or students. Most analyses end up pathologising black cultures and lifestyles (Cheetham, 1972; Ely & Denney, 1987; Gilroy, 1987). They prescribe understanding cultural differences as the key to working with black people rather than tackling racism as the problem requiring attention. In order to foster an anti-oppressive perspective there needs to be ". . . personal, organisational and societal changes which must be supported at the political, social, economic ideological and individual levels" (Dominelli, 1992, p. 176).

Jordan (1991) argues that the radical agenda, issues of structural oppression, race, class and gender, is being put side by side with the traditional liberal agenda of respecting established rights and protecting vulnerable individuals. He is concerned that power, privilege and prejudice must be effectively challenged without upsetting the legal and moral foundations on which they are built, but finds this a rather tall order for newly qualifying social workers. Others suggest a need to reconcile these two agenda since it is considered impossible to uphold liberal values while confronting oppressive structures and systems (Balen, Brown, & Taylor, 1993). As Kwhali (1991, p. 42) so aptly states, "ignoring, colluding or deciding to challenge basic inequalities, painful and damaging experiences and the legacy of history exposes an individual's and organisation's stance on the meaning of social work values, professional integrity and the pursuit of human justice." Agencies delivering services to black people need to have policies and practices that are responsive to the needs of those consumers and practitioners who are capable of confronting institutional and systemic racism. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the social work course to ensure that the next generation of social

workers, whether they are black or white, are equipped with the relevant knowledge, values and skills for ethnically sensitive, anti-discriminatory practice.

In the United Kingdom, there has been a concerted effort on the part of the CCETSW to incorporate anti-discriminatory content into the curriculum in both the classroom and practice teaching. This has resulted in considerable changes to course requirements at a policy level and practice level. One example of this is that all programmes offering a CCETSW-approved social work course must have in place anti-racist and equal opportunities policies. This includes the placements approved for practice teaching.

A key part of the new Diploma in Social Work is the systematic attempt to introduce specific anti-racist requirements following a decade of struggles and critiques of social work and social work education. Generally, these requirements state:

> Social workers need to be competent to work in a society which is multi-racial and multi-cultural. CCETSW will therefore seek to ensure that students are prepared not only for ethnically sensitive practice but also to challenge and confront institutional and other forms of racism. It will require that both the content and the context in which learning takes place, promote and develop this approach. (CCETSW, Paper 30, 1991b, p. 10)

Another sphere of influence involves the approval of practice teachers. The regulations governing the awarding of credentials to practice teachers state that:

> Practice teachers need to demonstrate their ability to . . . help students to develop anti-racist, anti-sexist and other forms of anti-discriminatory practice, and the capacity to work effectively within a multi-racial and multi-ethnic society. (CCETSW Paper 26.3, 1989b, p. 10)

Thus, there has been a massive multi-pronged attack on a number of fronts to make changes in attitudes, practices, curricula and approaches to social work education in an effort to eradicate oppression and discrimination in Britain. Social service departments and voluntary agencies are bringing in specialists to assist with the development of equal opportunities and anti-racist policies and to provide staff development and training at all levels of the organisation (Kingston, 1992). Serious attempts are being made to recruit and train black social workers and to sensitise the workplace to the inherent racism within organisations and courses. Anti-oppressive training is in evidence throughout the Probation Service and Social Service Departments. In the social work courses, this content is permeated, infused and offered through specialised classes. Additionally, it is included in the training of their practice teachers.

47

This has not been without controversy as obviated by a backlash from the right who is concerned that CCETSW's (1991b, p. 46) statement: "racism is endemic in the values, attitudes and structures of British society," is counter to the true nature of British society (Jones, 1993). There is also a concern that the anti-racist faction has 'gotten out of hand' and has over-shadowed other important parts of the curriculum. Others suggest that race is given a greater prominence over class, gender and disability and that sexual orientation is overlooked completely (Balen, Brown, & Taylor, 1993) and that the inconsistencies in Paper 30 can allow a 'hierarchy of oppression' to develop (Phillipson, 1992; Thompson, 1993). Other problems with interpretation have occurred where anti-discriminatory practice is regarded as synonymous with anti-racist practice which means the requirement can be dismissed as irrelevant in areas that are predominantly white with few or no black service users (Grinter & Raynor, 1993). Consequently, CCETSW (Doherty, Pierce, & Smith, 1994) has reworked its statements, softened its language, and relaxed its expectations, but the impact of its original stance has been felt far and wide.

The Canadian Perspective: Multicultural and Multiracial Practice

Historically, Canada has been described as a country of two founding nations—the British and the French. This is, of course, a denial of the fact that the British and French colonists found the native people here when they arrived, complete with their own social, political, and economic institutions which were systematically destroyed (Christensen, 1986). This denial has resulted in long-standing discrimination and oppression of native people in Canada, limiting their access to equal opportunities in every aspect of their social, political and economic life. Social work curricula and programmes have only started to deal with the unjust treatment of native peoples within the last ten years through the development of native studies programmes and the inclusion of specific native content within the curriculum. The tendency has been to focus on practice methods and skills rather than institutional, system-wide change.

Several studies have shattered the belief held by many that Canada is a non-racist country as `ethnicity, culture and race have been found to be a major factor in systems employing social workers such as the correctional and juvenile justice systems, family and child welfare systems, and mental health and health care systems (CASSW, 1991b). Thus, there is a need to graduate social workers in Canada who are able to deliver culturally appropriate services

in mainstream agencies and in ethno-specific agencies, but also to challenge the status quo that feeds and maintains systemic and institutional racism.

The Task Force on Multicultural and Multiracial Issues in Social Work Education (CASSW, 1991b, p. ii) reported that although most Canadian schools recognise ethnic, cultural and racial diversity as a reality, they have yet to respond adequately to today's multicultural and multiracial issues. Similarly, they found that most graduates are ill prepared to serve an ethnically, culturally, and racially diverse client population (p. 1). The Task Force has made numerous recommendations, such as:

> Schools of Social Work should develop programmes and opportunities for student field placements in ethno-specific agencies under the guidance of minority field instructors. New models of field instruction must be developed taking ethnic, cultural and racial diversity into account. In all placements issues of ethnic, racial and cultural diversity need to be incorporated into the field experience so that students learn to address different needs appropriate-ly. There is a need for training and development of existing faculty and field instructors to allow them to be in a position to teach and supervise students effectively. (CASSW, 1991b, pp. 76-77)

Social work educators in Canada have only recently begun to recognise that a specialised body of knowledge and skills is necessary to work with those from ethnic, cultural, and racial backgrounds that differ from their own (Blum, 1990; Keyes, 1991; Green, 1982). Much of what is taught in Canadian schools of social work today is heavily influenced by American sources. With respect to racial, ethnic and cultural diversity content, the focus appears to be on providing students with ". . . clearly articulated objectives, outlines, and content incorporating diverse racial, ethnic, and cultural perspective" (CSWE, 1988, p. 9). This includes ". . . exposure to and opportunities for direct interaction and involvement with racial, ethnic, and cultural groups that differ from one's own" (p. 50).

The emphasis is on being ethnically sensitive and equipped with cross-cultural skills, as opposed to being prepared for anti-racist, anti-discriminatory or anti-oppressive practice. In fact, the terms 'anti-racist,' 'anti-discriminatory' and 'anti-oppressive' are not commonly used linguistic phrases in the social work literature pertinent to the topics of racism, sexism, classism, homophobia, etc., in North America. However, social work educational institutions in Canada are beginning to acknowledge that, like other institutions, they have been organised and structured historically to meet the needs of the dominant culture (Carniol, 1987). The Canadian Task Force does recommend that schools provide education ". . . enabling

49

professional action to remove obstacles . . . and to eliminate all forms of inequality, including those based on ethnicity, culture and race" (CASSW, 1991b, Appendix E, 1.4). And it does suggest that schools make effective progress in ". . . taking into account ethnic, cultural and racial diversity in the Canadian population with respect to . . . faculty composition and student admissions" (Appendix E, 1.1.4). However, these recommendations are still awaiting full-scale implementation.

In the United States, social work educators have been bluntly criticised for the scant treatment given to the development of a cross-cultural perspective. Anders (1975) noted that students who became critically appreciative of the dangers of ethnocentrism and xenophobia in liberal arts courses, entered social work and were confronted with a de facto curriculum that was both ethnocentric and xenophobic. Advocates for change propose shifting away from cognitively oriented 'minority content' and suggest a skills-based, affectively oriented approach to 'minority practice' in which classroom experience echoes the affective and behavioural impact sought in practice teaching (Ifill, 1989). Methods for enabling students to confront their biases have been proposed to reduce prejudices in students (Latting, 1990) and to help students acquire the culture-specific knowledge they need in particular situations (Bouey & Rogers, 1992). This process supposedly prepares students for culturally sensitive practice.

Attention to the dynamics involved in cross-cultural field situations has given rise to the need for ethnically sensitive field instruction (McRoy, Freeman, Logan, & Blackmon, 1986; Peterson, 1991). Other approaches to teaching effective intervention involving ethnic and racial groups include helping students to integrate cultural factors and society's concerns into clinical practice by way of cross-cultural practice models (Chau, 1990; Devore & Schlesinger, 1987; Garland & Escobar, 1988; Gelfand & Fandetti, 1986). These strategies do contribute to a serious examination of the barriers, obstacles and subsequent strategies for working effectively across differences (Rogers, 1994; Rogers & Thomlison, 1994). They do not, however, purport to challenge the structural and systemic nature of oppression.

It becomes apparent that although Canadians and their American counterparts are concerned about factors related to ethnicity, culture and race, the British expectations and requirements go much further than anything comparable in North America. Specifically, the requirements of having certain policies in place and a degree of training specific to anti-oppressive practice

regarding practice teaching agencies and practice teachers is not evident in Canada or the United States. Nor do we find outcome statements that expect our students to 'identify and challenge discriminatory practices in their field settings or their courses' as is the case in the United Kingdom. The British appear to be well ahead of the Canadians in their acknowledgement and fight against institutional racism.

Ethnically Sensitive and Anti-Discriminatory Practice: A Synthesis

The impact of racism in social work in Canada, not unlike its impact in the United Kingdom, has not been simply one of excluding black and native people as service providers or from employment opportunities. It has also operated such that there is an over-representation of black and native people in the social welfare and criminal justice systems. These two trends, according to Dominelli (1988), are the product of strategies that white people use to deny, ignore and minimise the presence of racism in their own institutions, culture and personal behaviour.

Using concepts and practices emanating from the British experience and literature, combined with the experiences in one Canadian social work course, Rogers (1992) formulated a number of questions with respect to ethnic sensitivity and anti-discriminatory practices in a way that could guide the practice teaching process in a variety of areas: approving practice teaching placements; pre-placement discussion; contracting; the practice teaching experience; and assessment. This work represents an attempt to synthesise efforts from both sides of the Atlantic on this serious social, political and economic issue affecting our society at large and social work practice and education in particular.

Critics of a mono-cultural social work education system have divided into those who advocate 'multicultural' and those who advocate 'anti-racist' social work education (Naik, 1991). There has been conflict between these two approaches. Anti-racist education is interested in power, rather than culture; the political, rather than mere social work issues; and in changing the social and educational structures, rather than the social worker's sensitivities (Naik, 1991). Of late, most educationalists have begun to realise that both approaches are one-sided and that there is a need to focus on social work policies and practices that are both sensitive to the individual experience of oppression and damaging effects of cultural stereotyping and change oriented with regard to the structural barriers to equality. These approaches are informed by

Fanon's (1967) psychology of oppression, Freire's (1970) pedagogy of the oppressed and the notable recent contributions of the day (Dominelli, 1988).

It is now widely recognised that competence in ethnically sensitive, anti-discriminatory social work implies a high level of self-awareness about one's own cultural biases and prejudices, the development of skills necessary to work with persons different from oneself, and the ability to identify, challenge and change systems perpetuating unequitable access and opportunities based solely on belonging to an oppressed group. All this necessitates a framework for teaching and a model for action (Cornwell, 1992; Gould, 1994). If we are serious about wanting to develop these competencies, then we must incorporate the principles and policies already well articulated in the United Kingdom into the Canadian context. There is much to be gained by placing the challenge of diversity in the mainstream of social work education.

THE CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK

Practical experience in a social service agency has remained an integral part of social work education and training in both the United Kingdom and Canada since its earliest inception. In the context of the transition from vocation to profession, the practice teaching component shifted from a training experience to an educational experience. As time passed and the profession of social work came to be accepted, and as the role of social work education became firmly established as the appropriate medium for professional education, schools and agencies began to work together more effectively to develop the educational process (Lubove, 1965). In this collaborative endeavour, a key player is the practice teacher or field instructor. This individual is pivotal to the success of the educational experience. How they are prepared for this responsibility is a critical issue.

This chapter has presented an overview of social work and social work education from a historical perspective leading up to issues and policies of relevance today. It provides a contextual framework for the present research study. The next chapter examines the relevant literature pertaining to practice teaching in the United Kingdom and field education in North America.

CHAPTER THREE

PRACTICE LEARNING / FIELD EDUCATION: CONSTRUCTS, CONCEPTS AND CONCERNS

Building on the framework and context of social work and social work education presented in the previous chapter, this chapter provides a review of the relevant literature designed to outline the fundamental constructs, concepts and concerns inherent in a substantive understanding of practice teaching. What is common and shared by both countries as well as what is unique to each country will be examined. There is not a comprehensive, strictly Canadian literature on field education. There are some Canadian studies which have obviously been included in the literature review, but many of these are published in American journals. Much of the research and literature informing social work educators in Canada comes from the United States. Therefore, the North American literature will be reviewed in order to present a fulsome view of the themes and influences upon field education in Canada. The literature emanating from the United Kingdom stands on its own in terms of its influence and uniqueness in reflecting the British view of practice teaching.

A Common Frame of Reference

From an overall historical standpoint there has been an enduring conviction that carefully supervised practice learning is a fundamental, vital and indispensable component of social work education and has been since its formalisation as an academic discipline. It is often cited as the most important and significant aspect of professional development (Butler & Elliott, 1985; Kadushin, 1992; Thompson, Osada, & Anderson, 1990; Towle, 1954; Young, 1967), yet a number of authors report that the practice teaching component is a neglected area of educational concern (Brennen, 1982; Shatz, 1989). It is well recognised that 'knowing about,' however sophisticated the knowledge, falls short of the responsibilities of a profession. Doing implies 'know how' which involves going considerably beyond 'knowing about.' 'Knowing how' gives meaning and significance to 'knowing about' and can only be competently learned through doing. According to Kadushin (1992, p. 11), "Skills imagined

53

and enacted vicariously in the mind in the class can be only practised in the flesh in the living interchange with a client." Only in the translation of knowledge into practice, acquired through experiential and practice learning, can social work education achieve professional justification.

Practice teachers' importance and position within the curriculum has rarely been questioned and has often been the focus of study in both the United Kingdom and North America (Gardiner, 1989; Kadushin, 1992). There does appear to be some differences in emphases and the nature of focus in the study of practice teaching and the role of the practice teacher. However, practice teachers do provide one-third to one-half of a student's professional education and are seen as integral to social work courses in both the United Kingdom and Canada. Much of how practice teaching is researched, analysed and examined is related to political, economic and social factors and to a lesser extent, to pedagogical and philosophical factors (Sinclair, 1991). These are the factors that create different meanings and disparate perceptions of what might appear to be similar issues in both countries.

The nature of the problems and concomitant solutions do have some elements in common. For example, the transfer of knowledge from the classroom to the placement and the integration of theory and practice are considered to be the essential learning processes in practice learning (Gardiner, 1984a; Pettes, 1967; Rodway & Rogers, 1993; Sawdon, 1986; Skolnick, 1989; Tolson & Kopp, 1988). The relationship between the student and the practice teacher, the methods of practice teaching and techniques of supervision and assessment, and the availability and relevance of practice opportunities, all impact the teaching/learning process in both countries. It is through these processes that students acquire a professional identity and the perceptual lens of a social worker. How the topic of practice teaching in the United Kingdom and field education in North America is examined and portrayed will be thoroughly reviewed in separate sections. The literature emanating from adult and higher education appears to have influenced both British and North American researchers and writers with surprising similarity. Therefore this literature is amalgamated in its presentation. A synthesis of the points of convergence and divergence concludes this chapter.

PRACTICE LEARNING: A VIEW FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM

Preparation for qualification in social work in the United Kingdom is divided into two quite distinct activities: higher education and social work practice. This distinction is underscored in the language that references social work *education AND training* indicating that education is seen as separate and discrete from training but that both are requisite activities in the preparation of qualified social workers. It could be argued that *education* is the part offered in the classroom whereas *training* is the component provided in an agency. "Theoretical knowledge and practical ability thus constitute the twin pillars around which the whole educational edifice is constructed" (Evans, 1987, p. 83).

The literature review shows the extent of the difficulties in establishing a working and workable partnership between 'town and gown,' between education and training, in the face of differing expectations, values and practices. Agencies accuse courses of failing to provide the sort of workers they require, countered by charges from course organisers that the people they have trained "are not being employed in the correct way" (Blyth, 1980, p. 28). This epitomises the historic split between theoretical classes and practice teaching on social work courses. The split between theory and practice, according to Evans (1987), is largely a product of the institutional structure of social work. In attempting to bridge that gap, the literature abounds with discussions on the integration of theory and practice (Paley, 1984, 1987; Timms & Timms, 1977); the relevance of theory for practice (Harris, 1983; Sibeon, 1989-90); the transfer of learning (Gardiner, 1984a, 1987); and the role of practice teaching in social work education (Casson, 1982; Syson & Baginsky, 1981). It is also apparent from the literature review that practice teaching has become and continues to evolve into a legitimate and distinct area of study and research in and of itself (Gardiner, 1989).

CCETSW: The Guardian of Social Work Education and Training

The literature on practice teaching is inextricably tied to the context created by the policies, guidelines and practices of the Central Council on Education and Training in Social Work (CCETSW). A central feature of the DipSW is high quality practice learning supervised by qualified staff who are trained and accredited for the task. The scheme for accrediting practice teachers and approving agencies has been funded through central government with monies specifically provided for the purpose. Government funding supports the development

of practice learning by helping agencies to meet CCETSW's requirements to become approved for practice learning; training practice teachers to the standard required for being accredited with CCETSW's Practice Teaching Award; and directly funding placements in the voluntary sector (see Paper 26.3, CCETSW, 1989b). Practice teachers are eligible for accreditation if they successfully complete training on a 150-hour, minimum three month, approved practice teacher programme or transitionally, until 1995, by demonstrating they have the requisite experience. CCETSW's declared objective for the DipSW is to provide a high common minimum standard for all qualifying students and to use its own staff to approve programmes and monitor standards, with external assessors to ensure there is consistency of standards (CCETSW, 1991b). Programmes are expected to address racism and other discrimination. An anti-discriminatory perspective has informed much of CCETSW's planning for the requirements and assessment of competencies for the DipSW (see Paper 30, CCETSW, 1991b: Part 2).

CCETSW approval of agencies for practice learning is based on a submission of a proforma by an agency (see rev. ed. of Paper 26.3, CCETSW, 1991a, pp. 6-7). Approved agencies are required to provide CCETSW with annual evaluation reports on their practice teaching policy and its implementation. In order to be approved by CCETSW to offer a Practice Teaching Programme leading to the Award, programmes have to meet a set of requirements as described in Paper 26.3 (CCETSW, 1989b, pp. 11-12). The programme must have an assessment panel, an external assessor and appeals procedures to decide whether candidates have achieved the requirements. It must provide CCETSW with an evaluative annual report including comments by the external assessor. Courses must be approved by CCETSW and should be offered jointly by at least one college and one agency (for example, a Programme Provider of a DipSW programme might also seek approval to offer a Practice Teaching Programme). In order to obtain approval, a detailed proforma is sent to CCETSW (1989b, pp. 13-14). There are two routes to obtaining the CCETSW Practice Teaching Award: 1) take an approved Practice Teaching Programme and meet the standard in the assessment; or 2) present a portfolio of practice teaching experience which can be assessed in accordance with the standard required for successful completion of the programme to the assessment panel of an approved Practice Teaching Programme. There is some concern, however, that the guidelines for the portfolio are not sufficiently clear which could result in discrepancies, inconsistencies and a wide variation in expectations (Ransley & Mann, 1992).

Given this background framed by CCETSW's response to government and societal concerns about social work and its programme development efforts, the literature review focuses on the salient issues relative to practice teaching that begin with the theory and practice, and integration and linkage debates. Other recurring themes in the literature identify challenges in practice teaching that have persisted over time such as the development of practice curricula including models for practice teaching (Butler & Elliott, 1985; Phillipson, Richards, & Sawdon, 1988); practice teachers' roles, issues and training (Ford & Jones, 1987); the development and maintenance of high quality placements (Syson & Baginsky, 1981); the assessment of practice competence that includes the development of criteria as well as methods to determine achievement of acceptable standards (Doel & Shardlow, 1989; Evans, 1990; Shardlow & Doel, 1993); and issues related to anti-discriminatory practice which impact on practice teaching (Dominelli, 1988; Naik, 1991).

The Integration and Transfer Debate

Practice teaching is the component of a course that is undertaken in an agency under the supervision of a practice teacher. For many students struggling to make sense of the theoretical perspectives of the course, the placement enables students to extend their learning and will often set the pattern for future working methods and professional practice (Thompson, Osada, & Anderson, 1990). This discussion appears to be of vital importance because the integration of theory and practice and the transfer of learning have not only been driving forces in curriculum development but have also been salient to CCETSW's continued efforts over the years to improve social work courses and the qualifications of their graduates.

Integration of theory and practice is considered difficult because students move back and forth between the academic setting and the placement. This split results in a 'tandem model' of curriculum design (Davies, 1981) and has been the subject of much debate and concern for social work educators (Hutchison, 1977; Parsloe, 1977; Timms, 1970). In a longitudinal study of a cohort of social work students, Barbour (1984) found that students regard the integration of theory and practice as one of the major objectives of training but its achievement is also seen as a problem. One of the difficulties with the theory/practice debates, as noted by Hearn (1982), is that there is confusion about the nature of the relationship between theory and practice and that complaints about the relationship come from a failure to recognise a variety of such relationships. He argues that there is a problem in

defining what 'theory' and 'practice' actually mean. These terms have come to be understood as theory meaning what is learned on course and practice as what is done in agencies. Sibeon (1982) furthers that notion by suggesting the relationship between theory and practice is the division of labour between colleges and agencies.

The Struggle for Occupational Control

Payne (1990, p. 4) argues that the "debate about theory and practice links is one of the manifestations of a continuing struggle for influence over the definition of the nature of social work." He suggests there are three ideological traditions in the development of social work which represent differing positions about theory and practice and the struggle for occupational control: the pragmatic tradition, associated with work in official agencies; the socialist tradition, concentrating on the reform aspects; and the therapeutic tradition, dealing with individualised needs. CCETSW's requirement that training programmes develop their courses in partnership with employers provides managers with a direct opportunity to influence the content of practice, but Howe (1990-91) believes this will result in managers exerting too much control over the definition of social work and the content of training. He fears that social workers will be "trained rather than educated [and] become skilled functionaries rather than expert professionals" (1990-91, p. 49). It is important to examine how, in actuality, theory seems to influence practice, as this underlies the distinction between technician and professional.

Some writers claim that researched knowledge and practice can inform each other (Paley, 1984). However, Carew (1979) found that few social workers used theory explicitly in their work and that although most thought it was important, its use provided a framework rather than a guide to action. In an important series of studies, Curnock and Hardiker (1979; Hardiker, 1981) show that workers use theoretical knowledge inexplicably and advocate the notion of "practice theories . . . which refer to the process of using and integrating professional experience and knowledge in a skilful and ethical manner" (1979, p. 38). The problem with this notion, as Paley (1984, p. 21) points out, is "How do we discriminate between this process and the process of integrating professional experience and knowledge in an unskilful or unethical manner?". Cocozzelli and Constable (1985), in an American study, confirm the British work that general approaches to clients, rather than explicit use of theory, constitutes the most common relationship between theory and practice.

Theory and Practice: Are They Mutually Exclusive?

There is a temptation to think that the argument is solely between practitioners and academics. Sheldon's (1978) distinction, referred to by several authors, between the "theoretical sub-culture" and the "practice sub-culture" certainly supports that view as he sees the practice sub-culture becoming increasingly anti-intellectual. Thus, the rift between scientific theory and practice wisdom is replayed in the tension between education and training, classroom learning and practice learning. Interestingly, a study by Coulshed (1986, p. 126) concludes with the recommendation that, "Further studies need to be undertaken to investigate ways in which all students can become competent practitioners by devoting more of their time and energies to the academic part of professional training."

CCETSW has attempted to address the theory-practice rift directly with the DipSW programmes planned and run by partnerships or consortia of colleges and agencies working together as programme providers. However, according to Harris (1990, p. 147), no one should underestimate the significance of this compulsory partnership with agencies suggesting they ". . . range from the genuinely helpful friend to the predatory Director of Social Services whose own department is such a model of efficiency that he thinks he can run the local social work course in his spare time." Harris (1990, p. 152) predicts that Diploma partnerships will accentuate the nature of pre-existing relations between the colleges and the agencies, and fears where the relations are poor "the Diploma will be characterised by acrimony, recrimination, unreliability and poor quality." This is not the intent of the DipSW which seeks the improvement of the quality and quantity of qualified social workers and is committed to collaboration between educational institutions and social agencies. The DipSW is built on the experience of the CSS and CQSW and on the belief that programmes must be responsive to contemporary organisations and practice (Whittington & Lewis, 1990). The policies of agency approval and the training and accreditation of practice teachers play a central role in the promotion of relevance in training and in the linkage of theory and practice. However, a recent study revealed there is still confusion and the relationship between theory and practice remains largely unsettled with both students and practice teachers viewing 'theory,'

> as of use only when directly related to preparation for work in a particular
> placement . . . as offering unreliable guidelines . . . as marking an essential
> but transitory stage in learning as self-consciousness disappears into habit . . .
> as whatever goes on in lectures . . . as seldom actively joined with practice.
> (Walker, McCarthy, Morgan, & Timms, 1995, p. 148)

Social Work Theories: Many, Many Ways of Knowing

A factor which adds to difficulties in integrating theory and practice is the large number of disciplines from which social work theory has traditionally been drawn (Barbour, 1984) and the fact that there is no theoretical consensus in social work (Whittington & Holland, 1985) or for that matter, practice teaching (Shardlow & Doel, 1992). With the expansion of theoretical perspectives available to social work in recent years, the problem of how to incorporate material into the academic and practice curricula, without reducing content to merely token levels, has intensified. A further issue addresses not just what is taught but what students actually learn and consequently how qualified social workers use that which has been learned in their work (Secker, 1991).

Bartlett (1970), Stevenson (1981) and Timms (1983) were powerful advocates of the use of formal social science theory and philosophy of social work, while Davies (1985) was equally adamant that social science knowledge is not a prerequisite for effective practice. He suggested that essential cognitive ingredients for social work are "practice know-how" (p. 223) acquired through "practical experience and training, knowledge of the law relevant to social work" (p. 225) and of "welfare rights" (p. 227) and knowledge of the "local community" (pp. 239-242). It is clear by examining CCETSW's requirements for the DipSW (1991b; Doherty, Pierce, & Smith, 1994) that Davies' (1985) was the vision of choice.

With generic content superseding specialist training, the difficulties experienced by students appear to be compounded when faced with applying generic concepts in very specific practice contexts. CCETSW's solution to that problem lies in the DipSW requirement that students apply their core social work knowledge and skills in a placement of a particular practice during the second year of their course. While this literature suggests that theory only influences practice in very diffuse ways, Payne (1990) identifies six types of relationships between theory and practice representing stances about the dominance of managerial or political control, practitioner control, academic control, or occupational control. This work allows greater understanding of integration so that students and practitioners can "articulate how and by what routes their ideas and actions might be linked, and what potential influence ideas and actions have on each other" (Payne, 1990, p. 18).

Transfer: The Key to Managing Learning

Another solution to the split between academe and practice and the sheer vastness of the knowledge base is the belief in the potential power of the transfer of learning (Whittington, 1986), which is more than simply a concept and, judging from the number of articles, is of profound importance. Harris (1983) notes that while transfer of learning is not a recent conception, it acquired special significance for social work educators when it appeared in CCETSW regulations for the award of the CQSW (CCETSW, 1981) and has continued to appear as a requirement for the DipSW (CCETSW, 1991b, p. 19). Transfer of learning involves a capacity to comprehend specific experience at a level of abstraction that allows its general characteristics to be applied to other experiences that share only some of the features of the original (Harris, 1983). This ability is seen to be fundamental to a competent social worker suggesting that course teachers and practice teachers consciously teach for transfer. Gardiner's work (1984a, 1984b, 1989), which appears to be a key reference for other authors, seeks to advance the understanding of the concept of transfer and suggests how courses can be designed to equip students for practice in a wider range of situations than they have encountered during training. Echoing Harris and Gardiner, Gray (1986) believes the practice teacher has a crucial role in helping students to make patterns from experiences, to transfer learning to new situations and, especially, to understand how they transfer that learning. "Transfer holds the prospect of preserving genericism in a complex world of specialised needs and suggests a way of designing programmes that are not only defensible educationally and professionally, but are also of manageable content and realistic length" (Whittington, 1986, pp. 574-5).

It is clear from the literature that more research done in concert with the disciplines of higher and adult education will contribute to the design of training systems and the education and training of social workers. It has been suggested that, "When we next come to review qualifying training in social work we must be able to so on the basis of a legacy of more systematic evaluation than the mix of assertion, assumption and anecdote that characterises many of our present debates" (Gardiner, 1987, p. 55). A considerable amount of time and effort in the 1980s was spent by CCETSW in reviewing its policies for qualifying training in the personal social services resulting in significant changes to the structure, patterns, content and outcomes of courses. Gardiner, critical of the lack of research, strongly suggests that social work educators need to evaluate carefully the impact of these changes ". . . on the

nature and quality of student learning to ensure that such changes really do produce the kinds of improvements in student learning which they are intended to promote" (1988, p. 10).

The Practice Curriculum

In keeping with the notion of the centrality of practice learning to social work education and training, Sawdon and Sawdon (1987) support the idea of a Practice Learning Curriculum. The efforts at the design of a practice-led curriculum (Butler & Elliott, 1985; Doel, 1987b, 1988; Richards, 1988) provide valuable and imaginative frameworks for organising practice learning content and opportunities.

The absence of a curriculum for practice lies at the heart of the discrepancy between class-based teaching and practice-based teaching, according to Doel (1987b). Central to the formulation of a sound practice curriculum are the components of content (what is to be included), sequencing (when it is to be taught), and roles (who is to teach and how). Raban (1990, p. 33) argues that, "The more progress we make on the development of the practice curriculum, the approval of agencies and the accreditation of practice teachers, the easier it should be to satisfy the quality assurance requirements for the academic validation of placements."

The early literature on practice teaching, then referred to as field work, was commonly in the form of guidebooks and guidelines for supervisors (CTSW, 1971; Pettes, 1967; Selby, 1968; Young, 1967; Younghusband, 1968). This type of literature is still being produced but there is a clear shift in emphasis from the supervisory process to the learning process (Butler & Elliott, 1985; Danbury, 1986; Ford & Jones, 1987; Gardiner, 1989; Gould, 1989; Humphries, 1988; Thompson, Osada, & Anderson, 1990). This shift is exemplified by the exhortations of several authors to engage the student as an adult learner in finding an acceptable route to active learning and demonstrated competence, not inducting them as if they were new staff. Like Pithouse (1987), Bell and Webb (1992, p. 28) show how "teaching for practice is an 'invisible art' which is cut across by a variety of situational factors, planning and workload problems and skills which are rarely acknowledged at a formal organisational level." This implies a broad brush approach to teaching to avoid the danger of the unitary experience masquerading as the universal.

Curricular Innovations

Several studies describe innovative routes for practice learning and models for practice teaching advocating for the use of: integrated placement packages (Johnson & Shabbaz, 1989-90); modular teaching (Burke & Bradley, 1993); clustering placements (Vigars, 1989); student units (Curnock, 1975; Sawdon, 1986); induction programmes (Baldwin, 1992); singleton supervision (Elliott, 1988, 1990); and long-arm supervision (Foulds, Sanders, & Williams, 1991). They all promote the notion of working together with a student in a spirit of inquiry and challenge toward the promotion of mutual learning which should be an enabling and empowering process (Sawdon, 1991), a process which can occur in several ways.

Practice teachers hold critical roles in facilitating students to negotiate a valid and rigorous route to demonstrated competence. For example, credit accumulation and transfer (CATS) schemes (Raban, 1990), assessment of prior experiential learning (Simosko, 1991), and employment learning contracts to accredit current practice (Raban, 1990) all offer candidates more flexibility and greater access to social work qualifications from the widest range of backgrounds. These options serve to make training more responsive to the needs of employers, leading to charges that employer-led programmes will focus on training students for the technical and instrumental requirements of the social work task rather than educating students to be critical, analytical and creatively adaptable (Raban, 1990; Jones, 1993). However, it could be argued that employer-led models will become increasingly important in light of the major changes to social work delivery required by the market place approaches of *Caring for People* (Department of Health, 1989).

Curriculum Designs

The development of curriculum designs that are integrated, coherent and encourage the transfer of learning are more necessary than ever to protect and promote the education of professionals "who can think and work across the boundaries of methods, setting and target groups" (Coulshed, 1988, p. 160). Coulshed (1988) envisions practice curricula that moves students from anecdotal case descriptions toward helping them to analyse, synthesize and critically evaluate theory, their own practice and that which they encounter in organisations. Whittington (1986) raises the concern that little is done to teach students the conceptual skill of recognising generalisations from the particular situations encountered during training. Richards (1988) cautions that social work is not a mechanical, automatic set of actions but requires sensibilities in the worker to use his/her personality alongside problem-solving

capacities. And Satyamurti (1983) is troubled that some students graduate from professional training courses uncomfortable and defensive about feelings, personal involvement and self-disclosure.

The practice curriculum developed by Butler and Elliott (1985) offers a framework that is both theoretical and practical consisting of five skill areas, twelve basic life situations and four contexts of practice. It represents an attempt to provide a systematic framework for selecting learning opportunities and increasing competence at the point of qualification. Doel (1988) proposes a Practice Curriculum which details content and methods for practice-based learning for social work students in the form of a prospectus consisting of six units. It includes a timetable to pace the course content over a number of placements and the use of practice assignments to assess student progress unit by unit.

Linked to the debates about the need to facilitate integration, transfer and learning to learn is the debate about sequencing. Rather than leaving practice learning to the chance occurrence of opportunities appearing at the right time in the placement, Doel (1990) argues the case for careful planning, sequencing and the conscious use of teaching methods. This model of a practice-led curriculum would reduce the potential for learning poor practice which he believes has been consistently underestimated in social work education. Doel (1987b) also suggests that a sequence of teaching, learning and practising should be used to counteract the serendipitous nature of the placement. Richards (1988) proposes a different sequencing model recommending a combination of a foundation unit and non-hierarchical modules. These authors espouse the need to teach *about* practice as well as *for* practice; hence, the notion of a practice led curriculum (Phillipson, 1988).

Practice Teachers: Key Figures in the Practice Learning Equation

"The role of the practice teacher as the bridge between academic and practice sub-cultures is ripe for creative development" (Sawdon, 1991, p. 79). Sawdon and Sawdon (1987, p. 4) raise two important questions regarding the factors that make for a good practice learning experience:

> To what extent are the agencies in collaboration with educational institutions able to offer a suitable learning environment for the development of student potential and practice competence?

> To what extent do the individual parties involved have the knowledge, skills
> and commitment to make use of and develop that environment?

It has been argued that the core qualities for effective practice teaching lie in the practice teacher's own competence as a social work practitioner (Fisher, 1990). But training programmes can only do so much and cannot compensate for qualities which are not there at the outset. "The success of the placement hinges not only upon formal working agreements, good supervision and the completion of assessed work, but also on the relationship between practice teacher, student and tutor and the unspoken rules of engagement which underlie these activities" (McBeath & Webb, cited in Bell & Webb, 1992, p. 30).

Roles and Functions of Practice Teachers

Gardiner's (1989) study appears to support the view that students learn best with practice teachers who are clear enough and confident enough about their own practice and knowledge base to adapt their teaching in response to the students' learning needs and learning style. The extended period of training that CCETSW-approved practice teacher courses provide could offer the opportunity for practice teachers to consolidate and articulate their own practice view and to clarify and own their practice competencies. In examining helpful and unhelpful practice teaching styles from students' perspectives, Secker (1992, p. 13) found the most helpful style was "when teachers were warm and reassuring, and challenged the students to develop and justify their own ideas about cases, rather than telling them what to think." This style requires time, patience and a 'hands-on' approach to allow the process of learning and reflecting to unfold. There is general agreement in the literature on the four key functions of the practice teacher role: manager, teacher, enabler and assessor (Collins & Ottley, 1986; Fisher, 1990; Pettes, 1979). All four functions entail a range of associated tasks which change with the phases of the placement process. In order to promote students' learning and to engage effectively in the monitoring and assessment tasks, Fisher (1990) offers a framework in which to locate and develop helpful supervisory skills based on the key elements of respect, feedback, challenge and modelling. Brodie (1993) suggests, on the basis of his study of the content of supervision sessions, that practice teachers need to become more confident and competent at articulating their practice assumptions and this should form part of training in practice teaching.

There is a shift away from supervision to more active teaching on the part of the practice teacher resulting in a more structured, time-consuming and demanding involvement (Shardlow

& Doel, 1992). Consider, for example, the implications of having to produce evidence that their students have achieved their competencies. Even though there are many able and experienced social workers who would make ideal practice teachers, they neither have the time nor the incentive to take on the extra responsibility (Mitchell, 1992). Weinstein (quoted by Mitchell, 1992, p. 21) believes some of the main stumbling blocks are workload relief and the cost of training. "Training," she states, "is labour intensive because . . . each practice teacher trainee has to have someone supervising their practice and observing them supervising a student."

Supply and Demand Concerns

New practice teachers may react negatively to having their work with students scrutinised and assessed, especially if there is no organisational recognition in terms of status and salary (Davies & Kinloch, 1991). It is possible that the accreditation system will reduce the numbers of practice teachers since some may be selected out, others may be deterred by the process, others may not be allowed study leave, and others may consider it pointless to undertake the work involved in accommodating a student on top of their regular workload (Fisher, 1990). Furthermore, concern is being expressed over the cost and amount of time given to practice teacher training programmes at a time when agency commitments and resources are doubtful (Sawdon, 1991). These concerns appear to echo the past with reference to Brandon's (1976) comments about the widening gulf between educators and practitioners in his criticism of the poor quality of supervision available for students and the number of social work educators who have become disillusioned with the directions of the profession.

In recent years there has been a growing emphasis on improving the supply, quality and effectiveness of practice placements (FCDRC, 1991; McCarthy & Walker, 1994; Weinstein, 1992). In response to this concern, a national framework has been created to plan the teaching, assessing and accrediting of practice teachers. The National Organisation for Practice Teaching has worked alongside CCETSW to encourage the development and recognition of practice teaching (Mitchell, 1992). This development has been supported by the introduction of training for practice teachers with the aim that all practice teachers will earn the practice teaching award. Eventually all students on social work qualifying courses will receive their practice learning under the supervision of an accredited practice teacher working in an agency which is approved by CCETSW for that purpose. To obtain the

CCETSW practice teaching award, a 150-hour, CCETSW-approved course can be taken or experienced practice teachers can put together a portfolio of their work containing evidence of competence in practice teaching.

Partnership and Collaboration in Practice Learning

In a culture which has promoted purchaser-provider relationships in a range of settings partnerships assume more attention to value for money (Payne, 1994). The Keele University (1989) survey of agencies noted that the underfunding of higher education and the expectation that colleges will move toward self-funding has meant that the relationship between colleges and agencies is becoming more businesslike. The notion of partnership and collaboration is advanced in the DipSW but this too needs examination (Payne, 1994; Walker et al., 1995).

The idea of partnerships of educational institutions and agencies can be seen as an attempt to achieve a number of ends, such as raising the status of agencies so that they take joint responsibility practice teaching. The notion of partnership could encourage agencies to put more resources into student placements and ensure continuity and permanency for a continuing supply of student placements. Partnerships also represent a means by which senior management could exert influence on the future shape of social work education. However, the Walker et al. (1995) study found the aspect of 'equality' extremely difficult to realise because the two cultures of the agency and the academy are so intrinsically different.

In response the agencies see themselves delivering more of their own training, including practice teaching, and will buy in college staff as consultants or trainers. College-based courses will have to meet the needs of agencies in terms of content and cost effectiveness, and will have to be delivered at times that are convenient to agencies. Working in partnerships to deliver qualifying courses means compromise and consensus building. In turn, tensions and frustrations have continued to emerge but there are signs of positive support at the managerial level (Walker et al., 1995).

Training Practice Teachers

A content analysis of the curricula of approximately 20 practice teacher courses shows they have two basic features: theoretical input and supervised practice. The content explores the role change from practitioner to practice teacher and addresses five main areas: issues related to practice teaching and social work education; the process of learning as an adult and as a

professional; principles and practices of working with students in placement; supervision processes and methods; and evaluation of progress and assessment of competence. Additionally, all courses are to be CCETSW approved, must incorporate anti-oppressive content, and find ways to infuse it throughout the course. The support and solidarity that participants give to each other through group process has emerged as an important feature of practice teacher courses (Humphreys & Morton, 1991). Courses must also be clear about their selection criteria and processes as well as the assessment and accrediting processes and requirements.

The assumption that a good practitioner will automatically be an effective practice teacher is being challenged by these requirements of extensive training and accreditation (Davis, 1983). Prior to the CCETSW decision to upgrade practice teaching, courses for practice teachers were short, cheap to run and non-assessed (Humphreys & Morton, 1991). Standards of supervision varied enormously and while some agencies had created a sophisticated system of selecting, training and appointing practice teachers, others paid little regard to this function (Davis, 1983). Almost half of the practice teachers used during 1992-93 were not accredited by their agencies and only 16% were holders of the practice teacher award; almost one in two had spent less than five days being trained for their practice teaching role (McCarthy & Walker, 1994). Yet students' satisfaction with practice teachers was not significantly related to whether practice teachers had attended training or held the practice teacher award (Walker et al., 1995), a most discouraging finding indeed.

Specialist Posts

The emergence of various new specialist appointments and posts to develop an agency's practice teaching policy and provision (Bastien & Blyth, 1989; Jack, 1986) and the development of contracted practice learning centres (CCETSW, 1990c; Preston Shoot, 1989) are means of operationalising a formalised recognition of practice teaching. Despite massive effort to develop, approve and offer practice teacher training courses and portfolio routes to the award, a fundamental problem remains. There continues to be a chronic shortage of good practice teachers and practice placements (Borrill, O'Sullivan & Sleeman, 1991). When researching this issue, Bell and Webb (1992) try to redress the negative and positive perceptions of practice teachers about taking students on placement, an area that they perceive has been neglected in the literature. They found that rewards and costs of taking on a student were similar to what others have established (Gray, 1987; Slater, 1992).

The rewards for practice teachers include satisfaction from working with the student; contribution to the development of social work practice; the prospect of promotion; and status conferred by the validation of their own practice. The negative features include lack of resources and support; inadequate preparation and understanding of programme providers' expectations; superficial divisions of labour between colleges and agencies; a non user-friendly environment; the sense of isolation; and lack of recognition. While practice teachers in the Bell and Webb (1992) study clearly aspire to the standards of providing good quality training for students on placement, they openly acknowledge the deficit and inadequacies of their personal knowledge base. In addition to this, they found that practice teachers have few opportunities to develop a comparative reference group with other practice teachers and are frustrated by the lack of recognition (Bell & Webb, 1992).

A Multidisciplinary Approach

In 1990, a multi-disciplinary committee was established by CCETSW to promote joint training of practice teachers from various professions (Weinstein, 1990). Evaluations of some of the joint projects identify areas of commonalities in practice teaching, such as principles of learning and teaching; how to supervise; how to assess; and communication skills for educators (Weinstein, 1991a). These core elements and joint initiatives have the potential of raising the profile of practice teaching across professional boundaries and may mark the way for future directions (Weinstein, 1994).

The training of practice teachers is a developing arena. Any initiatives, given the high costs of training and the impact practice teaching has on future generations of social workers, should be based on sound research and systematic consultation (Gardiner, 1989; Shardlow & Doel, 1992).

Developing and Maintaining High Quality Placements

The availability (or lack thereof) of high quality practice learning opportunities has been the subject of much debate and research for many years as placements occupy approximately 50% of the time spent on social work courses. Related to this are a number of studies that reveal inconsistencies in the provision, training and support of practice teachers (FCDRC, 1991; Johnson, 1989; McCarthy & Walker, 1994; Perry, 1990; Raynor, 1992; Walker et al., 1995; Weinstein, 1992). Problems such as inadequacy of supply owing to pressure on agencies, the

absence of quality monitoring in practice teaching, and the turnover of practice teachers, are recurrent themes in the literature. For example, Perry (1990) found that sufficient places are not made available and that provision is too dependent on the goodwill of practice teachers.

The Turnover Concern: Approaches to Placement Provision

Two approaches to placement provision have been identified as the "agency obligation" approach, where senior management commits to providing placements as a core activity and are seen as a mainstream responsibility of the organisation; and, the "grace and favour" approach, where placements are seen as a favour done for colleges and practice teaching is seen as a marginal activity (Raynor, 1992, p. 25). In this approach, placements depend on personal contacts and whims of individuals (Grimwood & Fletcher, 1987). When practice teaching is seen as an optional extra activity that social workers are expected to carry out in addition to their normal workload, practitioners rarely agree to take on this commitment more than once or twice. The result is a high rate of turnover among qualified social workers (CCETSW, 1991c). Syson and Baginsky (1981, p. 32) when summarising the situation of the early 1980s in their major study of practice placements noted, "CCETSW's concern that an overall shortage of placements combined with a high turnover of practice teachers might be limiting the number of opportunities available to courses."

A comprehensive survey of practice teaching in Wales found deficiencies in the supply of certain kinds of placements, wide variations in agency provision, and an uneven pattern of placement support (Raynor, 1992). Statutory agencies may regard the educative function as a further burden to their already stretched resources or as an add-on to their main function of providing direct social services. Tensions further increase if the finite resources available for direct service delivery are redirected for training as the benefits of training are not always readily apparent.

The Effects of the Approval of Agencies

CCETSW commissioned an independent evaluation of the effects of the approval of agencies for practice learning provision and the training of practice teachers. The overall aim was to "measure the improvements in the quality of practice learning throughout the UK, with specific reference to: support of practice learning; the number and range of practice placements, arrangements for obtaining placements; the number of black practice teachers; the turnover of practice teachers; and the costs of placement provision" (Walker et al., 1995,

p. xi). Of particular interest is that at end of 1991 there were 38 approved practice teaching programmes, 477 people holding the practice teacher award, and 31 approved agencies. By April, 1994 there were 48 approved practice teacher programmes, 2,167 people holding the practice teacher award, and 119 approved agencies (Walker et al., 1995).

Agency constraints coupled with a national shortage of placements has created a culture where there is an inevitable compromise of willingness to take a student over quality and competence of the practice teacher. From the point of view of practice teachers, the "most widespread and deeply rooted concern amongst [them] was the lack of time and space to do the job properly" (Williamson, Jefferson, Johnson, & Shabbaz, 1989, p. 32). This echoes earlier studies where few practice teachers had any workload relief for taking students (Syson & Baginsky, 1981). The high turnover rate of practice teachers has been attributed to limited recognition, abuse of goodwill and new awareness of the critical demands of the task (Clapton, 1989). Elliott's (1988) study of singleton practice teachers found problems related to workload relief for practice teachers and a lack of support for practice teaching as a valued agency function. These findings are supported elsewhere in the literature (Evans & Kearney, 1988; Lewis & Loughran, 1990; Thompson & Marsh, 1991).

A major problem in addressing the resource issue, however, is the lack of empirical evidence of the demands placed on practice teachers who provide student placements. One study found that "student placements can make a positive contribution to practice teachers and teams in terms of providing a stimulus, a source of challenge and reappraisal of various aspects of professional and organisational practices, which can be quite highly value"' (James, Morrissey, & Wilson, 1990, p. 108). These points have previously been argued by others who have concluded that the costs to the agency and the team of having a student are outweighed by the benefits (Shardlow, 1988; Slater, 1992).

Agencies sometimes justify placements on the grounds that the student will provide an extra pair of hands. This argument is highly spurious since students' contributions to the agency are offset by the time and energy of agency staff in providing adequate supervision and assessment (Blyth, 1980). The assumption that the traditional model of practice teaching, the one-to-one arrangement, is superior and the most preferable arrangement must be challenged when total costs, the turnover of practice teachers, and the demand for placements are considered.

71

The lack of qualified staff in some placements and the sheer need for placements by courses led to the creation of 'long-arm' supervision arrangements (Foulds, Sanders, & Williams, 1991). Initially, they developed as a way of getting around CCETSW regulations but it is likely that variations of this model might provide a basis for cost-effective practice teaching where the accredited practice teacher manages and coordinates a range of learning experiences for a number of students involving a variety of staff who may or may not be accredited. Practice teaching may also be seen as a step to other supervisory or managerial positions so it may be that a social worker will undertake student supervision not because they are particularly interested in it but for career development reasons. Practice teaching is unlikely to develop any level of expertise until practice teaching is seen as a worthwhile activity in itself and not simply a launching pad for careers in management (Shardlow & Doel, 1992).

The Centrality of Practice Teaching

Given this context, it is not surprising that the UK has produced only a small number of social workers with expertise in practice teaching. Yet, the research indicates that practice teaching is central to the preparation of qualified social workers, especially from the perspective of the students (Davies, 1984; Evans, 1987). For example, Shaw and Walton (1979) questioned former social work students about the types of social work experience they had found most useful to their practice and found that supervision on placement as a student to be the second most helpful experience after post-qualification practice.

A central element in the planning and development of the DipSW are the initiatives to improve the quality and quantity of practice teaching (Gray, 1987). Solutions are seen in terms of the development of funded training and accreditation systems to improve the status and supply of practice teachers. However, good placements appear to remain in short supply. A survey in 1992 estimates the shortfall at 1000 places or one-fifth of the students entering courses (Murray, 1992). Most studies on the topic of placement quantity and quality conclude with the recommendation that more thorough, nationally based research needs to be undertaken to monitor placement needs and resources.

Assessing Student Learning and Competence

In the United Kingdom, attempts have been made to specify particular knowledge, skills and tasks in which the student should show proficiency (for example, Butler & Elliott, 1985, pp.

88-92). The literature on practice assessment is not extensive and is largely prescriptive, although there are notable contributions (Curnock & Prins, 1982; Evans, 1990; Shardlow, 1987). It becomes apparent in reviewing this literature that there are two broad purposes of assessment: to ensure standards of entry into the profession and to promote learning. Both require some demonstration of competence and evidence of achievement. There does appear, however, to be some doubt about the precise nature of the criteria and evidence being used to make judgements regarding competence (Heraud, 1981).

Despite college guidelines, practice teachers in one study displayed a marked lack of agreement about essential assessment criteria and many were not confident in what they were assessing (Williamson et al., 1989). Earlier studies also noted that the lack of clear criteria and lack of rigour are considered as deficiencies in the assessment of practice (Brandon & Davies, 1979; Syson & Baginsky, 1981). Others have written about the very difficult task and the problems associated with evaluating competence but offer little guidance (Ackhurst, 1978; Millard, 1972, 1978). Evans (1990, p. 57) notes the practice teacher has one main assessment function, "to assess not only 'competence in practice' but also the higher order skills of learning for transfer, integrating theory and practice, reflecting on and evaluating practice, necessary for competence in practice" and offers several suggestions for achieving this perplexing and exacting task.

Assessment Concerns

Concerns have often focused on the quality of student assessment, perhaps seeing this as a key indicator of practice teaching quality (Thompson & Marsh,1991). In the seminal study by Brandon and Davies (1979), it was clear that students were passing placements who should not be and that the overall quality of placements needed a careful assessment. They drew attention to fact that students who are marginal are given the benefit of the doubt.

Further evidence for concern was provided by Morrell (1980), whose sample of supervisors indicated that there were no grounds for failure of a final placement, and as recent studies have confirmed, these issues have not gone away (Evans, 1990). Baird (1990), believing a higher failure rate on placement should be expected, suggests it is a basic obligation to fail students who cannot prove their helping abilities. Even Young (1967) writes that some students cannot be allowed to qualify but she provides no real guidance about which students

73

are unfit to do so. According to Pettes (1967, 1979) failures are rare, but she does not consider whether this may be due to passing some who are not up to standard.

A study of current methods, skills and knowledge used by practice teachers to evaluate the competence of social work students found "a reliance on intuition, and implicit personality factors as opposed to explicit, measurable criteria" (Williamson et al., 1989, p. 45). Complicating the matter further is the resistance on the part of practice teachers and tutors to be judges and assessors (Milner & O'Byrne, 1986), although there is a proliferation of prescriptions for how to assess, such as direct access to students' work (Biggs & Weinstein, 1991; Minty, Glynn, Huxley, & Hamilton, 1988); use of assessment panels and portfolios (Borland, Hudson, Hughes, & Worrall, 1988; Doel & Shardlow, 1989; Rowntree, 1987); incorporating client feedback (Baird, 1990); and the viva voce (Millard, 1978; Minty et al., 1988).

Fairness in Assessment

In a major study of assessment, Hayward (1979) concluded that the most effective way of achieving a fair assessment would be through teamwork combining staff, student, and academic and practice teachers. In spite of the fairness a collaborative effort would ensure, Doel (1987a) thinks the assessment, as contained in the final report, is flawed because it is a singular event which tries to capture a lengthy and continuous period of progress and performance. He notes, "The practice teacher is expected to teach and assess a huge mousse of integrated theory and practice, usually incorporating dictums from moral and political philosophy, bits of working in organisations, a dash of interpersonal skill development, small slices of social groupwork and large tranches of half-baked sociology and psychology" (1987a, p. 13).

Doel (1987a) recommends a move toward practice assignments which would provide for continual, various, student-made assessments and away from the final report which is a retrospective, singular, teacher-made assessment. Shardlow & Doel (1993) extend this vision with a model of examining competencies based upon triangulation of evidence. The whole debate about competence challenges educators, practice teachers and managers to be clear about what is and is not acceptable competent-enough practice.

The regulations governing the DipSW require colleges and agencies to collaborate in preparing assessment proposals and undertaking the assessment of students (CCETSW, 1991b, p. 25). CCETSW requires a student's practice to be directly and systematically observed by a practice teacher and specifies that the practice teacher must base the assessment report on selected aspects of the student's practice which have been directly observed by the practice teacher (CCETSW, 1991b, p. 26). The paramount emphasis on assessment in the DipSW demonstrates to the public the profession's responsible attempts to guarantee standards, produce an effective workforce and reflects a much tougher view about accountability in the wider society (Doherty, Pierce, & Smith, 1994; Murphy & Torrance, 1988).

Anti-discriminatory Practice Teaching and Learning

There are many difficult challenges facing social work educationalists with reference to anti-discriminatory practice teaching and learning (Balen, Brown, & Taylor, 1993; Phillipson, 1992). Attempts to end racial inequity and other forms of discrimination have become formalised through CCETSW's requirements for the DipSW and through literature and educational materials intended to guide practitioners toward anti-discriminatory social work (CCETSW, 1991b, 1991d, 1991e). At present there is a situation where practice teachers who do not know about anti-racist social work are expected to supervise students in placements which do not provide opportunities for anti-racist practice (Ferns, 1990; Kingston, 1992). Additionally, they are expected to assess students' competence in ethnically sensitive practice and in combatting discrimination (CCETSW, 1991b).

Implementing the Policies

A crucial area of work to be undertaken is that of implementing equal opportunities policies and the development of anti-discriminatory strategies and practice in relation to practice teaching (Addison, Rosen, & Welchman, 1990). This is a major test for the process of accreditation of practice teaching and approval of agencies. The absence of black tutors, black practice teachers and the lack of a black perspective in the curriculum exacerbates the problem (Kingston, 1992; Macauley-Hayes & Gray, 1991; Walker et al., 1995). Anti-oppressive practice requires the adoption of explicit values that acknowledge and identify with oppressed groups. Taking a neutral stance on oppression is clearly unacceptable. Yet, this stance conflicts with values based on liberal ideas about freedom, tolerance and individualism (Jordan, 1991; Thompson, 1993). Within this socio-political context, practice teachers are

expected to "help students to develop anti-racist, anti-sexist and other forms of anti-discriminatory practice, and the capacity to work effectively within a multi-racial and multi-ethnic society" (CCETSW, Paper 26.3, 1989b, p. 10).

Given that social work frequently caricatures black people such that their lives, struggles and cultures are either pathologised or romanticised, the first step is the recognition and deconstruction of "the stereotyping processes that comprise the ideology of institutional racism" (Weinstein, 1991b, p. 8). The challenge is to examine how age, class, race, gender and disability are reflected in questions of access, selection, teaching, learning and assessment (Sawdon, 1991). This involves the recognition of the existence of oppression in our own backyard, that is, in the systems of educating, training and practising social work, and struggling with the implications (Humphries, 1988). A key part of Paper 30 (CCETSW, 1991b) is the systematic attempt to introduce specific anti-racist, anti-discriminatory requirements into the DipSW. This follows a decade of struggles and critiques of social work and social work education. Implementation of these requirements is a challenging and complex task.

Problems and Omissions

According to the Bradford Post Qualifying Partnership (1991, pp. 24-5), there are both advantages and problems with the requirements. The following points are seen as welcome and of particular importance:

1)   Racism is seen as a fundamental problem structuring social work policies and practices.

2)   Paper 30 posits a subtle understanding of ethnic sensitivity and cultural differences set in the context of understanding racism.

3)   Through the concept of structural oppression, Paper 30 seeks to connect racism to oppressions based on class and gender.

4)   Paper 30 rejects a 'technicist' understanding of anti-racist social work which sees racism as a static set of policies and practices.

There are also problems associated with the anti-racism statements in Paper 30, according to the Bradford Partnership (1991, pp. 25-6):

Insufficient attention is given to a clear and precise definition of 'anti-racist social work' leading to a number of connected problems:

•   it is unclear what is meant by race;

- the difference between 'non-discriminatory,' 'anti-discriminatory' and 'anti-oppressive' practices is not addressed by Paper 30; and,

- the concept of 'black perspectives' is entirely absent, i.e., some notion of the ethnocentrism, and its eurocentric and anglocentric nature, of the knowledge of social work should have been clearly stated.

Other omissions encompass Jordan's (1991) concern that there is little under values or competencies that requires students to learn how to share with a diverse group of colleagues, to negotiate with and support clients, to work informally and democratically, and to inspire cooperation and trust. Another difficulty to be faced is how to teach to the requirements in a predominantly white area (Orme, 1991).

In response to these problems and omissions, Humphreys and Morton (1991) developed a matrix model for presenting material to practice teachers with an anti-oppressive, equal opportunity base that was more than token inputs and could permeate the practice teachers course. They found that course participants needed to have explored their own attitudes and values with reference to race, class, age, disability and gender before coming onto the course. This type of exploration in and of itself is not the main purpose of practice teaching courses, but if not previously addressed becomes the focal point of the course.

Advancing the Cause

Mullard's (1991) outline of the attempt to advance the anti-racist, anti-discriminatory agenda include elements which any model of anti-racist social work model should possess: definitional elements to construct a clear conceptual vocabulary; contextual elements to provide a historical framework for understanding racism; propositional elements that affirms the value of blackness; phenomenal elements to address the phenomena of racism, sexism and classism; relational elements to examine the relationships amongst race, class and gender; and transformational elements to address the issues and nature of change. Other endeavours entail using an Afro-centric perspective in social work training (Ramsey, 1992); analyses of language and the role it plays in reflecting societal attitudes (Campbell & Rose, 1992); the use of forums and group process to address questions of difference (Brummer & Simmonds, 1992); the development of assignments (Grinter & Raynor, 1993); and, the application of a code of practice to promote anti-racist practice (Ahmed, Hallett, Statham, & Watt, 1988).

Efforts are underway to recruit more black practice teachers and to champion initiatives to encourage and support practice teaching amongst black workers (Ferns, 1990; Mitchell, 1992). Kwhali (1991, pp. 42-3) believes it is the responsibility of those involved in social work education to guarantee that race becomes a mainstream issue by:

- ensuring that students coherently and systematically acquire a fundamental understanding of the causes of racism and not simply its effects in order to cultivate the potential for constructive change, rather than multicultural and compensatory practice;

- ensuring that black students have a relevant training and educational experience that acknowledges the reality of their own histories and personal engagement with racism; black students require specific skills and knowledge to manage their oppressive and minority experience within a profession that regularly looks to its black staff to initiate and sustain change on race issues while denying those staff the structures, influence, support and learning that might make change possible.

Thus, there needs to be a wider representation of people involved in courses and a more participative approach in relation to local black communities and service agencies (Ferns, 1990) as black practitioners and practice teachers often work in isolation, and black students are unfairly called upon to be the experts on black issues (de Souza, 1991; Macauley-Hayes & Gray, 1991).

The duty to confront racism in social work is particularly essential in student placements. The central issue of racism must be linked with the ever-present issue of the imbalance of power endemic in student/practice teacher relationships (Cotgrove & Teague, 1990). It is the responsibility of the tutor and the practice teacher to initiate discussion with a black student about his/her experience of oppression. Black students do not require practice and assessment standards to be compromised, neither do they require preferential treatment. They face a very demanding and oppressive world and they need to be confident that they are equipped by their social work education to deal with it (Cotgrove & Teague, 1990). Thus, black students need learning environments and learning opportunities that recognises the life experiences they bring (de Souza, 1991) and empowers them to develop a professional identity and meet the expectations and objectives of their programmes.

There is a recognition of the injustices and inequalities of British society in CCETSW's Paper 30 (1991b) and Paper 26.3 (1989b). These papers require that newly qualified social workers and their practice teachers must be trained to acknowledge, understand and act against

discrimination in all of its forms. It is clear from the literature that implementing these requirements is fraught with difficulties, tensions and challenges. Notwithstanding the work yet to be done, CCETSW's guidelines have upgraded the teaching of anti-discriminatory social work practice and ensures that students have practice learning opportunities to confront individual and institutional oppression in agencies with accredited, experienced and trained practice teachers.

Practice Learning the British Way

According to Blyth (1980), 25 years ago the main contributors to social work theory (assuming that such a contribution can reliably be judged in terms of authorship of papers in social work journals) were practitioners. Currently the academics are the main contributors to the social work literature. It is difficult to identify precise reasons for the decline in the part played by practitioners but Blyth (1980) speculates it could be that theory has little relevance for practice or that practitioners simply do not have the time. Shaw and Walton (1979) found that practitioners rarely read any social work literature, let alone give any thought to producing any. However, there is no dearth of literature in practice teaching and it is relevant and helpful to practitioners and academics alike.

This literature is largely descriptive and prescriptive in nature, although there are a growing number of empirically based research studies. Most of this research, however, is confined to a single programme or a particular geographic location and suffers from the methodological problems associated with small samples. There does appear to be a serious attempt to examine practice teaching and its salient sub-themes as well as consider the impact and implications of CCETSW's policies, guidelines and requirements in relation to social work education and training in the United Kingdom.

FIELD EDUCATION NORTH AMERICAN STYLE

A review of the North American literature has yielded contributions to field education in the areas of models and approaches, and field instruction and supervision methods, which also draws on the adult education literature. There is a rich literature pertaining to field instructors in terms of their roles, the dynamics of the relationship between field instructors and students, and their commitment to field education. There is a limited literature on

training field instructors beginning to evolve and some national and international studies of issues and trends in field education.

A good deal of the literature is in the form of discussion of issues with some actual studies. Thus, little is known empirically about what factors make for a positive learning experience in the field practicum. According to Shatz (1989, p. xxvi), we have ". . . very limited understanding of what makes for the change from a student who is exploring how to practice into a practitioner . . . [and] we don't have a body of knowledge that is backed by solid analysis of hard data." More recently, general collections of empirical studies and contemporary issues have been published, contributing significantly to the knowledge base on field education (Raskin, 1989; Rogers, 1995; Schneck, Grossman, & Glassman, 1991). Guides for field instructors have contributed to the development of a specific knowledge and skill base (Bogo & Vayda, 1993; Shulman, 1993; Urbanowski & Dwyer, 1988; Wilson, 1981). Texts specifically directed at students to assist them in understanding the models and applying the approaches of field education have also begun to appear on the market (Collins, Thomlison, & Grinnell, 1992; Royse, Dhooper, & Rompf, 1993).

The field education component of the curriculum of schools of social work makes two distinct contributions to the overall education of students. First, it provides an opportunity to test the knowledge, values and skill studied in the classroom; and second, it makes possible new learning that can be analysed in the classroom to confirm, refute, modify, or build upon existing theories and methods (Hamilton & Else, 1983). Social work educators through the years have been influenced by educational theories and practices guiding the design and structure of both the academic and practice teaching components of social work programs (Rodway, 1981). These have been the driving forces underlying the models and approaches which individual schools of social work have adopted since there is no national policy directing the objectives and structure of field education.

Models and Approaches to Field Education in Schools of Social Work

Various writers have defined the objectives of field education within the social work curriculum. Schubert (1965) makes a sharp distinction between an apprenticeship emphasis on procedures and techniques and the educational emphasis on understanding the principles underlying the procedures. Simon (1966, p. 398) developed five objectives that provide a

synthesis of many authors. His work has stood the test of time since all that has come after it appears to restate his original set of expectations of students in field education.

The student is expected to:

1. To develop his [/her] ability to use knowledge for practice and to enhance his [/her] understanding of theory and principles;

2. To learn to analyse and assess his [/her] own professional performance in the light of his [/her] understanding of the values of the profession in order to establish a basis for continued, self-directed professional development;

3. To experience, learn and incorporate the discipline of self-awareness necessary to the development and use of purposeful professional relationships;

4. To attain a sense of professional identity through understanding and incorporating professional values to control his [/her] practice;

5. To develop curiosity, a critical approach to theory and practice, receptivity to new ideas and the need to test them, concern for the way new knowledge has been obtained, and responsibility for continuous learning.

Features of Field Instruction

Also withstanding the test of time, Finestone (1967) identifies four selected features of all field instruction summarised as: a method of teaching that stresses learning of generalisations drawn from specific related experiences; a range of content that reflects the total social work curriculum; attention not only to what is currently known and practised but also to the preparation of students for changes in the knowledge base, organisation of services and methods of practice; and provisions not only for reflection of the class curriculum but also for feedback and impact on class curriculum. To meet these objectives, a working partnership between classroom instructors (faculty) and field instructors (practitioners) is necessary.

The way in which these partnerships are practised is reflected in the choices made by schools regarding the models and approaches employed. The objectives of field education are operationalised by schools through the models and approaches they adopt. Descriptions of the various models and approaches used in field instruction range from general commentaries on supervisory frameworks (Berl, 1979), to more teaching-orientated works (Middleman & Rhodes, 1985), to discussion of the various components involved in field education (Sheafor & Jenkins, 1982; Wilson, 1981).

Work focused on models of field instruction include Henry's (1975) examination of field work models ranging from practicum experience gained in single agencies to more diversified opportunities. Carroll and McCuan (1975) discuss a field instruction model based on role functions, while Tucker, Hart, and Liddle (1976) discuss the implementation of a group model of student supervision for use in family therapy settings. Wijnberg and Schwartz (1977) identify three models of student supervision—apprentice, growth and role systems—while Sheafor and Jenkins (1982) outline the experiential, academic and articulated models of field instruction. Bogo and Vayda (1986) add the competency-based approach to the above mentioned models.

Choosing an Approach: Considering the Implications

The extent of literature on which model or approach to field education is most conducive to the transfer and integration of knowledge and practice and professional development underscores the relative importance of the structure of the field component as well as the content and process. Gordon and Gordon (1989, p. 33) assert the notion of "knowing well before doing" and suggest that students not be placed in the field immediately upon entering a social work course. They further argue that the probability of students integrating classroom and field experiences is greatly enhanced when classroom and field teachers teach from common frames of reference. How to most effectively achieve transfer and integration has been the subject of considerable debate and the few empirical studies have contributed, although inconclusively, regarding models and approaches facilitating learning (Gordon & Gordon, 1989; Grossman & Barth, 1991; Rodway & Rogers, 1993; Tolson & Kopp, 1988)

Rothman (1977) believes that for the profession to fully mature, the approach to field education has to shift from a situation in which education is controlled by practitioners emphasising skills and apprenticeship to one in which education is under university control and intellectual concepts and principles are given greatest emphasis. This notion was taken to the extreme in the 1960s when several American schools developed teaching centres using faculty-based field instructors instead of the long-standing approach of using agency practitioners, launching a long debate about whether field instructors should be agency based or faculty based (Cassidy, 1969).

One Canadian school operated a faculty-based model until very recently. A study of this programme provided evidence that the priorities of university-based field instructors are more

likely related to the goal of the development of an autonomous professional, whereas agency-based field instructors' priorities are related to the service goals of getting the job done (Rachlis, 1988). Today, the vast majority of field instruction is done in social agencies and the majority of field instructors are agency based. But, the vestiges of the struggle to maintain an educational focus within a practice setting using practitioners as educators can be seen in the increased efforts to develop educational resources and articulate clearly defined roles for faculty and field instructors.

The Field Education Model and the Faculty Liaison Role

The approach a school takes to operationalising the faculty liaison (i.e., tutor) role also affects the transfer of knowledge from the classroom to the field and the integration of theory and practice. The faculty liaison is the individual assigned the role of linking the student and field instructor with the university. Several authors have indicated that the faculty liaison function is central and critical to facilitating the linkage between the practicum and classroom (Faria, Brownstein, & Smith, 1988; Rogers & McDonald, 1989a; Rosenblum & Raphael, 1983; Rosenfeld, 1988).

"The linkage function serves to enhance the practicum, so that it is not merely an apprentice-ship but also develops into an educational experience" (Smith, Faria, & Brownstein, 1986, p. 68). The liaison carries the "major responsibility for making any field situation work" (Gordon, 1982, p. 118). The liaison role has been called the "single most important link between class and field" (Fellin, 1982, p. 112). Rogers and McDonald (1989a) found that the single most important coefficient predicting field instructors' perception of students being prepared for professional practice was help with the learning process from the faculty liaison.

This literature supports the notion that the model and approach taken by a social work course and, in particular, the involvement by faculty in a liaison role, has an impact on integration, transfer of learning, and the quality and effectiveness of practice learning. The approach or model of field education structures how it is delivered, which in turn influences the methods used.

Methods of Field Instruction

With regard to methods of field instruction, this literature draws from two distinct sources: (1) adult learning theories and practices and, (2) casework theories and clinical supervision practices. The degree of emphasis on learning theories versus casework theories to guide the field instruction process appears to be related to the philosophical and ideological orientation of a particular school and the practice method(s) of choice used by the field instructor. In reviewing the early history of field education, several authors have noted the impact of the prevailing social, economic and political conditions as well as the influence of psychoanalytic followed by behavioural theories on the instructional and supervisory methods used by field instructors over time (George, 1982; Kendall, 1978; Schneck, 1991; Sikkema, 1966).

Student Satisfaction: A Valid Criteria or a Spurious Measure?

The supervision literature from psychology, counselling and social work sheds some light on numerous factors and variables associated with students' satisfaction with their field instructor and field placement (Fortune et al., 1985; Kadushin, 1974; Raskin, 1982). It provides constructive information about supervisory behaviours, attributes and qualities valued by students and supervisors, and preferred supervision models (for example, see: Ellison, 1994; Heppner & Roehlke, 1984; Kolezon, 1979; Lowy, 1983; Rosenblatt & Mayer, 1975; Rotholz & Werk, 1984; Thyer, Sowers-Hoag, & Love, 1986; Urbanowski & Dwyer, 1988; Worthington, 1984).

This contribution provides directions for field instructors but has relied extensively on student perception and recall of their experience. This requires, as Kadushin (1989, p. 6) so aptly noted in his criticism of studies of the satisfied student, "an element of faith in the validity of the connecting inferences suggesting that a satisfied student is synonymous with successful achievement of educational objectives." While some authors argue that student satisfaction is not a measure of quality, other authors suggest that the creation of an atmosphere that is conducive to learning is important. In this light, student satisfaction may be one indicator of a conducive learning atmosphere, thus making it an area of inquiry worthwhile considering.

Two recent studies reported in the literature examines students' expectations and their perceptions of field instructor effectiveness and experiences in field instruction. Knight and Glazer-Semmel (1990) report on BSW and MSW students' perceptions of effective field

supervision using the skills outlined by Shulman (1993) that are essential to good practice. The identified skills "reflect elements of the apprenticeship, therapist, and educational roles" (Knight & Glazer-Semmel, 1990, p. 2). Although all skills were found to be significant, six skills were found to be most influential: encouraging self-criticism; encouraging open discussion; understanding student feelings; partialising student concerns; sensing student feelings; and clarifying purpose. "The particular set of skills suggest that the primary function of the field instructor is indeed one of enabling the student to develop into an autonomous professional" (Knight & Glazer-Semmel, 1990, p. 16-17). Markowitz (1988) examined students' expectations and actual experiences in field instruction. The findings indicate that all "students' anticipations of field instruction . . . included both a relational and task oriented style to teaching on the part of the field instructor . . ." (Markowitz, 1988, p. 172). Although students wanted both styles, they seemed to want more emphasis on professional content over personal and that the field instructor would assume a more professional role with them rather than a personal one. Both of these studies reveal some differences in emphasis on what is desirable in field instruction from a student's point of view. The Knight and Glazer-Semmel study places more emphasis on being supportive, while the Markowitz study emphasises the tasks.

Parallel Process

Numerous writers have taken up the issue of parallels between the therapeutic and supervisory relationships and the notion of isomorphism in learning and clinical practice. This parallel process literature, most recently found in the family therapy training arena (Liddle, Breunlin, & Schwartz, 1988), has psychodynamic roots and has exercised influence in social work education. It re-visits the question of how much personal growth and work on one's own developmental issues needs to be completed as a part of professional education. And furthermore, raises the question of how much of the above work is to be facilitated, directed and subsequently assessed by the field instructor. Student supervision could, in advancing the personal/emotional growth agenda, look more like therapy than learning. Although in justifying this inclusion to the teaching supervisory plan, some would argue that 'clinical learning,' by definition, incorporates personal self-examination resulting in personal/emotional growth in order for the student to learn how to effectively use self in the development of self as a professional (Rubenstein, 1992; Saari, 1989).

It becomes apparent that the methods of field instruction and the styles of supervision in North America can be placed on a continuum ranging from viewing the student as a learner, to viewing the student as a new, inexperienced worker, to viewing the student as a client. How the student is viewed is closely related to how the field instructor behaves in relation to his/her understanding and perception of the role and responsibilities of a field instructor.

The Field Instructor: Role and Relationship Issues

The role of the field instructor is, in many ways, unique for its opportunity for practitioners to both demonstrate and discuss social work practice. The field curriculum is transmitted to students and field instructors by the academic institution in the form of objectives, competencies and/or outcomes. However, it usually is left to the field instructor to operationalise and implement the field curriculum within the context of the agency setting, according to school policy and adapted to the individual needs of the student. Faced with the competing demands of practice and education and little time for either, the field instructor must find the most expeditious methods for this instructional endeavour (Rogers & McDonald, 1992). This is often accomplished with little or no formal input by the academic institution.

Field instructors thereby select teaching methods based on how they were taught; what they think will be most effective; what fits with their practice orientation and world view; what suits the organisation's culture and policies; and what will get the job done. It is through the field practicum that professional socialisation occurs. Students in fieldwork begin to adopt the values and world view that characterise the profession and begin to internalise that professional role as part of their identity (Rogers & McDonald, 1989a). Faculty are unequivocal about the critical role of the field experience in integrating theory and practice (Fortune, 1988).

Field Instructors: Peripheral but Paramount

Several empirical studies confirm the importance of the field instructor as paramount in contributing to a positive field practicum experience (for example, see: Fortune et al., 1985; Polinger, 1991; Raskin, 1982, 1994). Field instructors are seen as essential to a social work programme but are peripheral to the faculty. Criticisms are found in the under-resourcing of this component of social work programmes. The notion of the field instructor as 'teacher'

has not been strongly advocated, as rarely in North America are they referred to as 'field teachers.' Often the terms 'field instructor' and 'field supervisor' are used interchangeably. More recently, the term 'field educator' has begun to appear. However, regardless of the terminology, field instructors are teachers and the objective is to teach (Dastyk-Blackmore, 1982). Maier (1981, p. 14) states that the "difference between field and classroom teaching and learning is no more than a variation in locality." According to Maier (1981, p. 15,18),

> . . . practicum instructors are challenged to teach rather than to supervise. In both classroom and practicum placements, students are scheduled, instructed, evaluated and credited for completion of field instruction. Therefore, it is necessary to view field instructors as a different kind of classroom instructor. The practicum instructor is the teacher, the student practitioner is the learner at the life laboratory called field work practice.

Viewing the field instructor as an educator rather than a supervisor is not a recent phenomenon, just one that may have slipped out of sight in favour of other approaches. Boehm, in 1959, differentiated between the role of field instructor and agency supervisor by suggesting that the field instructor helps the student use the agency programme for learning the practice of social work, while the agency supervisor helps the worker implement the agency programme on behalf of the client. A study by Hagen (1989) explored expected role behaviours of field instructors and the amount of time that should be expended in each role. Her study surveyed 16 social work schools across the United States and included students, field instructors, field liaisons, and agency administrators as respondents. All four groups identified ten role behaviours, categorised into five broad areas: orients student to agency; formal teaching; skill development; supervision and case selection; and evaluation of student (Hagen, 1989, p. 224). It becomes apparent that not only is the role important but also the relationship between the student and the field instructor plays a critical role in the teaching/learning process.

The Field Instructor/Student Relationship

There is a considerable range of material on the relationship between the field instructor and student in the social work literature. Nelson (1974) provides a discussion of relationship communication in early field work conferences, while Barnat (1973) discusses the supervisory relationship in the first year of practicum. Also of note amongst the early writing in this area is Follet's (1970) work on the different aspects and complexities of the instructor/student relationship. The psychological phenomena of transference and countertransference in the relationship has been the subject of investigation over the years (Austin, 1952 in Munson,

1979; Berl, 1979; Friedman, 1983; Rubenstein, 1992). Both Hawthorne (1975) and Kadushin (1968) produced seminal works on the 'gamesmanship' involved in the supervisor-supervisee relationship which has implications for the field instructor/student relationship. Fortune and her colleagues maintain that, "The instructor-student relationship often is the most intense, growth producing (or growth retarding), and memorable experience of a student's education" (Fortune et al., 1985, p. 93).

Rosenblatt and Mayer (1975), surveying students' responses to their field instructors, found four objectionable supervisory styles impacting their relationships with field instructors. One is constrictive, where the field instructor is too controlling. The second is amorphous, where there is a lack of clarifying feedback. The third style is unsupportive, and the fourth is therapeutic, where evaluating the student's work is bypassed in favour of focusing supervision on the student's personality. Yet, most supervisors, according to Kadushin (1992), are uncomfortable with evaluation because they may not feel capable or entitled to make an evaluation, may not want to hurt the student, and want to be liked by students. This may be part of the reason why so many field instructors find evaluation to be stressful and confusing (Gitterman & Gitterman, 1979).

In spite of the fact that there are relatively few studies that examine the selection or evaluation of field instructors, the importance of the participation of quality field instructors cannot be overestimated. As reflected in the literature, being a good practitioner does not always translate to being a 'quality' field instructor (Smith, 1981; Wilson, 1981). Given the function of the field instructor in terms of the role and relationship and the importance of the field component in social work education, identifying criteria for the selection of quality field instructors is vital.

Who Are the Field Instructors?

Field instructors are usually employees of the social agency in which the student is placed. Most schools require field instructors to hold a MSW degree but there are often exceptions made due to practical difficulties in certain locations and sites. Watt and Thomlison (1981), in their national study, found that 25% of the field instructors in Canadian schools of social work did not have a social work degree. A study of a single large social work programme in Canada (Rogers & McDonald, 1989b) found that 30% of the field instructors did not have a social work degree. Recent changes to CASSW accreditation standards (CASSW, 1993)

have attempted to strengthen the educational requirements of field instructors by requiring schools to articulate their responsibilities and plans when field instructors do not meet the expectation of holding a social work degree.

There have been a few studies in North America that have examined the validity of the requirement that field instructors must hold a social work degree (Raskin, 1982; Rogers & McDonald, 1989b; Smith & Baker, 1989; Strom, 1991; Thyer, Williams, Love, & Sowers-Hoag, 1989). Most of these studies, with the exception of one, found there were no significant differences related to the educational background of the field instructor, although they all admit serious methodological flaws in the research. The findings of the Rogers and McDonald (1989b) study (the only Canadian research) suggested that there were a number of significant differences between those field instructors with social work degrees and those without.

> Those field supervisors without professional social work degrees were less involved in the professional social work milieu. They did not belong to the professional association . . . they were found in less traditional agencies with fewer professional social work staff. In supervision they focused more on agency-related matters, whereas those with social work degrees focused more on social work values, building social work knowledge, and developing social work skills. In fact, the non-degree supervisors were more inclined to view the practicum as an opportunity for job training rather than educating students to become autonomous professionals. Overall, the field supervisors without social work degrees were far less critical of the entire educational process. (pp. 216-217)

Despite the inconclusiveness of these studies, when viewed together with the social work literature, there is a belief that field instructors play a vital role in socialising students to the profession and in transmitting key values (Bogo & Vayda, 1986; Sheafor & Jenkins, 1982; Wilson, 1981). Students need to gain a strong professional identity that comes from seeing the fundamentals of professional practice amplified and applied (Pilcher, 1982). Identifying those methods and behaviours most likely to enable this process and then communicating these to field instructors ought to ensure continuity and consistency in field education. This assumption is fraught with difficulties as carefully selecting and preparing field instructors does not guarantee a long-term commitment.

Once a Field Instructor, Always a Field Instructor?

Most often field instructors volunteer for the job and are not reimbursed monetarily by the school or the agency. Only in some cases does the agency provide some release time from

regular duties which only partially compensates for the amount of time the field instructor devotes to this teaching task. In essence, both the agency and the field instructor donate their time to the training of social work students. Maintaining a pool of competent field instructors and motivating them to continue to take students is a common problem faced by field directors and is related to the influence of school and agency culture (Lemberger & Marshack, 1989). There is evidence of concern about the high turnover rate amongst field instructors. Watt and Thomlison (1981) found that 47% of their national sample of Canadian field instructors were in the first or second year of instructing students. Rogers and McDonald's (1989b) study found that 35% of the field instructors were in their first year and 53% had supervised for less than two years. Bogo and Power's (1992) study found that 46% of first year field instructors did not volunteer to take another student in the following year. Lacerte, Ray, and Irwin (1989) found that 45% of their sample in one US school were instructors for one to two years.

Field instructor turnover has important implications for universities, agencies and students:

> A high turnover rate is costly because it requires considerable time for recruitment of new field instructors. Schools that offer training for new field instructors require continuous resources to provide training and agency release time from client service for staff to attend training. (Bogo & Power, 1992, pp. 178-179)

Retention of field instructors is an issue which requires long-term strategies to address. Like the studies on field instructor qualifications, the studies on field instructor turnover are weak methodologically but they do provide an indication as to why field instructors do not continue. Rosenfeld's (1988) survey of field instructor turnover in one US school of social work revealed that three factors significantly influenced intent to continue as a field instructor: agency support; faculty support; and intrinsic aspects such as enjoyment of teaching, learning new ideas and contributing to the profession. Given the realities of social work practice today, Shapiro (1989, p. 238) suggests that field instructors are especially vulnerable to burnout by trying to meet "agency and university expectations, juggling needs of students and clients, and striving to integrate roles as educators and social workers . . . field instructors may feel torn between bolstering clients above the survival level and providing a solid educational experience for social work students."

Voluntary Collaboration

Generally, schools of social work in Canada rely on a voluntary collaborative partnership between the university and the field placement agency. The university has relied on the agency's goodwill, and the agency has relied on its professional staff's commitment to students. However, "expecting individual social workers to absorb the extra workload demands for institutional commitments to professional education appears to be an unfair practice" (Bogo & Power, 1992, p. 188). Interestingly, Bogo and Power found that agency support for decreased workload had no significant effect on intent to continue or not. Very few schools are in a position to pay the agency or the field instructor, although the principle of schools paying for field education has been raised and, in a few cases, implemented. Where this does occur, it is in the form of a nominal honorarium paid either directly to the field instructor or to the agency. An issue that has recently surfaced on the Canadian agenda regarding monetary exchange has been a movement to pay students for the 'work' they do while in the field placement (Kenyan, 1993). It is interesting to examine the arguments put forward by this lobby group while at the same time witnessing both universities and social agencies struggling to accommodate current fiscal constraints.

The message from government funding sources to both universities and agencies is one of 'Do more with less.' This message is placing tremendous pressure on schools, agencies, students and field instructors alike. Schools of social work will have to consider other resources that could be exchanged with field placement agencies and individual social workers, such as research, consultation and continuing professional education in order to maintain the existence of the field education component of the social work curriculum without fiscal support.

It is evident in reviewing the literature on role and relationship issues that the field instructor is a key player in field education. Given the historical development of this role as it emerged and evolved from its predecessor, the agency supervisor, it is useful to acknowledge and gain an understanding of the source of many of today's field education beliefs and practices by reviewing key notions from the supervision literature.

Supervision: Concepts and Techniques

Social work practice in North America was built on a foundation of supervision. The belief was that supervised practice would result in better client outcomes (Burns, 1958). As the

scope of social work practice expanded, the purpose of supervision shifted from helping clients to training workers. Harkness and Poertner (1989, p. 115) propose a research agenda to refocus supervision on clients' outcomes believing that, "When supervisory practices have been contrasted on the basis of client outcomes to show systematic and significant differences, supervision theory can be advanced by examining practice in context."

The Functions of Supervision

Social work supervision has traditionally been seen as having three main functions: educational, administrative, and supportive (Gambrill & Stein, 1983; Kadushin, 1992; Shulman, 1993). It has been argued that this three-function model applies to both staff and student supervision, though the relative emphasis on each would be different for students than for employed social work staff. It is the intent of the current study to clearly distinguish between educational supervision of students and the supervision of staff suggesting that separate theories are necessary to fully understand and utilise supervisory practices specific to professional social work education and training. Gitterman and Miller (1977, p. 104) explain that historical developments in the field "have tended to obscure the important differences between *psychological* and *educational* theory for supervision, and between theory for practice and a theory for the supervision of that practice" [italics added for emphasis]. They advocate the development of an educational theory as a needed backbone to the practice of educational supervision.

Kadushin (1974) found in his study, the largest ever undertaken at that time, that the supervisory function which emerged as most important to supervisors and supervisees was the educational function. While supervisees value a supportive relationship with their supervisors, they value even more highly teaching competence. In this survey, one of the principle sources of dissatisfaction of supervisees was, "My supervisor is not sufficiently critical of my work, so that I don't know what I am doing wrong or what needs changing" (Kadushin, 1974, p. 291). Workers preferred supervisors who were actively involved in helping them to learn, over those who took a laissez-faire attitude or were too authoritarian as supervisors. The picture emerges that supervisees want feedback from their supervisors around the work they are doing and a major dissatisfaction is that supervisors are not sufficiently evaluative of their supervisees' work.

This implies that a central factor in generating growth and learning is the evaluative activity practised by supervisors. Likewise, Leddick and Dye (1987) examined trainees' expectations before and after engaging in the supervisory process. Trainees rated supervisors higher who provided "specific, concrete, and clear evaluations rather than ones who acted as a counsellor with the supervisee" (Leddick & Dye, 1987, p. 142). Yet, supervisory practice in North America is not typically learned or studied as a discrete area of practice. Akin and Weil (1981, p. 475) suggest the most usual way workers become supervisors is by role adoption, "taking on the role of supervisor by being given the title." Others suggest that most supervisors supervise the way they have been supervised (Kutzik, 1977). The application of principles and practices derived from the field of adult and higher education have provided a much needed theoretical base grounded in learning as opposed to casework to guide both supervision and field instruction.

Comparison with Related Disciplines

In comparing practicum education in social work, teacher education and counselling psychology, Ellison (1991) notes many similarities. All three fields emphasise the degree of rapport between the student and the practicum instructor. Rapport appears to influence the degree of learning that occurs as perceived by the student. The degree of structure provided in the practicum setting also appears to be important in each discipline. The structure encompasses clearly articulated goals, the nature of the learning experiences, the type of and frequency of feedback on performance, and the frequency of supervisory conferences.

Another area of similarity is the perceived 'expertness' and 'competence' of the instructor. Students look to the practicum instructor as a role model and seem to learn by some means of imitation of behaviours. Students want to be able to observe the instructor in action as a practitioner and indicate that these observations are valuable to their learning. Practitioner competence is combined with desire and ability to teach others what, why and how competent practice is executed. One area of difference noted by Ellison (1991) is in the area of exploration of the student's personality. Students in social work and counselling psychology mention the expectation that some focus on personality is appropriate as it relates to client intervention. This factor, however, was not noted in the literature reviewed for student teachers. While all three professions emphasise the use of self as the medium for performing one's job, it would appear that the nature of the therapeutic, client/worker relationship, either

by design or accident, slips into the education and training relationship. This does not tend to happen in teacher training student/teacher relationships.

Training Field Instructors

Selecting, preparing, maintaining and supporting field instructors is critical to the success of social work programmes. Developing the mechanisms to accomplish these activities is a necessary endeavour. There appear to be many recurrent ideas of what constitutes quality field instruction in terms of the behaviours and roles performed by field instructors. In summary, effective field instructors are available for supervision; have a desire to teach; are responsive to students' feelings and concerns; provide timely, specific and corrective feedback; act as role models; are able to structure the learning experience; and are able to help students become autonomous.

Identifying a Need for Training

The need for training field instructors was recognized by Bertha Reynolds in the 1940s (Reynolds, 1942) and Charlotte Towle in the 1950s (Towle, 1954). Berengarten (1961) suggested that group meetings represented the most helpful format for new field instructors. Several authors since then have offered 'think pieces' promoting training and the educational and administrative rationale and benefits of it (e.g., Pettes, 1979; Sheafor & Jenkins, 1982; Shubert, 1983). For example, Matorin (1979) examines the role shift a social worker needs to make when s/he goes from practitioner to field instructor. Others have described training programs and formats with regard to content and process in the form of 'how-to' manuals (e.g., Shulman, 1993; Wilson, 1981). There are several exploratory and descriptive studies related to training, often to do with the experience of a single program and there is a growing literature evaluating training. Some attempts have been made in Canada to examine the extent and scope of training on a national level (Rogers, 1993; Thomlison & Watt, 1980). Most of the articles conclude with a prescription for more or better training for field instructors and advocate for more research to be done on the topic.

Presumably the content of training programs for field instructors would be predicated and built upon the knowledge of what constitutes effective and appropriate field instruction and the qualities of a competent field instructor. There are approximately 25 publications in the social work literature that discuss behaviours, attributes and roles denoting a 'quality' field

instructor. All but two of the studies that are more process-oriented tend to concentrate on ideal or expected behaviours of a field instructor. Reporting ideal behaviours is non-exhaustive because 'ideal' behaviours are not the same as 'actual' behaviours or necessarily the same as 'effective' behaviours. Even though studies based more on practice wisdom are useful in describing effective behaviours for a field instructor, replication of the results is difficult to apply from one practice setting to another. The studies that describe and evaluate particular courses or approaches to field instructor training offer useful information in terms of curriculum development and educational methods.

Training Content and Approaches

Bogo and Power (1993) suggest that developing effective approaches for field instructor training is necessary to ensure quality in the field practicum. Their study examined the processes of learning and teaching in a training program for new field instructors consisting of 12 two-hour sessions covering topics such as preparing relevant educational theory and teaching methods for the student, the learning environment and relationship, intercultural and interracial factors, and evaluation (Bogo & Power, 1993, p. 4). They found that first-time field instructors who were experienced social workers (n=65) rated unstructured teaching methods, focused on common concerns and facilitated by a sensitive leader in a supportive, collegial small group, the most helpful way to learn about being a field instructor.

Similarly, field instructors attending a programme consisting of 10 sessions for new field instructors, scored the seminars as highly relevant to their learning needs and also commented on the importance of the learning environment and group process to the success of the seminars (Abramson & Fortune, 1990, p. 275). All 10 sessions mixed didactic and informal teaching, emphasised teaching students through the use of process recordings, and required two process recordings of supervisory sessions from each participant. The curriculum included topics considered essential to the training of new field instructors: the conceptualization and communication of practice; the provision of an appropriate learning environment; the development of standards for student performance; and effective evaluation of performance. This study also found that trained field instructors demonstrated expected supervisory behaviour more often than untrained field instructors according to students rating of their supervision in the field setting.

Another study evaluating a 10-week course for field instructors interested in developing a critically reflective approach to field instruction found that participants' scores on a standardised test of critical thinking were significantly higher after taking the course and compared to a control group who did not take the course (Rogers & McDonald, 1992). This course covered topics like critical thinking concepts, learning styles and teaching roles, the learning environment and relationship, field instruction methods and educational supervision, evaluation, and challenges facing field instructors. Participants were required to present a portion of a tape of their work with a student and to complete a final assignment consisting of a critical analysis of a supervisory session with a student. Their evaluations of the course indicated that the opportunities to discuss and observe each others' work in small groups was the most useful aspect of the course.

Training for field instructors who are advanced or have completed entry-level training is also discussed and described in the literature on a program-specific basis. This appears as a separate issue from training for new field instructors and is related to field instructor turnover, continuance and motivation. As Fishbein and Glassman (1991) so aptly state in their article describing an advanced seminar for field instructors offered by a consortium of schools:

> When carefully constructed these seminars become a 'gift' to the field instructors who need to feel the time commitment they made paid off. Such opportunities to take part in exploring the nuances of field instruction are meaningful for field instructors. (p. 231)

Mesbur (1991, p. 162) also advocates for special programs for experienced field instructors, who are often ignored or taken for granted, because "it is incumbent upon schools to provide ongoing education and training for field instructors."

A series of advanced seminars to train field instructors to supervise students in AIDS-related practice is described by Livingston, Chernack, and Grodney (1992). The seminar topics reflect the salient teaching issues as suggested in the literature and by educators in the field: boundaries in supervision and practice, helping students cope with grief and loss, substance users, abusers and AIDS, and ethics and values in AIDS. Parallel process is used as an organising principle in developing the content, structure and process of these seminars. The field instructors attending the seminars express a high level of satisfaction with the seminars indicating a need for support, information and exchange with peers around this issue. This

model of advanced field instructor training appears to address the identified learning needs of field instructors and support them in their educational roles.

Hospital field instructors of graduate social work students suggest that ongoing seminars for field instructors can be critical in supporting them in this role well beyond the first year (Showers & Cuzzi, 1991). The authors of this study question the traditional practice of providing field instructors with training only at the beginning of their field instruction careers as they found that field instructors' rating of their experience was most highly correlated with the overall rating for field instructor seminars. Specifically, rating of field instructor experience was positively associated with support from the seminar leader and peer group, and discussion of various teaching methods and strategies.

In each of these programmes to educate field instructors it should come as no surprise that the learning environment in terms of opportunities to dialogue, network, and learn from each other is seen as important as the content related to field instruction. Whether the curriculum is developed around an organising principle such as critical thinking or parallel process, or whether it is designed to cover essential ingredients for a specific population or program, the literature suggests that course content as well as group process are both relevant.

Field Education: Trends and Issues

There are a small number of studies examining national trends which gather data beyond a single school or consortium of schools in a specific region. These studies look at a variety of issues related to field education including training field instructors, in an attempt to describe, quantify and understand broadly the state of field education at a given time. They provide a reference point by which to compare individual schools with a national standard and a yardstick by which to measure changes in national norms over time.

The 1980 Canadian study, *Trends and Issues in the Field Preparation of Social Work Manpower*, was an attempt to develop an understanding of the field practice component of schools of social work in the preparation of professional social workers in Canada. The authors found that schools do not prepare field instructors sufficiently for their role and that only two schools had a formalised preparation programme for field instructors which focused on developing teaching skills (Watt & Thomlison, 1981). Most schools hold an orientation

meeting for field instructors at the beginning of an academic term, followed by individual contact with field instructors usually focused on mid-term and/or final evaluation. However, field instructors believed that they need more skills to perform their role more adequately. In Part II of this report, Watt and Kimberley (1981, p. 101) went so far as to propose 'Programmes of certification' but found consensus in the recommendation that each school provide a formal training mechanism for new instructors and that each school provide ongoing training experiences for their field instructors.

The only other Canadian data collected since this study was in 1985. In referring to this data, Bogo and Vayda (1993, p. iii) note that "consistent and comprehensive training programs were . . . being offered in only four Canadian schools in the form of seminars, courses, or support groups." This data was collected from 18 schools participating in project funded by Health and Welfare Canada to produce a national curriculum base for use by Canadian schools to enhance the competence of field instructors. It also revealed that almost no documentation existed on the content, structure, or process of training activities provided for field instructors and suggested that it seemed evident that the development of a comprehensive approach to field instruction and training was needed. The end-product of this project was the publication of *The Practice of Field Instruction in Social Work: Theory and Process* (Bogo & Vayda, 1986) with an annotated bibliography (Taylor, Bogo, & Vayda, 1986) to be used in field instructor training. This book represented consensus regarding the generic elements of field instruction. A subsequent Health and Welfare grant to the Continuing Professional Education for Social Workers Project produced a teaching manual to accompany the text to flexibly train field instructors (Bogo & Vayda, 1993). To what extent schools are using the Bogo and Vayda field instructor training materials is asked of programmes in the present study.

Drawing from the US Experience

A national study was conducted in the US in 1984-1985 to explore "current challenges to quality in field education" (Skolnick, 1989, p. 47). Training for field instructors was institutionally sponsored by 73% of the 296 responding programmes. In 99% of the cases the training was for new field instructors and 71% of the programmes provided training for advanced field instructors. In 31% of the programmes, the training was required for new field instructors. The median hours of training provided was 10 hours as reported by 186 respondents and the median of 12 weeks of training was given. Of particular concern were

finding resources to support training including time for field instructors to attend. Both national and regional training programmes were recommended as was the need to develop standards and guidelines with respect to the field instructors' role and training.

A 1989 national survey of graduate social work programmes in the US found that 100% of the practicum directors believe field instructors need special training (Lacerte & Ray, 1991, pp. 218-219). "While 79% provide orientations, only 60% offer training that goes beyond what is offered in an orientation session and that only half the schools require field instructors to attend." They also note that most schools providing training use a similar curriculum: evaluating the student, learning contracts, learning styles, the school's curriculum, and teaching specific skills. In the survey of agency field instructors the researchers only collected data from one graduate school of social work thus limiting the scope to that of a single school. These findings suggest that field instructors will be "attracted to training that they believe will . . . make them better teachers" (Lacerte & Ray, 1991, p. 225). Research of another single school found that the seminars for field instructors have a significant influence on the satisfaction of field instructors with the school and on the quality of teaching (Rosenfeld, 1989).

An international study conducted by American field educators to examine social work field instruction received responses from 51 countries and found that overall two-thirds of the schools offered training to field instructors, some schools offered an orientation session and others used individual liaison to orient each field instructor separately (Raskin, Skolnick & Wayne, 1991). Training offered to field instructors by schools varied greatly. Australia/Oceania and Africa reported the most schools offering training, whereas Asia/Pacific had the least. The quality of field instruction emerged as a major concern everywhere leading the authors to conclude that the focus and content of preparation for supervision as well as supports for field instructors is worthy of future study.

Raskin's (1983, p. 12) Delphi study identified consensus statements by those considered experts in field education in North America. These statements are identical to issues raised in Skolnick's 1984 Project on Field Instruction (1989) referred to earlier with reference to "inadequate attention to training for the field instructor role." Raskin's (1994) study to revisit and determine what has changed in the past decade found that the thinking of experts on this issue has not changed. The third research priority identified by the experts deals with

99

processes to help field instructors help students and suggests that an important research question would be: "What effect does field instructor training have on the quality of field instruction?" (1994, p. 86). Responding to such a challenge, Strom (1991), who studied five BSW programmes, found that only 6% of field instructors who are social workers and 12% of field instructors who are non-social workers felt that the training offered by the schools contributed to their skills as supervisors. Clearly, further research on field instructor training is required since the "practice of training field instructors has yet to show what relationship training has with student performance, skills, knowledge, or teaching ability" (Raskin, 1989, p. 4).

The North American Approach to Field Education

In summarising this literature, it is possible to affirm the notion that field instructors would benefit from some kind of preparation, training and support prior to and while working with students. There seems to be an identifiable set of behaviours that are representative of effective teaching and a set of qualities reflective of a competent teacher that crosses disciplines. From classroom and field teaching in social work, the training and supervision of social workers, counsellors and other helping professionals, and from adult and higher education the factors associated with effective teaching are: knowledge of subject area; provision of timely and appropriate feedback regarding progress and performance; provision of sufficient guidance, structure and organisation for the individual to carry out assigned tasks; development of a caring and supportive as well as stimulating and challenging environment; acknowledgement of student status and learner focus while encouraging independence, self-sufficiency and self-directedness; and enjoyment of and skilful in teaching.

While these behaviours seem to be identified across all fields as contributing to the effectiveness and quality of the teaching/learning process, some struggles prevail regarding the degree of 'counselling' provided by the practice teacher/field instructor. The issue is one of expectation that the experience be educational, that it enhance professional development and practice, and that it is not synonymous with a therapeutic experience. Without the introduction of relevant concepts related to teaching, practitioners, administrators or supervisors who become field instructors will be guided by their own theoretical base. Practitioners who become field instructors are more likely than faculty or administrators and supervisors to draw from their clinical knowledge base when 'teaching.' Administrators are

more likely to draw from their organisational and management perspectives in 'teaching.' And, supervisors are more likely to use their personal background experiences *unless they* have had specific supervisory training, in which case they would draw upon it to guide the 'teaching' part of field instruction. For all of these reasons the argument is made for the development of a model and curriculum specific to field education in social work directed at those most salient to the teaching/learning process—the field instructors/practice teachers.

ADULT AND HIGHER EDUCATION: A BLENDED CONTRIBUTION

There has been no attempt to systematically review the related literature from the discipline of adult and higher education. Rather this literature has been selectively examined for its specific contribution to practice learning and field education and its influence upon current writers, researchers and practitioners. Interestingly, this literature is transatlantic, overcoming the geographic barricades that seems to have blocked the flow of information related to social work education in general and practice teaching in particular. It is not uncommon to find the same citations from the field of educational research on either side of the pond, hence the rationale for a blended contribution.

Andragogy and Experiential Learning

In the early seventies, Malcolm Knowles (1970, 1980) popularised the concept of andragogy, which identified learning principles relevant to adults. This was seen as a major breakthrough in learning theories applicable to social work education and several authors applied these principles to field education encouraging their adoption into field instruction practices (Clancy, 1985; Gelfand, Rohrich, Nividon, & Starak, 1975; Hersh, 1984; Humphries, 1988; Knowles, 1972; Siporin, 1982). Since the literature in social work supported the acceptance of the student as an adult learner, a search was spawned for finding suitable instructional strategies (for example, see: Burgess & Jackson, 1990; Gardiner, 1989).

Experiential learning was touted as the only meaningful way of educating practitioners who cycle through a learning process of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984). Critics of traditional teaching and learning found a way to make sense of learning involving action and reflection, theory and practice (Weil & McGill, 1990) while reconstructing the role of the teacher in the learning enterprise (Packham, Roberts, & Bawden, 1990; Smyth, 1991).

The premise was that teaching methods needed to somehow match the learning style of the student in the practicum setting in order to maximise learning, professional development and preparation for practice (Kruzich, Friesen, & Van Soest, 1986). Learning typologies evolved that illuminated various types of adult learners and adult learning styles through the use of inventories or scales which would suggest the most appropriate learning/teaching strategy (Berengarten, 1957; Gregorc, 1982; Kolb, 1976; Myers, 1976; Pask, 1976).

Subsequent research on adult learning styles in social work education has underscored its importance in identifying students' preferences (Kadushin, 1976); in teaching direct social work practice (Papell, 1978); for individualising training (Austin, in Munson 1979); its relevance to clinical supervision (Fox & Guild, 1987); and in learning through supervision (Gardiner, 1989). Various procedures for making accurate educational diagnoses or assessments of students were promoted, often citing Charlotte Towle (1954) as the pioneer in the assessment of the student as a learner (Goldmeier, 1983; Lemberger & Marshack, 1991; Webb, 1988). This literature suggests the social work profession has, to a certain extent, verified that students learn in different ways and that learning is more effective when teaching is consonant with the student's style. Ramsden's (1985) research has shown that there is not any one learning approach, style or orientation which is, of itself, the best; what is desirable is that the learner selects appropriate strategies for matching personal goals and talents with the nature and demands of the learning task.

Competency-based Approaches: Positivism Re-visited?

The move toward competency-based educational principles and practices has been fostered by more rigorous accreditation standards in North America, and increasing accountability requirements in practice in the UK. This has prompted programmes of social work education and CCETSW to state clear educational objectives and performance criteria that are measurable and observable, meaning a reliance on behavioural indicators that can be quantified.

Practice teachers and field instructors in operationalising these principles and applying these standards in the practicum, use a practice curriculum (Doel, 1988) and educational supervision that is goal-directed (St. John, 1975); structure and criteria-guided (Dwyer & Urbanowski, 1981); competency-based and task-centred (Evans, 1990; Larsen & Hepworth, 1982); and problem-focused (Basso, 1987). In doing so, practice teachers would use direct

teaching methods that enable them to accurately evaluate students' skills and effectiveness while ensuring quality of service.

The emphasis is on structured and clearly stated learning plans, practice assignments that are carefully sequenced, and supervision focused on outcomes. The value of this approach is that students become much clearer about what they are supposed to learn. The educational objectives become the evaluation criteria (Arkava & Brennen, 1976). However, social work practice is complex and multi-faceted, which begs the question: Can it all be encompassed in behavioural specific objectives? Increasing behavioural specificity tends to increase the number of objectives needing to be examined and assessed. As the number of objectives increase, so does the ability to manage the task which in turn could reduce both the practicality and perhaps relevancy of the objectives, leading a number of authors to express concerns about this approach (Balen, Brown, & Taylor, 1993; Henkel, 1994; Humphries, 1993).

Reflective, Self-directing Approaches: Models for Educating Professionals

Schön (1983, 1987) puts forward a critique of the positivist position, of which competency-based approaches are aligned, suggesting they are inappropriate for the professionals who work in situations of uncertainty requiring 'reflection-in-action' to find ways of understanding and resolving the problems professionals encounter. This work has highlighted concepts and practices with great potential for social work education evidenced by recent applications. Papell and Skolnik (1992) use Schön's concepts to present a paradigm relevant for social work education. Kondrat (1992a; 1992b) uses Schön's work on reflective practice for the professions to supplement her conceptual schema for examining epistemological differences among formal, substantive, and critical forms of rationality involved in professional knowledge, professional learning, and field education. And, Coady (1995) puts forth a reflective/inductive model of practice emphasising theory-building for unique cases versus applying theory to practice in the traditional positivistic senses.

Schön (1987, p. 38) suggests that educating professionals for practice in situations of uncertainty, uniqueness and value conflict is accomplished by the "reflective practicum." Through a combination of learning by doing, learning through interactions in the form of a "reciprocally reflective dialogue" (p. 40) with a coach, and learning by exposure and

immersion, students are able to "use the process of reflection-in-action (the thinking of what they are doing while they are doing it) to combine the competence and artistry embedded in effective practice" (p. 13). Relating this directly to social work education are the notions of educating autonomous practitioners as opposed to training technicians. For example, Hamilton and Else (1983) note that field instructors need to help students learn to think for themselves, bring knowledge to bear in unpredictable situations, and be creative in responding to unique problems. Schön (1987, p. 310) argues that "reflective practicums" should become the core of professional curricula involving a restructuring of the "usual figure/ground relationship between academic course work and practicum."

Brookfield (1986, p. vii) rejects the notion in which "the facilitation of adult learning is seen as a nondirective, warmly satisfying provision of a resource to a learner, who is fully cognizant of her learning needs and in command of her learning activities." Instead, he argues for "a new concept of facilitation that incorporates elements of challenge, confrontation and critical analysis of self and society" (p. 125). The contrasting personalities, philosophies, and conflicting priorities of field instructor and student interact continuously. This educational transaction occurs in the context of the agency's culture and structure, clients' problems and issues, and the prevailing political/social/economic climate. The practice teacher, using these principles, is less concerned with student satisfaction and more concerned with creating a collaborative learning environment where "the student is challenged to critically reflect upon her actions and re-examine underlying beliefs, values and theoretical constructs" (Brookfield, 1986, p. 143).

The growth of research into self-directed learning (Boud, 1988; Brookfield, 1986; Entwistle & Ramsden, 1983; Kolb, 1984) and the reemergence of learning theory within instructional research (Glaser, 1990) has filtered into social work programmemes in a variety of ways, such as the Enquiry and Action Learning (EAL) initiative at Bristol University, bringing together problem-based learning with self-directed learning (Taylor, 1993, 1994). This work contributes to the growing body of largely qualitative research into the ways in which students and practice teachers construe learning (Gardiner, 1989; Secker, 1991).

Gardiner's (1984a, 1984b, 1897, 1988, 1989) work is a significant contribution to knowledge about practice teaching grounded in the field of educational research, bringing to British

readership the Swedish work of Marton and Saljo and other salient research from education. He is critical of the over-reliance on American based concepts "leaked from the practice of social casework into accounts of the supervisory relationship" and uses the term "concept-leakage" to refer to the problem with the classical paradigm of supervision where the language of psychotherapy slips into the language of supervision obscuring the context of learning and teaching (Gardiner, 1989, p. 20).

Mezirow (1990) suggests that contemporary learning theories have given surprisingly little attention to the frames of reference and assumptions that influence the way adults perceive, interpret and act on their experiences. He presents a transformation theory of adult learning that challenges prevailing theory and mainstream approaches to adult education. He gives voice to several contemporary adult learning experts who present specific methods for helping adults engage in the kind of critical reflection that will enable them to respond to changes in their lives, workplace, and communities (Mezirow & Associates, 1990). This critical reflection can facilitate transformative and emancipatory learning and promote lifelong learning. Examples of these specific methods highlight their potential and relevance for social work educators. They include leading adults to recognise and reexamine deeply ingrained values (Mezirow, 1990); action learning and reflection in the workplace (Marsick, 1990); liberation through consciousness raising (Hart, 1990); transforming assumptions about knowing using the reflective judgement model of development (Kitchener & King, 1990); and exploring the way analysis of metaphors can assist in the meanings made by socialisation (Deshler, 1990).

This exploration indicates there is much research and writing in the higher and adult education arena on both sides of the Atlantic that is ripe for testing in social work contexts. Shardlow and Doel (1992) identified a research agenda that examinines how to enable, foster and improve practice learning and, in exploring the knowledge and methods used in teaching practice how to foster more effective outcomes for students, clients and the organisations. Drawing upon the contributions from adult and higher education provides an invaluable backdrop.

A SUBSTANTIVE AND SUPPORTIVE FRAMEWORK

This review has examined the relevant literature on practice teaching and field education, pertinent material related to practice teachers and field instructors, germane concepts from adult and higher education associated with learning and professional education, and applicable information on training practice teachers. Emerging from the study and discussion of practice teaching in the United Kingdom and field education in North America are several substantive themes.

Discussions of integration of theory and practice and the transfer of learning permeate the literature in both the United Kingdom and North America. In Britain, this exchange is part of a deeper debate regarding professional education versus technical training. In North America, integration is reflective of the approach to field education by a school and the educational methods and teaching strategies employed by the field instructor. The topic appears to be of considerable importance to practice teaching and field education respectively but the nature and focus of the discussion is quite different.

Both the UK and Canada express concerns through the literature about the turnover of practice teachers, the shortage of practice teachers, and their need for training. This problem is seen to be endemic to the management and organisation of field placements in Britain. Solutions are found in senior management taking more responsibility for ensuring practice teaching is a valued activity and in CCETSW's accrediting of practice teachers through the award. In North America, the problem is located in the school of social work's inability to motivate, recognise and support field instructors. Solutions are expressed in the provision of perks by schools to field instructors and making field instructors feel more connected and committed to the school. Rarely are solutions seen in terms of relationships with senior management, although there is discussion of partnerships and working collaboratively with the community.

The concept of 'partnership' in North America is not the same as the notion implied by CCETSW's commitment to partnerships as expressed by 'Programme Providers.' Whether the British consortia bring 'town and gown' together so that social workers are more 'competent in practice'; or, if it instead leads to employer-defined training and an anti-

intellectual, deprofessionalised ethos, remains to be seen. In Canada, social work courses are only beginning to think about ways to allow the community to comment and have input into the curriculum. When courses involve members from the social work community on advisory or other committees, engage in joint research projects and invite practitioners into the classroom, they are seen to be working collaboratively with the community. Canadians could not conceive of social work courses that are operated and offered by partnerships of educational institutions and agencies as this would not fit under the rubric of the university as it is defined in Canada.

The locus of control of social work education in the United Kingdom clearly resides with CCETSW. CCETSW's role and responsibility for approving and funding courses and issuing the qualification gives it ultimate control over social work education. The academic institutions and the social service agencies are important elements in that they operate the courses but they must comply with CCETSW's requirements in order to deliver the course. There is no equivalent to CCETSW in Canada. The locus of control of social work education lies with the universities that house the schools or faculties of social work. CASSW does accredit social work programmes based upon member-created and agreed upon educational policies. Most schools voluntarily belong to CASSW, want to be accredited and submit to the accreditation process every seven years. However, the ability to grant the Bachelor or Master of Social Work degree does not depend upon accreditation as the degrees are granted by the universities. It is ultimately the universities' board of governors to which social work schools are accountable, not the Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work.

CCETSW funds, directs, supports and/or commissions much research into social work education including practice teaching. The results of this research are used to inform, advise and make changes to social work education and training in numerous areas. Research into field education in North America depends largely on the researcher's interest and ability to convince a funding body of the need and value of such research. CASSW has very limited funds to direct toward research and has been involved in only three funded research projects related to field education in Canada in the past 15 years. Many Canadians interested in researching and studying field education look to the United States to publish and disseminate their work.

There is concern and debate in both countries regarding the selection and use of practice teaching methods that are distinct from job supervision techniques and also distinct from therapeutic interventions. The challenge facing both countries is to treat students as learners, not as employees or clients. This applies to the assessment practices which are argued to require procedures different from job performance appraisals or techniques that measure emotional/personal growth. In Britain this thrust has evolved through the shift from 'supervisor' to 'practice teacher' and in shifts in the validation and accreditation strategies for professional and higher education. Changes in course requirements that specify areas of students' knowledge and abilities which have to be demonstrated are complimented by the explicit expectations that educational institutions and agencies work closely together in course planning, and in the selection and assessment of students and practice teachers. The national training courses for practice teachers provides content on teaching and learning for professional competence. Whether these educational methodologies for adult learners are being applied and if they, in fact, produce a 'new' and 'improved' practice teacher and consequently a more competent social work practitioner remains to be seen. In Canada (and North America in general), training practice teachers is conducted on a school by school basis in widely varying amounts. There is literature available to help schools help their field instructors select and use appropriate instructional methods to maintain an educational focus but there is no national perspective on how this is done or even how important it is in relation to the education of social workers.

Lessons from the Literature

In certain respects, there is much that Canadians can learn from the study of British practice teaching. In particular, the advancements in anti-discriminatory and anti-oppressive practice extends the Canadian work in multicultural and multiracial educational policies. The accreditation of practice teachers elevates their role and place in the social work course as well as ensures a degree of quality in their work with students. The practice teacher award is also seen as a solution to the turnover and shortage of practice teachers. It is possible to envision the development of a recognised qualification for field instructors in Canada as something that schools of social work and individual practitioners would aspire to achieve.

On the other hand, there are some things the British can glean from the study of field education in North America. The social work degree is recognised as a professional and academic qualification. There is a clear continuum and progression from a community college social service diploma to a university degree at the Bachelor's, Master's and then Doctorate level. There is also not the same level of debate or confusion surrounding the education versus training of social workers. The word 'training' does not appear in the discussion of social work education in North America nor is its future tied in any way to employers' satisfaction with the end product of the course. Field education is seen as one of several components of the social work degree. Those who believe in the centrality of field education may wish Canadian programmes would take this component more seriously. However, it may be that its importance is in perspective in relation to the other components of policy, research, human behaviour and practice methods. This point may be worth consideration in the United Kingdom and may help advance the position of social workers in British society as a professional body with specific academic credentials. The separation of the social work qualification from academic degrees is worthy of reexamination.

Examining and comparing the literature representative of both countries has revealed interesting commonalities and considerable differences. There is much to be gained and learned through comparative research even when the distinctions create substantial difficulties in making parallels and comparisons. How those difficulties are manifested, attended to and handled is discussed in the next chapter which describes the research methodology used to conduct the study.

CHAPTER FOUR
THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The previous chapters have provided the historical, definitional and literary contexts of the study in terms of social work and social work education in the United Kingdom and Canada. This chapter on methodology begins by providing a personal context. It addresses questions related to why this study is important to me, what I brought to the study in terms of my background, biases and assumptions, and what led to the decisions made concerning the ways and means this study was developed, conducted and unfolded. This chapter concludes with a description and discussion of the methodologies and the strategies that were employed in this study.

THE RESEARCHER: BACKGROUND, BIASES AND BELIEFS

After being ensconced in academic life at The University of Calgary for over ten years, I decided to pursue doctoral studies for a number of reasons. How I came to choose The University of Newcastle upon Tyne and my supervisor, Janet Walker, and why I wanted to do this particular research is relevant to the methodological issues and choices pertaining to the study. An understanding of these factors may be of some interest to the evolution of this study. My own professional development as a social work practitioner, educator and researcher began with an interest in the processes by which a student learns to be a social worker. Over the years I have made the assumption that social work education is a precursor to becoming a professional social worker and that there was something inherent in the educational and higher learning process which transformed natural inclinations to help and make a difference into a purposeful, planful, knowledge and value-guided enterprise. I became fascinated and intrigued by challenging questions like whether and how students, via their social work course, get socialised into the profession and acquire a professional identity; whether and how students, through an educational process, come to 'think like' and 'act as' social workers; and whether and how do we, as educators, develop and transmit a curriculum

110

that prepares practitioners for competence in the complex, conflictual, chaotic, and unpredictable world of practice (Schön, 1987).

It became apparent to me that practice learning, both from the standpoint of the acquisition of knowledge and skills and the application of theory and techniques, was of critical importance to professional development. I turned my focus to the practice learning context. I looked at the possible permutations and combinations of creating optimal learning environments for students. This involved struggling to find or develop the quintessential assessment form and the ideal learning contract as exemplars for students to follow; establishing appropriate and effective structures to ensure the 'right' processes occurred; and, it meant searching for and defining quality components (Nixon, Shardlow, Doel, McGrath, & Gordon, 1994) in practice learning in a way that could be communicated and enacted.

What evolved was an appreciation of the salience of the practice teacher's role in 'quality' field education. I speculated that better preparing practice teachers for their work with students (as distinct from their work with clients or others in the workplace) might be the key to enhancing the quality and value of the educational experience for students. I shifted my pedagogical focus from the student to the practice teacher. I looked for ways to help them become critically responsive teachers (Brookfield, 1990) and develop learning partnerships (Carruthers, 1993) with their students. I realised that the accumulation of tacit knowledge (Polyani, 1967) about social work—the wisdom of years—is rarely made explicit by social workers to themselves, their colleagues or their students. Yet, a significant part of professional learning involves providing a context in which that knowledge is examined, shared, questioned and celebrated (McCann & Radford, 1993). I came to know, through a variety of means, that professional learning involves transforming 'doing' into 'learning.' This requires that we construct and reconstruct the information acquired from 'doing' in our minds, connecting and interpreting this new information with what is already known (McCann & Radford, 1993) personally, practically, politically and philosophically. This process of construction (Wells, Chang, & Maher, 1990) is stimulated and facilitated through meaningful interaction (e.g., dialogue, discussion, debate and argument) with a skilled practice teacher.

My fascination with, and curiosity about, the enterprise of training practice teachers was piqued. I began looking for models, structures, curricula and methods with a view to developing training materials and testing them in a variety of formats. But I was proceeding

slowly and working largely in isolation because very few people in North America were doing this type of research and development work. I learned that training practice teachers in the United Kingdom was being widely instituted through comprehensive courses leading to a nationally recognised award and I discovered that Janet Walker was a principle investigator in evaluating the impact of this and other changes to social work education and training in Britain. I came to learn this as a result of the establishment of a formal exchange programme between The University of Newcastle and The University of Calgary to foster collaboration in research and student as well as staff exchanges.

In a serendipitous way it came together. For personal and career reasons I wanted to pursue a PhD. The timing was such that I could apply for a sabbatical fellowship and my family was supportive and encouraging, believing they could survive without me for 'chunks' of time. And, I wanted to find out more about what was happening in the United Kingdom. I chose the 'British' way of Ph.D. study on a part-time basis at The University of Newcastle as part of the exchange programme with The University of Calgary under the supervision of Janet Walker with the belief that I had the determination and motivation to work independently and self-directedly toward my goal.

Having served in the position of Director of Field Education in the largest faculty of social work in Canada for the five years preceding my sabbatical and the start of my Ph.D. programme, I had become conversant and knowledgeable in the entire venture of practice teaching and learning. The focus of much of my work, research and writing over my academic career addressed this vital aspect of social work education. In spite of my credibility and my fluency with the subject matter in North America, I was guilty of being 'amerocentric.' Except for the occasional article in the *British Journal of Social Work* or *Australian Social Work*, I knew relatively little about the content or process of practice teaching outside North America.

Therein lay my first methodological hurdle and challenge. I wanted to study something I knew very little about in a comparative way with something in which I was quite familiar. I realized, as Higgins (1981) suggested, that those interested in comparative research in social policy are faced with a daunting series of problems. The key problem in comparative studies is that of finding the correct balance between good description and analysis (Higgins, 1981). Given that I was not starting on a level playing field from the outset, I knew that I would

have to approach the British side of the study in a substantively different way from the Canadian side of the study. I also knew that I wanted to obtain a 'big picture' perspective of training practice teachers in each country, but that I also wanted an 'in-depth' perspective of a few individuals in each country who were the recipients of training. These twin desires informed my decision to conduct a national survey in each country to elicit information from those in a position to be most knowledgeable and informed about training practice teachers and to conduct a case study in each country to understand the perspectives of those who experience this training.

My inquiry into practice teacher training might be considered by some to be methodologically 'messy' due to the factors constraining the use of identical data gathering protocols and techniques in the United Kingdom and in Canada. There are cultural, epistemological, economic, physical, and personal factors that stood in the way of executing a methodologically 'clean' study. Because of the methodological problems involved, comparative research has been opposed by those who consider it to be misleading. There are dangers in comparing like with unlike, and the assumption that the outcome has some watertight validity (Higgins, 1981). Researchers who use comparative data to highlight the similarities and differences between countries need to be clear about the elements in the comparison which may force them to qualify their conclusions.

Rather than give up my pursuit of knowledge because of the methodological difficulties, I decided to use a multi-method approach incorporating both quantitative and qualitative strategies. I also needed methodologies that had enough flexibility to accommodate the opportunities emerging in the field, allowing the design to be adapted and changed as the study proceeded because of "the social realities of doing research among and with the living" (Janesick, 1994). As Hugh Prather (1970) said over two decades ago:

> Ideas are clean. They soar in the serene supernal.
> I can take them out and look at them, they fit in books,
> they lead me down that narrow way. And in the morning they are there.
> Ideas are straight—
> But the world is round, and
> a messy mortal is my friend.
> Come walk with me in the mud . . .

DESIGN DECISIONS: FROM THE OUTSIDE LOOKING IN, FROM THE INSIDE LOOKING OUT

My first design decision was to include my entire experience in England in the data-gathering process. This meant that I consciously collected field notes and kept records of who I met and spoke with, and I paid attention to my own learning processes and developments. During my first trip to England, I immersed myself in the British and to a lesser extent, the European literature, the fruits of which have been presented in the two preceding chapters. What I learned from this process changed the way I approached the North American literature. I discovered how valuable it is to consume the literature whole, so to speak, and that this method actually aids the digestion process. My intent with regard to the North American literature, with which I was quite familiar and up-to-date, had been to simply identify gaps and fill in the blanks. Instead, I decided to review it in a similar manner to the British material which meant rereading much of which I had read over the past 10 years. What emerged for me was a much more cogent and connected picture of where we have been, where we are and where we are going vis à vis practice teaching in both countries.

I found that there is little exchange of information, ideas and research between the United Kingdom and North America on the subject of practice teaching. Specifically, the literature in the areas of curriculum design and structure, teaching and learning methods, practice teaching models, and supervision concepts and roles are notable for their lack of reference to work done on the opposite side of the ocean. In the United Kingdom, what is referenced from North American literature is usually well-known, classical work in the area and it tends to be dated. Interestingly, the few citations that appear tend to be the same ones referred to over and over again. This is perhaps better than no reference at all, which appears to be the case with the North American literature where virtually no British work is cited in this area. What is apparent is that there is a growing body of literature and research on both sides of the Atlantic which can be fruitfully shared and exchanged to the benefit of both countries and to the enhancement of practice teaching.

Starting my data gathering in England equipped me to be more sensitive to context, heightened my awareness about taking things for granted and made me a more cautious, conscientious researcher when I turned my attention to data gathering in Canada. I became especially responsive to cultural differences in the English language and careful about my

interpretation of meanings in a way that better prepared me to hold in abeyance my preconceived notions about training practice teachers in Canada. Like others, I became concerned about some of the ethical problems present in data-collection methods with the controlling role of the researcher in interviewing and observing others (Fontana & Frey, 1994). I wanted to ensure I was hearing the voices and feelings of those who contributed to the research (Marcus & Fischer, 1986) and I wanted to account for gender (Denzin, 1989a; Gluck & Patai, 1991; Olesen, 1994) and ethnicity/culture (Fiske, 1994; Stanfield, 1985, 1994) in the researcher/participant relationship and in my interpretation of the data.

In order to have a foundation for understanding how social workers become practice teachers and what practice teacher training programmes mean to those who participate in them, I quickly found that I needed to become acculturated in England, preferably at an accelerated rate. While I wanted access to social workers' experience of training and becoming practice teachers, I also wanted to know the extent and scope of training throughout both countries. It became clear to me that neither a purely qualitative nor quantitative approach would satisfy my curiosity and desire to know, understand and build knowledge.

There were quantitative elements like 'how much' and 'how often' that I needed to know before I could fully appreciate and understand the nuances and meanings being shared with me about 'what occurs' and 'what it means.' Similarly, in some instances it was only by immersing myself in the observation of and dialogue with people who were directly involved in the development, planning and teaching on practice teacher courses, or involved in some capacity with CCETSW, that I could grasp the meaning inherent in the quantitative information. Still later, I found that understanding the perspectives of practice teachers required access to both qualitative and quantitative information.

Both methods contributed to this research. I was supported in this decision by Toseland's (1994, p. 455) commentary on the qualitative/quantitative debate where he suggests moving beyond acrimony to meaningful dialogue by "concentrating how to combine and make the best use of quantitative and qualitative methodologies" and others who promote integrated approaches (Bernstein & Epstein, 1994; Harrison, 1994). According to Fielding and Fielding (1986), we now have available an accumulation of studies that have used multiple methods to 'triangulate' findings, to 'replicate' tests and explorations, and to 'link' data and methods systematically. It was my intent to accomplish this by my choice of methodologies.

COLLECTING AND ANALYSING DATA: NATIONAL SURVEY METHOD

I conducted a national survey in each country using a mailed, self-administered questionnaire (Fontana & Frey, 1994) sent to the entire set (Gabor, 1993) or the whole population of potential respondents in each country. In the United Kingdom, the entire set consisted of each approved practice teacher course (n=35) listed by CCETSW in 1991. In Canada, the entire set consisted of all the accredited schools of social work (n=26) in 1991 CASSW list. The contact persons identified were the Course Directors of the practice teacher courses in the UK and the Field Directors of schools of social work in Canada.

My questionnaire was specifically developed for the purposes of this study and then adapted for use in each country. It asked fixed-alternative questions (Mindel, 1993), Likert-type scale questions or summated scales questions (Jordan, Franklin, & Corcoran, 1993), and open-ended questions. Respondents were also asked to provide written materials and other documents related to practice teacher training was subjected to content analysis (LeCroy & Solomon, 1993). Adjustments were made to the questionnaires for each country to accommodate the difference in terminology, for example *practice teacher* in the United Kingdom and *field instructor* in Canada, and differences in programme structures. For example, the Canadian questionnaire contained a series of questions to determine the type of training the school provided, whereas the type of training in the United Kingdom was the CCETSW-approved Practice Teacher course. Course directors in the United Kingdom could, however, identify different types of training in regards to the provision of training prior to the CCETSW-approved course.

The national survey provided me with a view of practice teacher training from the course or field directors' perspective. It was designed to elicit information about the amount and types of training, the timing of training, and the number of people being trained. Details were sought about the content, format, teaching methods, and processes of training; their attitudes and beliefs about the training they provide and other related practice teaching issues; and their thoughts about improving or changing the training. Lastly, respondents were asked to indicate their opinions on training issues reflecting their experience in preparing and working with practice teachers. These data were gathered using a scale composed of 12 Likert-type items ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). Each item focused on different issues such as whether training should be mandatory, their satisfaction with the

training their programs provide, if it includes content on anti-discriminatory practice, and other salient aspects of field education.

It was a one-time-only opportunity to gather opinions and information, although in some instances I contacted the respondents if I needed clarification in a substantial way. I also urged a greater response by sending two letters to recalcitrant responders at approximately six-week intervals from the date the original response was requested. This resulted in a response rate from the United Kingdom of 54.3% (19/35) and in Canada of 96.2% (26/27).[1]

It can be speculated that the response rate in Canada was so overwhelmingly high because I am known to most of the people responding to the questionnaire (i.e., they hold similar positions in their respective schools of social work in Canada) and they wanted to cooperate and support my research. The one school that did not respond was just newly accredited and although one could speculate that they did not have anything to say about training practice teachers because they were focused on just delivering the social work course, there was no response to indicate reasons for their non-completion of the questionnaire.

The disappointing response rate from course directors in the United Kingdom might be explained by a number of factors. These respondents, as a group, may have been feeling overburdened with questionnaires at the time mine was sent. First, I was aware of two other studies being conducted around the same time as mine, which were likely given priority since CCETSW was funding or conducting the research. Second, I was not known to any of the potential respondents and, therefore, could not engender any sort of feelings of guilt about not contributing, nor provoke feelings of support. Also, some course directors told me they simply did not have the extra time or energy to complete the questionnaire as their workplaces were experiencing dire and chaotic times. This resulted in my feeling very appreciative about the responses I did get rather than frustrated about the ones I did not.

With just slightly more than half the set in the UK responding, it was important to look further into the two groups of respondents and non-respondents to find out if my sample was representative of the entire set. A geographical spread seemed to be a relevant dimension to

---

[1]One school with two distinct programs (a native BSW program and a regular BSW program) each with its own field director was treated as two separate cases resulting in an n of 27 rather than 26 which is the number of accredited programs.

117

examine as the courses themselves all met national criteria by virtue of being approved by CCETSW. Using previously designated categories to distinguish programmes geographically (FCDRC, 1991), I found that the respondents were very similar to the non-respondents. The entire set included: 7 courses in the North of which 4 responded and 3 did not; 6 courses in the Central region of which 3 responded and 3 did not; 17 courses in the South of which 9 responded and 8 did not; 4 courses in Scotland of which 1 responded and 3 did not; and 1 course each in Northern Ireland and Wales to which both responded. Although caution must be used in generalising, at least geographically the respondents are representative of the entire set.

The national survey data were analysed using SPSS for Windows 6.0 (1993). Responses to open-ended questions were categorised and coded for subsequent quantitative and qualitative analysis. Descriptive statistics, largely based on frequency distributions, were used to analyse the data obtained from the questionnaire because of the small sample size. Qualitative data generated from open-ended questions were used to illustrate additional detail. In Canada, all of the variables were cross-classified with training type in order to better highlight the differences and similarities across Canada.

COLLECTING AND ANALYSING DATA: CASE STUDY METHOD

To obtain the perspective of the recipients of training, I chose a case study research method. For reasons that will be explicated, I selected one practice teacher course in the United Kingdom as my case which involved two different cohorts of participants (n=30; 1st cohort:n=15, 2nd cohort:n=15). In Canada, I selected two types of practice teacher courses, formal and short, each with one cohort of participants (n=33; formal:n=16, short:n=17).

The case studies were conducted in three phases using different research methods. The first phase consisted of participant observation and included unstructured interviews. This took place at the commencement of each practice teacher course. The amount of time spent in participant observation differed in each case. The second phase involved a mailed, self-administered questionnaire seeking both quantitative and qualitative information from participants of the courses immediately upon completion of the course. Consenting participants from the first and second cohort on the practice teacher course in the United Kingdom and from the formal and short courses in Canada were sent the survey question-

naire. The third phase took place six to nine months after completion of the course and involved in-depth, guided interviews with a small purposive sample from each cohort in the United Kingdom and each course in Canada.

All participants were given an explanation of the study and the opportunity to ask questions about it before granting me permission to participate and observe. They were given a choice about being sent the questionnaire and contacted later. Their anonymity was guaranteed and they were assured the information collected would be kept in a secure place and only used for the purposes of the study. They were informed they could withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences.

With regard to the first phase, I was consistent in both the Canadian and British cases in obtaining informed consent, taking copious field notes and videotaping parts of the sessions. To collect data in the United Kingdom, I spent five consecutive full days as a participant observer with the second cohort on the practice teacher course. There was no participant observation of the first cohort, although they did participate in the other two phases of the case study. In Canada, I participated and observed during the first session of both the formal and short courses. In the case of the formal course, the group had met briefly the previous week to review the course objectives and to meet the instructor and each other. I was entering the group during the first formal class. In the case of the short course, this was the first time they were meeting. For purposes of consistency and comparability between countries, the 'thick description' (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 119) of each case is limited to the first day as a participant observer.

For the second phase, all participants who agreed were sent similar questionnaires, using the same protocols, upon completion of the course. The questionnaires were adjusted to be specific and relevant to the course each participant had taken and, therefore, had some modifications made to them. Participants were asked questions about their employment and educational background, practice teaching experience and other demographic information. Respondents were also asked to indicate their opinion on a number of issues about the practice teacher course. Data on their opinions and ideas on the course were collected by having them respond to open-ended questions on the highlights and low points of the course, the part of the course they learned the most or least from, and topics they would like to see added to the course. Finally, they were asked to rate the degree of helpfulness of the course

to their learning using a scale of 12 Likert-type items ranging from 'Most Helpful' to 'Not Helpful.' At the end of the questionnaire, participants were invited to indicate their further interest and willingness to take part in the study and their agreement to this meant I might approach them for a follow-up interview. The questionnaires from both the British and Canadian participants were coded and entered as one data set.

For the third phase, individuals self-identified as potential follow-up interview candidates. From this list I then selected a purposive sample (Gabor, 1993) of eight practice teacher course participants from each country based on variation in age, gender, ethnicity, cohort, years of experience as a social worker, previous experience as a practice teacher, place of employment and difference of opinion expressed on the questionnaire. I also developed a list of alternates. I then contacted individuals by telephone to book an appointment and simply kept calling down the list until I found eight willing participants whose schedule did not conflict with mine. Given that all the Canadian follow-up interviews were conducted over the telephone and all of the UK follow-up interviews were conducted face-to-face, I could possibly attribute any notable differences in the quality of the information obtained from the two groups to the method of collecting it and this, in and of itself, could be a potentially useful finding. There was within-group consistency in the manner in which the follow-up data were collected and between-group consistency in the manner in which the data were analysed. All follow-up interviews were audio-taped and later transcribed, coded and categorised using Ethnograph.

Case Study Research Strategy

Case study, to some extent, has become a catch-all category for studies that are clearly not experimental, survey, or historical. The term has been used interchangeably with fieldwork, ethnography, participant observation, exploratory research, and naturalistic inquiry (Merriam, 1988, p. xii). Case study, and in particular qualitative case study, is an ideal design for understanding and interpreting observations of educational phenomena (Merriam, 1988, p. 2).

The qualitative case study is a particularly suitable methodology for dealing with critical problems of practice and extending knowledge base of various aspects of education (Merriam, 1988, p. xiii). As Yin (1989) observes, case study is a design suited to situations where it

is impossible to separate the phenomenon's variables from their context. A qualitative case study is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution, a person, a process, or a social unit (Merriam, 1988, p. xiv). Case studies can be described in terms of the end product which can be a descriptive narrative, interpretive account, or an evaluation (Merriam, 1988, p. xiv).

This research paradigm was selected because I believe research focused on discovery, insight, and understanding from the perspectives of those being studied offers the greatest promise of making significant contributions to the knowledge base and practice of education. This decision stems from the fact that I am interested in 'interpretation in context' (Cronbach, 1975, p. 123) rather than hypothesis testing. Naturalistic inquiry, which focuses on meaning in context, requires a data-collection instrument sensitive to underlying meaning when gathering and interpreting data (Merriam, 1988, p. 3). Methods that make use of human sensibilities such as interviewing, observing, and analysing, along with non-probability forms of sampling and inductive data analysis, are consistent with the goals and assumptions of this paradigm (Merriam, 1988, p. 3).

Several writers have advanced definitions of the case study congruent with this discussion. Wilson (1979, p. 448), for example, conceptualises the case study as a process "which tries to describe and analyse some entity in qualitative, complex and comprehensive terms not infrequently as it unfolds over a period of time." MacDonald and Walker's (1977, p. 181) definition of a case study as "the examination of an instance in action" is congruent with Guba and Lincoln's (1981, p. 371) statement that the purpose is "to reveal the properties of the class to which the instance being studied belongs." Patton (1990, p. 54) suggests the case study is "an in-depth form of research that may focus on a person, a group, a program, an organization, a time period, a cultural incident, or a community."

> Case studies concentrate attention on the way particular groups of people
> confront specific problems, taking a holistic view of the situation . . . they
> are problem centred, small scale, entrepreneurial endeavours. (Shaw, 1978,
> p. 2)

The end product of a case study is a rich, thick description of the phenomenon under study (Merriam, 1988). 'Thick description' is a term from anthropology and means the complete, literal description of the incident or entity being investigated. It also means "interpreting the meaning of . . . demographic and descriptive data in terms of cultural norms and mores, community values, deep-seated attitudes and notions, and the like" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981,

p. 119). Instead of reporting findings in numerical data, "case studies present documentation of events, quotes samples and artifacts" (Wilson, 1979, p. 448). Insights into how things get to be the way they are can be expected to result from case studies (Stake, 1994, p. 47).

A case study can be quantitative, qualitative, or some combination of the two (Ruckdeschel, Earnshaw & Firrek, 1994). In the cases studied herein a combination approach was used to collect and analyse both qualitative and quantitative data. Patton (1990, p. 280) suggests there are three basic approaches to collecting qualitative data through open-ended interviews: the informal conversational interview; the general interview guide; and the standardised open-ended interview. I was able to obtain data by all three approaches at different stages throughout the case studies.

The informal conversational interview, which "relies entirely on the spontaneous generation of questions in the natural flow of an interaction" (Patton, 1990, p. 280) was used during the times I was a participant-observer on the courses. I was introduced to all participants as a social work educator from Canada and a Ph.D. student in the UK conducting research on the training of practice teachers but participants were also informed that I would be contributing and participating in the course whilst there. This allowed me to engage in informal dialogue with participants, both individually and in small groups, during coffee and lunch breaks and before and after sessions.

In this manner, I was able to gather the immediate impressions of specific content or process segments of the course as experienced by individuals and small groups of participants. This was done through the normal course of conversation by listening, asking and sharing my own reactions in the naturally occurring exchanges that such informal opportunities provide. This means that different information was collected from different people with different questions at different times.

Data collected in this way are somewhat difficult to organise and analyse but it was extremely useful to check out my perceptions emerging from the immediate context and circumstances. In some cases it confirmed and mirrored my experience as a participant but in other situations it allowed me to shift my frame of reference from that of observer to that of insider in attempting to understand a particular interaction. I was also able to seek the opinions of other

participants to clarify whether a response (be it mine or someone else's) was unique or typical, shared by none or many.

The data gathered through this method served to clarify my understanding and interpretation of how the participants experienced and made sense of their course. As I reviewed the video tapes, the field notes taken of the informal conversational interviews added a dimension of the participants' immediate reflection of their experience not captured through the video tape and not reliably present when completing the questionnaire at the conclusion of the course. It was, therefore, a rich source of data when combined with data gathered by other means (Patton, 1990).

During the follow-up interviews which took place approximately six months after completion of the course, a general interview guide approach (Patton, 1990) or semi-structured guided interview was utilised. I prepared an outline of areas to be covered with each participant prior to the follow-up interviews. I did not adhere to any particular order nor was the actual wording of the questions determined in advance. The guide served as a basic checklist to make sure the issues were addressed but I was free to adapt both the wording and the sequence of questions to each participant in the context of the interview. This was particularly important in attempting to obtain common information from the British and Canadian participants. The cultural (including linguistic) differences and methodological differences required this type of flexibility and adaptation. Since the United Kingdom participants were interviewed in person and the Canadian participants were interviewed over the telephone, it was important the interviews remained fairly conversational and situational. This was achieved using a semi-structured or the interview guide approach. It must be recognised, however, that, according to Patton (1990, p. 288), using this type of interview "increases the comprehensiveness of the data and makes the data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent" on the one hand, but that this type of flexibility can "result in substantially different responses thus reducing the comparability of responses," on the other hand.

Standardised open-ended questions were asked of participants but not in an interview format. Participants were mailed a questionnaire immediately following the completion of their course. Included were a series of carefully worded open-ended questions to which participants were asked to write responses. The words were the same for every participant

but were adjusted for British and Canadian usage. In this manner, I was able to obtain systematic data which was still qualitative in nature in that participants were free to respond (or not) in ways that made sense to them. The problem with these open-ended questions was that there was no opportunity to probe or clarify what the participant meant or if I was interpreting their words correctly. The standardised wording of the questions and their use in the questionnaire (as opposed to interview) obviously limits the relevance of the responses but is useful for purposes of triangulation. Triangulation serves to clarify meaning by identifying different ways the phenomena is being seen (Flick, 1992) and as Janesick (1994) points out, relying on the use of several kinds of methods and data broadens our understanding of the substance. In this case, the information was used to corroborate and add to the data gathered through the participant observation method, the informal conversational interviews, the general interview guide approach used in the follow-up interviews and the other parts of the mailed questionnaire.

The purpose of combining participant observation with qualitative interviewing and mailed questionnaires was to increase the reliability, validity and comparability of the findings of the study of cases of practice teacher training programmes in the United Kingdom and Canada. I wanted to understand how participants viewed their respective programmes, to learn their meanings and to capture the complexities of their perceptions of the training they experienced.

The British Case Study

At the same time as I was familiarising myself with the British literature during my first period of residency, I was introduced to those individuals delivering the CCETSW DipSW, the CQSW, and the Practice Teacher courses at an education institution already taking part in the University of Newcastle evaluation study based in the North region. They were in the midst of running their first course leading to the Practice Teacher Award. They appeared interested and enthusiastic about my research and were willing to be a study site.

Knowing that access and entry are sensitive components in case studies (Janesick, 1994; Merriam, 1988; Taylor, 1993; Yin, 1989), I was very pleased with this invitation. I therefore decided, based on logistics, proximity and having established the beginnings of a relationship, to study this course in the North region in an in-depth manner and it would serve as my case study in the United Kingdom. Janesick (1994, p. 211) points out that by establishing trust and rapport at the beginning of the study, the researcher is better able to

capture the participants' point of view.   In this case, I had established rapport and had stimulated the interest of those running the course and was, therefore, in a position to be 'let in' by those who could (and did) set the stage for participant cooperation and involvement.

My preliminary review of CCETSW and other materials related to practice teacher courses, and the subsequent document analysis of CCETSW-approved practice teacher course materials I collected from the programmes participating in the national survey, revealed that the course under study was, in many ways, typical of courses taught in other parts of the United Kingdom. Given the limit I had on both my time and resources, it was, therefore, convenient and served my purpose to study the Practice Teacher Course in north region. Both Patton (1990) and Goetz and LeCompte (1984) describe several types of non-probability sampling strategies used in case study research that are purposeful or criterion-based. In reviewing these, it becomes evident that I used what Goetz and LeCompte (1984) refer to as the typical case selection strategy and what Patton (1990) calls convenience-sampling strategy.

During the time of my data collection, two cohorts of practice teachers went through the practice teachers course. The first cohort began their course during my first trip to Newcastle upon Tyne. I did not meet any of the participants of the first cohort in person until three participated in face-to-face, follow-up interviews six months after completing the course. However, they were all informed of the study and, via signed consent forms, agreed to have their names and addresses given to me for the purposes of participating in the study. Those who consented were sent the questionnaire upon completion of the course (n=15).

I was able to meet the second cohort of participants in the practice teacher course as I was invited to take part as a participant and an observer and thereby join this cohort during their first week on the course. The first week consisted of five consecutive full days at the college and it permitted me to connect with a group of individuals interested in obtaining the practice teacher award as they began their course. I was introduced to them, I explained who I was, what I was hoping to get from them, and what I thought they could get from me. I explained that the course leader had given his consent for me to attend and contribute throughout the week but that they were free to involve themselves with me or not, to whatever extent they chose, and that regardless of what they chose, it would not in any way affect their success on the course. They were invited to sign an informed consent giving their permission for me

to videotape at various times throughout the week, talk informally with participants about their experiences, and contact them after they completed the course by supplying me with a mailing address. The same procedures for the mailed questionnaire and follow-up interviews used with the first cohort were used with this cohort. The response rate to the mailed questionnaires of the British case study was 73.3% (22/30; 1st cohort=10/15, 2nd cohort=12/15). For the follow-up interviews, there were three participants from the first cohort and five participants from the second cohort who consented to meet with me.

The Canadian Case Study

In Canada, two study sites were selected because the national survey had revealed, unlike in the UK, that there are two distinct types of courses which schools of social work provide to train their field instructors: a short course consisting of several sessions over a number of weeks; and a formal course which is regularly scheduled during an academic term and where participants can earn credits or credentials. I thought it might be useful to this study to gain the perspective of those experiencing both types of courses.

The selection of study sites became a matter of logistics and convenience as there were only six formal courses and five short courses to choose from throughout Canada. One of the formal courses was ruled out immediately as I had developed and taught this course over the past two years and I felt it would compromise the integrity of the study for me to now become the researcher inquiring into the experience of those taking a course in which I had been so instrumental. I believe there is a point at which no amount of declaring personal bias and beliefs would satisfy the rigour of the research I wanted to conduct, so the Field Instructors Certificate course at The University of Calgary was eliminated from consideration.

I knew I wanted the opportunity to participate and observe as near to the start of the course as possible, as it had proved so fruitful in England to begin my participant observation at the commencement of the course. I found that it was a natural entry point into the group and I believe it caused less disruption to interaction and the normal processes of getting started than entering at any other point. To complicate matters of consistency with data gathering in the United Kingdom, I found that none of the courses in Canada were taught on consecutive days. They were taught weekly or every other week. Given that these courses were geographically located in eastern Canada and I am situated in the west with some 4000 miles separating me

from the study sites, it was neither physically nor financially feasible to have the equivalent of five days of contact.

In reflecting upon this dilemma of trying to be consistent in data gathering in both countries, I examined the potential implications on my results. Ideally, there is no question that identical protocols would enhance the validity of the comparisons being made. But what would be the cost of not conforming exactly? Given that there was within group consistency and triangulation of data to address reliability and validity concerns, I was reasonably confident that case study results could stand alone. The problem then was that of making comparisons. It was evident that the training courses for practice teachers in the UK and Canada were considerably different entities in and of themselves which would render comparing them in the strictest sense of the word a difficult and not particularly useful exercise. What I was really after was the meaning the participants made of the experience of training. Given my familiarity with 'the way things are done at home' and my ability to connect with people, I reasoned that I did not need the same amount of time with the Canadian participants. After all, I was not constrained by the same barriers to access and interpretation as I was in England, such as my lack of knowledge and uncertainty regarding cultural norms and communication patterns. What became important was to have an opportunity to connect with participants at the beginning of their course, to establish trust and rapport in a way that would facilitate honest and open dialogue and a willingness to continue to participate in the study through to the follow-up interviews six months after completing the course. I therefore decided that, given the costs and geographic impediments in Canada, it would not cause undue harm to the integrity of the findings to not replicate the protocols exactly. Having said that, any comparisons between cases must be interpreted with caution.

Since there are two levels of social work education involving practice teaching, baccalaureate and master's, I wanted to ensure this study included the training of practice teachers at both levels. I was able to find two such courses in eastern Canada where I could attend the opening sessions of each course (n=33: formal course n= 16, short course n=17). The formal course prepared practice teachers for master's level students. The short course prepared practice teachers for baccalaureate level students. In a manner similar to the British case study, I mailed willing participants a self-administered questionnaire at the conclusion of their course. The response rate of the Canadian case study participants was 69.6% (23/33; formal=10/16, short=13/17).

I faced the same constraints in conducting the follow-up interviews in Canada as I had in managing the participant observation. I found it unworkable to schedule enough interviews in the timeframe available to make it feasible for me to travel to the two sites in eastern Canada. I therefore decided to interview the Canadian participants over the telephone (Dillman, 1978), with the knowledge that I would not necessarily obtain comparable data to the face-to-face, follow-up interviews conducted in England (Patton, 1990). However, I believed it would provide me with some understanding of participants perspectives on training after the passage of some time. I used the same method to select and recruit willing participants to the follow-up interviews in Canada, as I had used in Britain but I also looked for equal representation from each of the two types of courses. In this case, however, I booked appointments for the telephone interviews with four participants from the formal course and four participants from the short course.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY: ISSUES AND OVERVIEW

This chapter has discussed and described the research methods and strategies employed in this study. A context was provided to clarify and explain the design and methodological choices that were made. The background, biases and assumptions of the researcher were disclosed to further the scholarly argumentation for the approach to the study.

A multi-method approach was used to examine and compare practice teacher training in the United Kingdom and Canada. A national survey was conducted in each country to collect empirical data and gain the perspective of those responsible for administering, teaching or directing practice teacher training. Course and field directors from the entire set in each country were invited to complete the survey. The national survey questionnaires were pilot tested in the UK with six individuals all who are involved in social work education but not as directors of a practice teacher course. In Canada they were pre-tested with four social work educators but not field directors. The pilot tests were invaluable for discerning questions that were unclear or did not produce the information the question was intended to extract. In the UK the pilot tests were particularly helpful in identifying and subsequently removing the 'americanisms' from the language used in the questionnaire.

The accuracy of some of the responses to the questions could be checked by way of written course materials that were enclosed or sent with the questionnaires as per my request. Other

questions sought respondents' opinions which it was assumed they could offer in an informed way, given their position as course or field director. For the remainder of responses I had to trust in the accuracy of the data provided by the individual in question. If I were repeating this research strategy, I might also consider asking questions of the department chair or head of the social work course, not just the practice teacher course director or field director of a social work programme. This would increase the number of respondents and provide a perspective on the social work course as a whole not just the part to do with practice learning. I would also try to find a way to obtain a better response from the UK, although short of making personal visits with each course, I did not know how I would do this. The results of the national surveys are presented in the next chapter, Chapter Five.

A case study methodology was used to examine particular training courses in each country. This method illuminated the experience of practice teachers who were the recipients of training on those particular courses. Their experience of training was collected at three different times, using three different methods. Initially, a participant observation method was used wherein I joined with the participants at the beginning of the training. These findings are filtered through my own experience which I have attempted to articulate and demonstrate its influence. The sessions were videotaped and I took notes both during and immediately following the sessions. The analysis reflects my impressions and although I have tried to ground my reasoning through the thick description of the events, they are filtered through my experience and cannot be interpreted in any other light. My experience as a participant observer and resulting reflections, perceptions and emergent themes are presented in Chapter Six.

The next strategy involved a self-administered survey questionnaire which was mailed to the course participants at the conclusion of the course. This questionnaire was subjected to a small pilot test in each country with practice teachers who had formerly been on courses but were not participants of the main study. As with the national survey questionnaire, the pilot test was extremely helpful in drafting the final version of the questionnaire. The questionnaire sought participants' opinions and feelings about the course which allowed for some quantitative analysis of the data as well as qualitative.

Finally, follow-up interviews were conducted with a sample of participants six to nine months after completion of the course. These interviews provided a retrospective view of the course

and the information gleaned was triangulated with the responses to the questionnaires. Ideally I would have liked to conduct follow-up interviews with all the participants as I am not certain I exhausted all the possible categories with the purposive sample that I did interview. The perspectives and views of the practice teachers who experienced training, the opinions and judgments and an analysis of these data are presented in Chapter Seven. What follows in the next three chapters is a picture and analysis of training practice teachers in the United Kingdom and Canada that explores and describes the extent and scope of training, the content and methods of training, and the perceptions of recipients of training with a view to expanding the knowledge base regarding models, methods and meanings of preparing practice teachers for that role which is at the heart of social work education.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE NATIONAL SCENE

This chapter presents the results of the national surveys conducted in each country. In the United Kingdom questionnaires were sent to course directors of practice teachers courses as listed in a 1991 CCETSW directory of courses. Valid responses were received from 19 of 35 course directors in the United Kingdom for a response rate of 54.3%. In Canada questionnaires were sent to the field director of each school of social work as listed in the 1991 CASSW directory of accredited programmes. Valid responses were received by 26 of 27 field directors in Canada for a response rate of 96.2%.

Each national survey in itself presents a comprehensive view of practice teacher training in the respective country and as well provides a basis for comparing practice teacher training in the United Kingdom and Canada. Concerted effort was given to the analysis of data comparable for both countries. Given that there are many significant differences, there are variables unique to each country upon which there is no basis for comparison. In these cases, within-country data are analysed such that the salient features of practice teacher training from the perspective of course or field directors in each country are presented. For example, there is a national core curriculum in the United Kingdom for training practice teachers but there is no comparable curriculum in Canada. However, in Canada there are several types of practice teacher training but only one type in the United Kingdom.

There are four broad categories of findings that provide information about practice teacher training: 1) demographic information about the course and field directors completing the questionnaire; 2) characteristics of practice teacher training, which supplies details about the types of training, enrollment, length, selection procedures, teaching methods, and assessment practices related to practice teacher training courses; 3) descriptions of course content and course formats, which identify the most important content, content to be added, aspects of course formats that are valued, and aspects of course formats to be changed; and 4) opinions on notable training issues.

131

DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic information was sought from the course and field directors completing the questionnaire. As can be seen in Table 5.1, the gender difference among course and field directors in each country is quite similar in that 63.2% of course directors completing the United Kingdom questionnaire are female, while 69.2% of the field directors completing the Canadian survey are female.

Table 5.1   Demographic Information on Course Directors

	UK (n=18)	Canada (n=26)
Gender		
Female	12 (63.2%)	18 (69.2%)
Male	6 (21.6%)	8 (30.8%)
Ethnic Origin		
White, British, or North American	12 (73.7%)	15 (65.2%)
French/Quebec	0	6 (26.1%)
Irish, Celtic or Welsh	4 (21.0%)	0
Aboriginal	0	1 (4.3%)
African	1 (5.3%)	1 (4.3%)
Disabled	1 (5.3%)	0
Educational Background[a]		
Bachelor	22 (45.8%)	22 (45.8%)
Master	8 (16.7%)	23 (47.9%)
Ph.D.	1 (2.1%)	2 (4.2%)
Diploma/Certificate	17 (35.4%)	1 (2.1%)

[a]The percentage on educational background is based on total number of responses. Respondents are asked to list First, Second, and Third Degrees. Those responses were collapsed into major categories such as Bachelor, Master, Ph.D., and Diploma/Certificate.

Respondents were asked to indicate their ethnic origin. The findings indicate there is little diversity amongst directors in either country. The majority of directors in each country identified themselves as white, and either British or Canadian (73.7% in UK, 66.1% in Canada). In the United Kingdom, 21% (n=4) indicated they were Irish, Celtic or Welsh, and 5.3% (n=1) indicated they were African. In Canada, 26.1% (n=6) indicated they were French or Quebecois, 4.3% (n=1) indicated they were Aboriginal, and 4.3% indicated they were African (n=1). Only one director out of all the respondents from both countries (n-45), indicated s/he was disabled. This respondent was from the United Kingdom.

Respondents were asked to indicate their educational background by listing all degrees, diplomas, and certificates and the year granted. These were categorised according to degree at the bachelor, post-graduate (master) or Ph.D. level, diploma or post-qualifying certificate. When all types of qualifications are considered, a greater proportion of British course directors have acquired three or more awards compared to Canadian directors. One of the reasons for this may be the availability of post-qualifying certificates and diplomas in the United Kingdom compared to Canada where a second or third award is typically limited to obtaining a degree at a higher level than the previously held one.

Respondents were asked to indicate if they regularly read any social work related journals and to list the titles. In no cases do United Kingdom course directors and Canadian field directors read the same journals. All United Kingdom respondents indicated that they read at least two journals on a regular basis. These are most frequently *Community Care* and *Social Work Today*. Eight or more journals were listed by 11.8% of the course directors. In Canada 20% indicated that they do not read social work related journals and 20% indicated one journal is read on a regular basis. Twelve percent stated they read eight or more journals. The most frequently read journals are *The Canadian Social Work Review* and *The Journal on Social Work Education*.

CHARACTERISTICS OF TRAINING

Several different features of preparing practice teachers are examined and compared in this section. To begin, the various types of training that are in use are defined and their prevalence is discussed. This is followed by an examination of characteristics such as enrollment in training, length of training and selection procedures. Finally, the teaching methods used to train practice teachers and the assessment practices of training programmes are presented.

Types of Training

A broad definition of training was used to identify the full range of activities that might be used to prepare, educate or train practice teachers. Type of training was operationalised according to whether the training was a *formal course, short course, workshop/seminar, orientation,* and/or *individual preparation* of practice teachers. *Formal course* is defined as

regularly scheduled classes during an academic term where participants usually earn credits. *Short course* consists of several sessions over a number of weeks. *Workshop/seminar* is a type of training that is offered once or more during a term usually focused on specific aspects of practice teaching. *Orientation* is a session for practice teachers held at or near the beginning of term to provide general information about requirements and expectations. *Individual preparation* of practice teachers provides general information about the practice teaching programme and specific information about students on a one-to-one basis. These types of training could be viewed as a continuum of training activities in that they increase in terms of length of time, expectations of participants, and depth and range of content and skills.

At present there is one sanctioned type of training in the United Kingdom for practice teachers. This is the CCETSW-approved practice teacher course which is classified, according to the above typology, as a *formal course*. All questionnaire respondents to the national survey were course directors of CCETSW-approved practice teacher courses. They were asked in the national survey about the types of training offered prior to the present practice teacher course. This was asked so that information comparable to the Canadian manner of training practice teachers might be obtained as there is no equivalent in Canada to the CCETSW-approved Practice Teacher Course. These data are presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2   Type of Previous Training in UK and Type of Training in Canada

Type of Training	UK (n = 19)		Canada (n = 26)	
	n	%	n	%
Formal Courses	6	31.6	6	23.1
Short Courses	11	57.9	5	19.2
Workshop/Seminars	14	73.7	19	73.1
Orientation	12	36.2	17	65.4
Individual Preparation	10	55.6	19	73.1
Total Training Activities	53		66	

The most frequently mentioned type of previous training in the United Kingdom was *workshop/seminar* (73.7%, n=14) and next most frequent was *short course* (57.9%, n=11), followed by *individual preparation* (55.6%, n=10). The least offered type of training prior

to offering the course leading to the Practice Teacher Award was *formal course* (31.6%, n=6). Thus, the recent move to offer only the *formal course* is a considerable change in the type of training provided to practice teachers along the training continuum.

Unlike the United Kingdom, there is neither any standard type of training for field instructors in Canada nor is there an expectation of any specific type of training by CASSW. Each school of social work therefore decides upon the type and amount of training it will offer for field instructors. Five distinct types of training were identified by examining the training materials and descriptions provided. They corresponded with the training types defined earlier: *formal course, short course, workshop/seminar, orientation* and *individual preparation*.

The most commonly offered types of training in Canada are *workshop/seminar* and *individual preparation* with 73.1% (n=19) of schools offering each of these types of training. This was closely followed by *orientation* offered by 65.4% (n=17) schools. *Formal courses* were provided by 23.1% (n=6) of the schools and *short courses* were offered by 19.2% (n=5) of the schools. Compared to the 1980 and 1985 data showing two and four courses for field instructors respectively, the number of courses offered has increased considerably, especially if formal and short courses are added together (n=11).

Table 5.3   Types of Training Provided in Canada

No. of Type Provided	No. of Schools (n=26)
No type	1 (4.0%)
Only one type	1 (4.0%)
Two types	9 (36.0%)
Three types	9 (36.0%)
Four types	5 (20.0%)

Of the 26 responses to the national survey in Canada, only one school of social work indicated that they were providing no training to field instructors in the 1992/93 academic year and this was due to special circumstances. As shown in Table 5.3, 96% of schools provide one or more types of training for field instructors. One school (4%) has only one type of training to offer field instructors. Two types of training are offered by 9 schools

(36%). Three types of training are provided by 9 (36%) schools while 20% (n=5) of schools offer four types of training. The 25 schools provided a total of 66 training activities for field instructors in the 1992/93 academic year. Just over half the schools sent materials related to training field instructors.

Specific Characteristics

These data describe the specific characteristics of training such as enrollment and completion, length of time and how time is spent in training, and selection procedures.

Enrollment in Training

Enrollment in training data provides information about the actual numbers participating in training activities. Attempts were made to collect information on completion rates as well as participation rates. Course directors in the United Kingdom were asked about the numbers of participants enrolled, completed and granted the award. There was wide variance (S.D.=25.1) from course to course so the median is used to show these data in Figure 5.1. Since the courses began, they have enrolled a median of 60 participants over the times the course has been offered. The median number of participants completing the courses was 32.5, while a median of 27.5 participants actually have received the award. These data show the rate of completion of practice teacher courses is 54.1% while 84.6% of those completing the courses receive the award. The low rate of completion is partly explained by the fact that the numbers enrolled included those presently taking the course and these participants would show up as not yet completed.
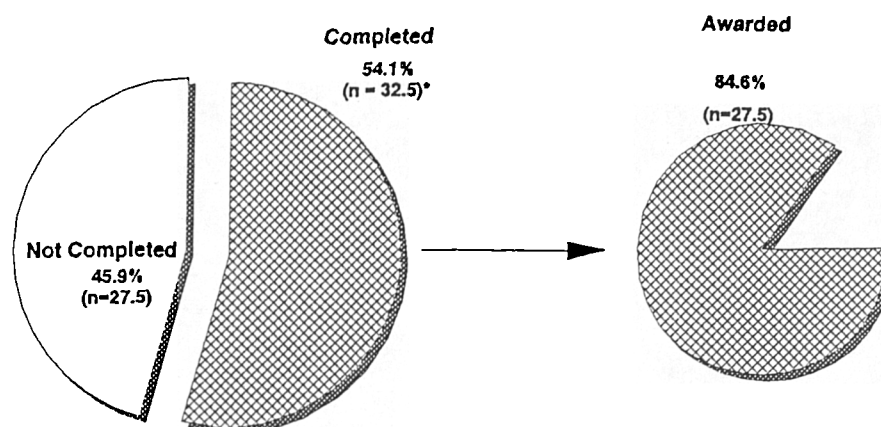
Figure 5.1   Enrollment and Completion Rate for United Kingdom

Figure 5.2 presents data on participation in Canadian training programmes by training type. The first variable is the average number of participants in each training programme.
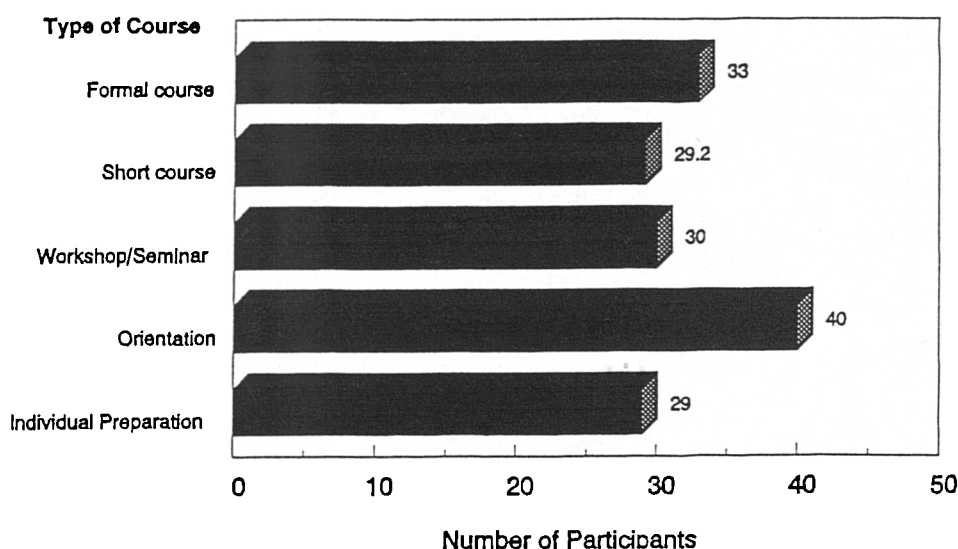
Figure 5.2   Participants in Canada by Training Type

There is a wide variance from school to school so the median is used as opposed to the mean. The median number of participants in the six formal courses is 33 and for the five short courses there is a median of 29.2 participants. The 19 schools offering workshops/seminars have a median of 30 participants, while the 17 schools offering orientations have a median of 40 participants. The median number of participants involved in individual preparation is

more difficult to calculate as seven schools indicated they provide this for 'new' field instructors but gave no indication of numbers. The median number using individual preparation as calculated from the data provided by the remaining 12 schools is 29 participants.

Length of Training

Length of training further describes the practice teacher course or training activities. In the United Kingdom, differences emerge regarding the number of hours spent on various aspects of the course, whereas in Canada, training length varies with training type.

All of the practice teacher courses in the United Kingdom offered 150 hours of training. It is not surprising that all courses reported the same number of hours as this is a CCETSW requirement (CCETSW, Paper 26.3, 1989b). However, there is considerable variation in how these hours are utilised. The median number of taught days on the course is 14, while the median number of actual taught hours is 74. The median number of hours spent in small groups, observing practice or being supervised is 24. The median number of hours devoted to self-study (including portfolio preparation) is 52. Therefore, Figure 5.3 shows the percent of time taught is 49.3%, the percent of time in small group work is 16.0% and 34.7% of the time is spent in independent study.
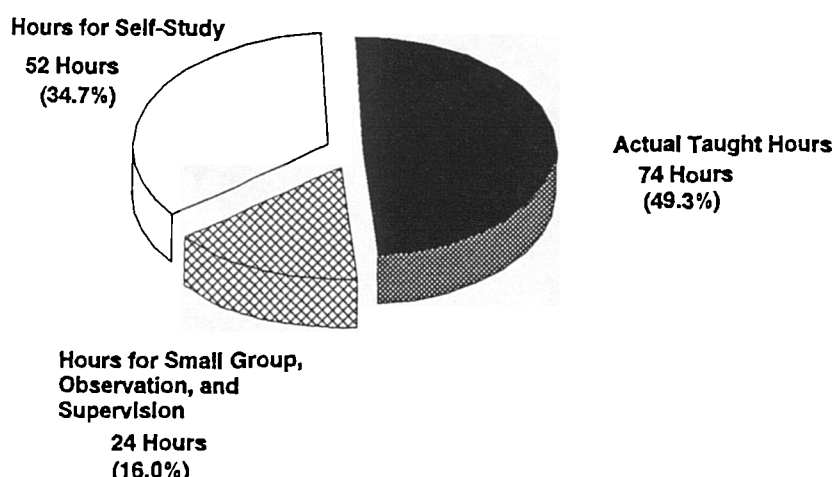
Figure 5.3   How 150 Hours Are Spent in United Kingdom

In Canada, the length of training varies by training type as shown in Table 5.4. Formal courses have the most number of hours (mean=31.3) and sessions (mean=13.1). Short

courses are next with an average of 15.6 hours and an average of 3.4 sessions. There are an average of 9 hours of training in workshops/seminars over 3.1 sessions and an average of 5.7 hours in orientations over 2.2 sessions. Again, it was more difficult to be accurate with individual preparation as a number of schools indicated 'as needed' when asked about the number of hours and sessions. Using the data available from 11 of the 19 schools, an average length of training in individual preparation is 1.5 hours over 1.5 sessions per field instructor. Thus, field instructors who are *individually prepared* receive the least training over the fewest sessions. Perhaps because this type of training is one to one, more sessions are not necessary to provide adequate training. The cost of individual preparation for the schools, however, is enormous in terms of the total number of training hours per school, as an average of 63 hours is spent by a school individually training field instructors.

Table 5.4   Requirement of Training and Training Hours by Training Type in Canada

	Formal (n=6)	Short (n=5)	Workshop (n=19)	Orientation (n=17)	Ind. Prep. (n=19)
Required	5 (83.0%)	2 (40.0%)	1 (5.3%)	7 (41.0%)	9 (50.0%)
Average Training Hours	31.3	15.6	9.0	5.7	1.5
Average No. of Sessions	13.1	3.4	3.1	2.2	1.5[a]

[a] The average number of sessions for Individual Preparation is per field instructor.

Where formal courses are offered, they are required by five of the six schools (83%), yet two out of five schools (40%) providing short courses require field instructors to take them. Only one school requires their field instructors to take the workshops/seminars but seven schools (41%) require the orientations and 50% of the schools (n=9) require individual preparation. Participation in training is more likely to be voluntary for those schools not offering a formal course for field instructors.

Selection Procedures

Selection procedures provide information about how courses choose participants and identify access issues that may confront practice teachers. These data are presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5   Type of Selection Procedure in the United Kingdom and Canada

Selection Procedure		UK (n=17)	Canada	
			Formal Course	Short Course
Yes		16 (88.9%)	5 (83.0%)	3(60.0%)
Type of Selection Procedure	Written Application	16 (88.9%)	3 (60.0%)	1(33.3%)
	Personal Interview	8 (47.1%)	2 (40.0%)	0
	Minimum Requirement[a]	16 (88.9%)	5 (83.0%)	3 (60.0%)
Selected by agencies		1(5.6%)	N/A	N/A

[a] Minimum requirements for the UK may include holding a CQSW, a new practice teacher, two years post-qualifying experience, supported by agency, recommendation from line manager and/or able to offer a student placement. Minimum requirements for Canada may include being a first-time field instructor, having a BSW or MSW, and a minimum of two or three years of work experience.

In the United Kingdom, 88.9% of course directors indicated they use selection procedures, while one course leaves the selection of participants up to the agencies. The type of selection criteria used includes written application (88.9%), personal interview (47.1%) and minimum requirements (88.9%) such as holding a CQSW, a new practice teacher, two years post-qualifying experience, supported by agency, recommendation from line manager and/or able to offer a student placement.

Only those schools in Canada offering formal or short courses answered questions about selection procedures into the courses. All but one school offering the formal course have some type of selection criteria (n=5, 83%). These range from written application (n=3, 60%) to personal interview (n=2, 40%), or to using minimum requirements (n=5, 83%) like being a first-time field instructor, having an MSW or a BSW, to having worked for a minimum of two or three years. The majority of schools with short courses have selection procedures (n=3, 60%). The selection criteria employed are written application (n=1, 33%), and minimum requirements (n=3, 60%) such as first-time field instructor, BSW, and worked a minimum of two or three years.

Teaching Methods

Teaching methods reported to be used on practice teacher courses include: *lecture, group discussion, role play* and experiential exercises, the use of *taping* and playback of tapes, *live supervision*, and *independent study*. The data presented in Table 5.6 provides information regarding the teaching·methods that are used and their relative frequency.

Table 5.6   **Teaching Methods in UK and Canada**

Teaching Methods	Canada (n = 26)					UK (n=19)
	Formal (n=6)	Short (n=5)	Workshop (n=19)	Orientation (n=17)	Individual Preparation (n=19)	
Group Discussion	6(100.0[a])	4(80.0)	19(100.0)	14(82.4)	3(15.8)	18(100.0)
Lecture	5(83.3)	4(80.0)	18(94.7)	13(76.5)	1(5.3)	17(94.4)
Role Play	3(50.0)	3(60.0)	8(42.1)	5(29.4)	1(5.3)	16(88.9)
Taping	3(50.0)	0(0.0)	4(21.1)	1(5.9)	0(0.0)	11(61.1)
Live Supervision	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	18(100.0)
Independent Study	1(16.7)	0(0.0)	1(5.3)	0(0.0)	4(21.1)	18(100.0)

[a] The number in parentheses represents the percentage.

The most commonly used teaching method in both countries and across all types of training is *group discussion*. It is used in the United Kingdom by 100% of all courses along with *independent study* and *live supervision*. It is used in Canada by all schools offering the formal course and workshop/seminar, and most schools offering the short course (80.0%) and orientation (82.4%). *Group discussion* is not a teaching method used in individual preparation to any great extent (15.8%) as by definition there is no group with whom to have a discussion.

The *lecture* is the next most commonly used teaching method in both countries. All but two courses in the United Kingdom (94.4%) and all training types in Canada except individual preparation (5.3%) employ this method with considerable frequency (formal = 83.3%, short = 80.0%, workshop/seminars = 94.6%, orientation = 76.5 %).

The use of *role play* and experiential exercises is more common in the United Kingdom as it is used with 88.9% of courses. In Canada, it is prevalent in half or slightly less than half of all types of training except individual preparation where it is not used at all.

Taping and playback of tapes is a teaching method that encourages practice teachers to tape their work with a student and play it back for self-evaluation, to obtain feedback from others, and to be used as examples of practice from which to learn. This method is less frequently used overall in both countries but used by 61.1% of the courses in the United Kingdom, whereas it is only used in 22.2% of the training in Canada. Half of the formal courses use it (50.0%), none of the short courses (0%), a few workshops/seminars (21.1%), and one orientation type of training (5.9%) indicate the use of taping and playback as a teaching method.

Another teaching method related to obtaining direct access to a practice teacher's work with a student is *live supervision*. This enables the teacher of the practice teacher to not only directly observe the practice teacher but also to intervene in the practice teaching in ways that might enable a practice teacher to actually develop skills during their work with a student rather than retrospectively. This is a time-consuming teaching method which may be threatening to the practice teacher and perhaps disruptive to the student due to its intrusive nature. It is nonetheless the only method to directly observe and interact with a practice teacher while engaged in the act of practice teaching. This method is used in the United Kingdom by all of the courses (100%) whereas in Canada it is not used at all regardless of the type of training.

Independent study is a well-recognised teaching method in the United Kingdom as it is used by 100% of the courses. This teaching method recognises the learning value in the time spent outside the classroom or the practice situation in independent or self-study. During this time the participant contemplates, reflects, reads, or works on assignments in relation to practice teaching. All practice teacher courses in the United Kingdom give credit to this teaching (learning) method in that it is calculated as part of the required hours of training. On the other hand, in Canada *independent study* is not as well recognised as a teaching method. *Independent study* is only acknowledged as a teaching method in individual preparation (21.1%) and in one formal course (16.7%).

142

Assessment

The characteristic of assessment (See Table 5.7) refers to a number of aspects involved in evaluating outcomes of training: assessing the *competency of participants* and how this is accomplished; *giving participants feedback* and ways this is done; and *participants evaluating* the course.

Competency of Participants

Competency of participants is assessed by 100% of courses in the United Kingdom. This is done most commonly by the portfolio (94.4%), and by live supervision/observation (88.9%), followed closely by self-evaluation (87.5%), and written assignments (83.3%). The least used method of assessing competency is the exam (5.6%). In Canada, *competency of participants* is assessed only in four formal courses (n=4, 66.6%). Competency is not assessed in any other type of training. Where competency is assessed, it is done through behaviour in class (75.0%) or continuously throughout the course (75.0%). It is less often done through written assignments or audio/video taping (25.0%). Not used at all in Canada are types of assessments frequently used in the United Kingdom such as the portfolio, live supervision/ observation and self-evaluation.

Table 5.7   Method of Assessing Competency of Participants

Method of Assessment	UK(n=19)		Canada(n=4)	
	n	%[a]	n	%
Written Assignment	15	83.3	1	25.0
Oral Presentation	5	27.8	0	0.0
Exam	1	5.6	0	0.0
Audio/Tape	12	66.7	1	25.0
Behaviour in Class	2	11.1	3	75.0
Continuous Evaluation	6	33.3	3	75.0
Portfolio	17	94.4	0	0.0
Live Supervision/ Observation	16	88.9	0	0.0
Self-Evaluation	14	87.5	0	0.0

[a] Percentages are based on multiple responses.

In the United Kingdom, *assignments* are required of 83.3% of the courses. The average number of assignments is three (27.8%) but it ranges from one (11.1%) to six (5.6%). In Canada, *assignments* are not required to any great extent. They are required in only two formal courses (33%) but not at all in short courses. They are required in one workshop/ seminar (5.3%), and not at all in orientations and individual preparation.

Feedback Provided to Participants

Data regarding feedback are shown in Table 5.8. In the United Kingdom, all participants (100%) are *given feedback* about their progress and performance. In 77.8% (n=14) of the cases, participants are assessed and given feedback through the report from the assessment panel. In 72.2% (n=13) of the cases, they are given verbal feedback in private and written comments in 55.6% (n=10) of the cases. Least used methods for giving feedback to participants are verbal comments in class (n=4, 22.2%), peer group feedback (n=4, 22.2%), and giving a grade or mark (n=2, 11.1%). In Canada, participants are *given feedback* in all formal courses (n=6, 100%) but in no short courses. In a small percentage of individual preparation (n=3, 15.8%), workshops/seminars (n=2, 10.5%), and orientations (n=2, 11.8%) feedback is given. Feedback in the formal course is given through written comments (n=3, 50%) or verbal comments in private, verbal comments in class, and a mark or grade (n=2, 33.3%).

Table 5.8   Type of Feedback Given to Participants

		UK (n=18)	Canada				
			Formal (n=6)	Short (n=5)	Work-shop (n=19)	Orien-tation (n=17)	Ind. Prep. (n=19)
Yes		18 (100.0[a])	6 (100.0)	0	2 (10.5)	2 (11.8)	3 (15.8)
	Written Comment	10 (55.6)	3 (50.0)	0	2 (100.0)	1 (50.0)	2 (66.7)
	Verbal (Private)	13 (72.2)	2 (33.3)	0	1 (50.0)	2 (100.0)	2 (66.7)
	Verbal (In Class)	4 (22.2)	2 (33.3)	0	0	1 (50.0)	1 (33.3)
	Mark or Grade	2 (11.1)	2 (33.3)	0	2 (100.0)	1 (50.0)	1 (33.3)
	Report Assessment Panel	14 (77.8)	0	0	0	0	0
	Peer Group	4 (22.2)	0	0	0	0	0

[a] The number in parentheses represents the percentage.

Participants' Evaluation of Training

With regard to participants giving feedback, Table 5.9 shows that in the United Kingdom, 88.9% (n=16) of the courses report that *participants evaluate* the training they receive. In 61.1% of the cases, this is done in both written and verbal form. In Canada, participants evaluate the training they receive in all formal courses (n=6, 100%), most short courses (n=4, 80%), more than half the workshops/seminars (n=11, 57.9%) and orientations (n=11, 64.7%), and a small percentage of individual preparation (n=4, 21.1%).

Table 5.9   Participants Evaluate Training

	UK (n=18)	Canada (n=26)				
		Formal (n=6)	Short (n=5)	Workshop (n=19)	Orien-tation (n=17)	Ind. Prep. (n=19)
Participants Evaluate Training	16 (88.9[a])	6 (100.0)	4 (80.0)	11 (57.9)	11 (64.7)	4 (21.1)

[a] The number in parentheses represents the percentage.

Characteristics of Training: An Overview

It is apparent that training practice teachers is a common practice in both the United Kingdom and Canada. There are considerable differences in the types of training commonly used and the ways in which this training is conducted and assessed. Training in Britain prior to the introduction of mandated training was similar to the types of training now used most frequently in Canada, relying most often on the use of workshop/seminar type of training and individual preparation to impart knowledge and skills to new practice teachers. Approved practice teacher courses in the United Kingdom offer a considerable more number of training hours (150) than any type of training in Canada since even the formal course provides only 31.1 hours on average.

Teaching methods used in training practice teachers in both countries rely on the traditional ways of delivering information, the lecture format, and on group discussion to facilitate the exchange of ideas and experiences and to learn from each other. Less frequently used in Canada are teaching methods which require more risk-taking by participants like exercises and role plays and the demonstration of actual or simulated behaviours associated with practice

teaching like taping and live supervision. Similarly, participants in training in Canada are rarely given feedback about their progress or performance and only those in formal course type of training receive an assessment of competency.

It would appear that Canadians are satisfied that practice teachers are taking part in training and do not want to do anything that might threaten their participation by expecting assignments, demanding work that might require risk-taking or exposure, assessing competency or giving them feedback. There is a concerted effort to make sure that practice teachers in Canada have opportunities to evaluate the training they receive.

Courses in the United Kingdom, on the other hand, have more structure in terms of the hours required to complete the course and the assessment of competency which is done in ways that expect participants to demonstrate their knowledge and skills such as the portfolio and live supervision. Courses are not merely satisfied to have participants attend, they expect a certain degree of commitment and effort by the participant to fully engage in a learning experience. Given that the Practice Teacher Award is a valid national qualification, it recognises the attainment of a minimum standard of knowledge and skills which must be demonstrated in order to receive the award.

The next section examines the nature of that knowledge and skill by identifying the salient content and valued format of training.

CONTENT AND FORMAT

This section documents course and field directors' views about the content and format of their practice teacher courses. Specifically, directors were asked to comment in four areas: to identify the three most important content areas covered in their course; to list up to three content areas they would like to add to the training they provide; to indicate what they like best about the format of their course; and to suggest one thing they would like to change about the format of their course.

Defining Importance

Participants were asked to list the topic areas they believed were most important to include in the training content. They were asked to list three in order of importance for each training type in Canada and for each course in the United Kingdom. Eight distinct topics were identified by content analysing the responses: Anti-discriminatory/multi-cultural content; Adult learning styles and teaching strategies; Supervision: methods and process; Assessment: procedures and process; Beginnings: orientation and contracting; Integration and linkage; Practice teaching roles and objectives; and Academic program and curriculum. Figure 5.4 shows the proportion of course and field directors identifying a content area as important.
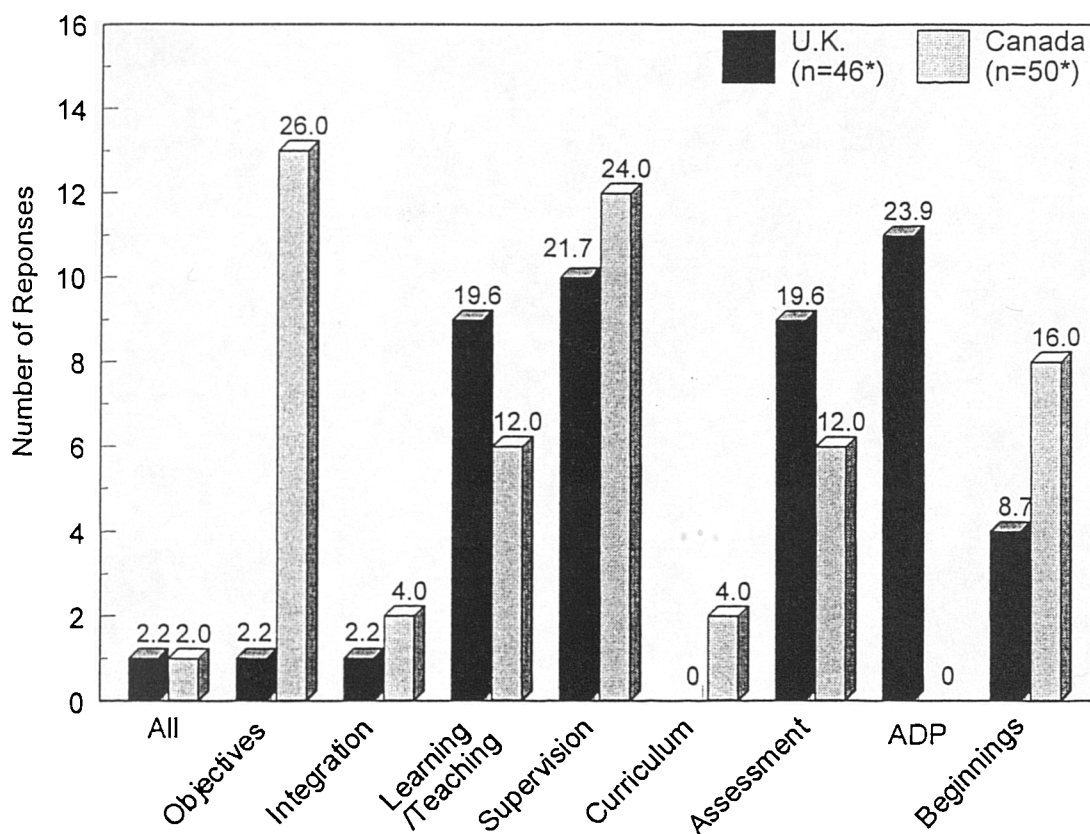
* n = total number of responses
The value on top of each bar represents a percentage for each category.

Figure 5.4 Most Important Content in UK and Canada

Important Content: UK

The content area most frequently ranked of top three in importance in the United Kingdom is *Anti-discriminatory/multi-cultural (ADP)* (23.9%). This could be reflective of the recent impetus by CCETSW to make this topic a priority for students and for social work courses. Closely following the content on ADP is *Supervision: methods & process (supervision)* which is second in overall importance (21.7%). Tied for third place is the content on *Adult learning styles & teaching strategies (learning/teaching)* and *Assessment: procedures & process (assessment)* (19.6%). The value on top of each bar represents a percentage for each category.

Content related to *Beginnings: orientation & contracting (beginnings)* is fourth in order of importance as it is considered of top three importance by 8.7% of course directors. In fifth place are the content areas related to *Integration & linkage (integration)*, and *practice teaching roles & objectives (objectives)* where only 2.2% of course directors ranked these topics of top three importance. One item, *Academic program & curriculum (curriculum)*, identified in the content analysis of the elements listed by course and field directors, does not appear to be ranked as important by any of the course directors in the United Kingdom.

Important Content: Canada

There are considerable differences in terms of the importance of specific content in the United Kingdom and Canada. The content receiving the highest percentage of top three rankings in Canada for all types of training is one that is least ranked in the United Kingdom, *objectives* (26.0%). *Supervision* comes second in Canada when all rankings are considered (24.0%). The third most frequently ranked topic in Canada is content related to *beginnings* (16.0%). *Learning/teaching* and *assessment* are tied for fourth place (12.0%) relative to other topics in Canada. Tied for fifth most frequently ranked content in Canada are *integration* and *curriculum* (4.0%). The content *ADP* does not appear on the important content list in Canada. It is notable for its absence.

As shown in Table 5.10, the nature of the content deemed important in Canadian training courses changes when type of training is considered. In terms of formal courses, the most important content is *objectives*, followed by *learning/teaching*. Next most often in the top three for formal courses is *supervision* and *beginnings*. Given that formal courses run over an average of 13 sessions, there would be many other opportunities to include the content

148

areas beyond covering those considered of top three importance. For example, *assessment* is not of pressing concern at the outset and might not get discussed until later into a course. *Curriculum* might be covered in other types of training such as orientation, so perhaps this may be why it is not deemed important content for a formal course. Short courses which run an average length of three sessions most often identify content on *supervision* as important, followed by content on *beginnings* and *objectives*. Interestingly, only one school identified *learning/teaching* in the top three important content areas for short courses.

Table 5.10   Important Content by Training Type in Canada

Important Content	Formal (n=14)	Short (n=9)	Workshop (n=43)	Orientation (n=39)	Ind. Prep. (n=36)
All	0	0	1 (2.8%)[a]	1 (2.8%)	1 (2.8%)
Objectives	5 (35.7%)	2 (22.2%)	10 (23.3%)	10 (27.8%)	8 (22.2%)
Integration	1 (7.1%)	0	2 (4.7%)	2 (5.6%)	2 (5.6%)
Learning/Teaching	3 (21.4%)	1 (11.1%)	4 (9.3%)	0	4 (11.1%)
Supervision	2 (14.3%)	3 (33.3%)	10 (23.3%)	4 (11.1%)	1 (2.8%)
Curriculum	0	0	2 (4.7%)	8 (22.2%)	8 (20.2%)
Assessment	1 (7.1%)	1 (11.1)	6 (14.0%)	4 (11.1%)	5 (13.9%)
ADP	0	0	0	0	0
Beginnings	2 (14.3%)	2 (22.2%)	8 (18.6%)	7 (19.4%)	7 (19.4%)

[a] The percentage is based on multiple responses.

Supervision and *objectives* appear to be the content areas most often seen as important in workshops/seminars, followed by *beginnings* and then *assessment*. However, in orientation the content identified most frequently of top three importance is *objectives*, closely followed by *curriculum* and then *beginnings*. *Objectives* followed by *curriculum* are identified as most important in individual preparation. Workshop/seminar has more sessions than orientation or individual preparation and are usually spread out over the term to deal with specific issues in field instruction as they arise. They tend to focus on 'how-to' content areas like

supervision and *assessment*, whereas orientation by definition is designed to inform participants about *objectives* and the *curriculum* without as much emphasis on the 'how-to'. Because orientations are most often held at or near the beginning of the term it is not surprising that they also deal with *beginnings*. When field instructors are individually prepared, they are being oriented but on a one-to-one basis instead via a group orientation session. This may be the reason that the content areas considered to be important are the same for individual preparation as orientation.

Making Improvements

Course and field directors were asked to identify up to three content areas they would like to add to the training provided to practice teachers. This question was asked to ascertain the possible direction of future changes in training content in terms of emphasis or focus. Responses were content analysed and eight distinct content areas were identified along with a ninth category indicating *nothing* should be added to the content of existing training. Six of the content areas identified as content to be added are the same as content that was identified as most important: *ADP, supervision, learning/teaching; assessment; objectives;* and *curriculum*. Two content areas did not emerge as most important content but did appear as content to be added: *problems: failing students & ethical issues (problems)*; and content specific for practice teachers in *community work (community)*. Table 5.11 presents the content areas to be added to training in order of importance.

Table 5.11   **Content to Add to Training in UK and Canada**

Content to Add and Change	UK (n[a]=29)		Canada (n=50)	
	n	%	n	%
Supervision	7	24.1	15	30.0
ADP	5	17.2	9	18.0
Learning/Teaching	3	10.3	9	18.0
Nothing	3	10.3	0	0.0
Curriculum	3	10.3	1	2.0
Objectives	2	6.9	8	16.0
Problems	2	6.9	4	8.0
Assessment	2	6.9	3	6.0
Community	2	6.9	1	2.0

[a] The number of responses

In the United Kingdom, the content most frequently considered important to add was *supervision* (24.1%). This included both supervisory techniques as well as the supervisory relationship. The second most frequently identified content to be added to training courses was *ADP* (17.2%). Three categories tied for third place. These were *nothing, learning/teaching*, and *curriculum* (10.3%). Four content areas were rated with the same frequency in fourth place: *assessment; problems; objectives;* and *community* (6.9%). It is interesting that the very content course directors in the United Kingdom view as most important (*ADP* and *supervision*) is also the content they most frequently believe needs to be added to training courses. In the case of adding content on *curriculum*, course directors are suggesting content be added that was not considered important content in the training that is provided now.

There were only two content areas that emerged in the 'to be added' category that did not appear in the original list of 'important content' in either the United Kingdom or Canada. *Problems* and *community specific* content was identified by a small number of course directors who believed this content should be added to practice teacher training courses. It is also worthy of mention that no course directors in the United Kingdom identified content on *beginnings* or *integration* in the 'to be added' category. The view of Canadian field directors regarding content to be added to training programmes is quite similar to the view of British course directors. The most frequently mentioned content area to be added is *supervision* (30%). The next most frequently ranked items in the 'to be added' category are *ADP* and *learning/teaching* (18.0%). The third priority was *objectives* (16.0%), fourth is *problems* (8.0%), and fifth is *assessment* (6.0%). The least frequently cited content areas to be added to training identified by Canadian field directors are *curriculum* and *community specific* (2.0%).

When type of training is considered, the most important content to add to formal courses is content on *ADP* followed by content on *assessment*. In short courses content on *supervision*, then *ADP* and *objectives* are considered important areas to be added. It is interesting that *supervision* is the content area most programmes want added in workshop/seminar, orientation and individual preparation. It is also the content area of most importance in workshop/seminar so it must be that schools feel they are not providing enough content in this area. Field directors also want to add content on *ADP* and *learning/teaching* in the three training types of workshop/seminar, orientation and individual preparation. The need to add

151

material on *ADP* reflects the growing awareness of its importance in the social work curriculum and in social work practice. Training programmes are also being alerted to the fact that field instructors need more than information on practice teaching *objectives* and *curriculum* but that they also need input on how to teach and what it means to learn hence the desire to add content on *learning/teaching*.

Course Format

Valued Aspects

Course and field directors were asked to identify the aspects they value most regarding the format of training. This provided information about what they like best about the format of their practice teacher training course. The responses were content analysed and five distinct aspects were identified reflecting the range of items they like best about the format of their courses: format allowing for small group interaction *(small group)*; having a student while on the course *(student plus course)*; format conducive to integrating theory and practice *(theory/practice)*; format that allows individualised training *(individualised)*; and format specifics such as length, structure, and the way the course is organised and taught *(format specifics)*. These data are shown in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12   Like Best About Format of Training (Valued Aspect)

FORMAT ASPECT	UK		Canada	
	n	%	n	%
Small Group	6	35.3	6	27.3
Student plus course	5	29.4	1	4.5
Individualised	0	0.0	6	27.3
Theory-practice integration	2	11.8	5	22.7
Format specifics	4	23.5	4	18.1

Both countries share in common what they like best about the format of their training. The most frequently identified item is a format that enables small group interaction with participants learning from each other, which is labelled *small group* format. In the United Kingdom this was identified by 35.3% and in Canada by 27.3%.

The next most frequently mentioned format item which British course directors most favour about their training is the opportunity for simultaneous learning created by the format of having a student while on the course, *student plus course* format (29.4%). This item is mentioned by only 4.5% of Canadian field directors. Relative to the other formats, this item is fourth in terms of the frequency with which Canadian field directors stated they like it best.

The format that allows for *individualised* learning is not valued in the United Kingdom but in Canada it is ranked equal to *small group* as the format item they most frequently like best (27.3%). Since individual preparation is one of the most frequently used training types in Canada it is not surprising that course directors in defending its use would cite *individualised* format as an aspect they like best. In the alternative individualised training is not an option for course directors who want to deliver a CCETSW-approved practice teacher course so it is not surprising that this format is not mentioned as being valued by any British course director.

The second most frequently mentioned item that Canadian field directors like best about the format of training is the format that is conducive to *theory/practice integration* (22.7%). This format item is identified with much less frequency in the United Kingdom (11.8%) where it is ranked fourth relative to other formats. The third most frequently cited item is the same in the United Kingdom and Canada. This item refers to aspects of the format such as the length, structure, the way the course is organised and taught, collectively referred to as *format specifics* (23.5% UK; 18.1% Canada).

Desired Changes

Course and field directors were asked to identify what they would change about the format of their training if they could change one thing. Responses were categorised into four items with a fifth category to indicate there is *nothing* they would change. The four categories are: *amount of training*; *type of training*; having more *format options*; and a format more conducive to *sharing and learning from each other*. Table 5.13 presents these data.

The most frequently mentioned item in both countries is the desire to increase the *amount of training* noted by 26.7% of course directors in the United Kingdom and 47.6% of field directors in Canada. It is not surprising to find this extent of agreement amongst Canadian field directors regarding a desire to increase the amount of training since it appears to be

rather minimal when compared to the United Kingdom. It is less apparent why British course directors would like to increase the amount of training given that the introduction of the 150-hour course is relatively new and a considerable increase over the previous amount of training.

Table 5.13   Desired Changes for Course Format

FORMAT CHANGES	UK		Canada	
	n	%	n	%
Amount of training	4	26.7	2	47.6
Type of training format	3	20.0	6	28.6
Sharing and learning from others	1	6.7	2	9.5
Format options	3	20.0	2	9.5
Nothing	4	26.7	0	0.0

It is interesting to note that 26.7% of course directors in Britain stated that *nothing* should be changed to the format of the course, whereas all field directors in Canada who responded to this question specified one of the other four items. This may be indicative of more satisfaction on the part of course directors in Britain with regard to the format of training. Both countries with similar frequency indicated they would like to change the *type of training* (20% UK; 28.6% Canada). It is not possible to tell what the change in type would be but it does indicate an interest in a type of training other than what they have.

Course and field directors in the United Kingdom and Canada have similar thoughts regarding the third most often mentioned item they would like to change about the format of training. This item indicates an interest in a variety of *format options* such as part time, open learning, distance learning. Twenty percent of United Kingdom course directors and 9.5% of Canadian field directors expressed this opinion. Now that course directors in the United Kingdom have reconciled the 150 hours and a national core curriculum, they are in a position to consider alternate formats for delivery. Field directors in Canada are still trying to find ways to deliver more training so are perhaps less attentive to developing format options.

The least mentioned item by course and field directors in terms of what they would like to change about the format of their training is the same for both countries. Changing the format to allow more opportunity for *sharing and learning from each other* was advocated by 6.7%

in the United Kingdom and 9.5% in Canada. This is also an aspect of the format (*small group*) of training that was best liked in both countries.

Similarities and Differences: Content and Format

There are very interesting similarities and differences regarding the content and format of training viewed as important, to be added, valued and changed from the perspective of course and field directors in the United Kingdom and Canada. First, in terms of the content taught on practice teacher courses, there are interesting comparisons.

Given the value placed on students' ability to integrate, make linkages and transfer their learning as evidenced by its emphasis in the literature, it is surprising that content in this area is not seen as important to very many course or field directors nor does it even make the list of content to be added. There is also similarity between the two countries regarding the importance of the content on *supervision*, *assessment* and *learning/teaching*. These content areas appear to be common ground for practice teacher training and span the differences and distinctions between the two countries.

It is apparent that the emphasis on *ADP* in Britain has impacted on the content of practice teacher courses in a far more significant way than has the thrust on multi-culturalism in social work has had an impact on training content in Canada. *The frequency with which field* directors in Canada would like to add this content to training is, however, indicative of a shift in terms of the importance with which it is now viewed.

The other obvious difference between the two countries is reflective of the value placed on content regarding practice teaching objectives and roles which is seen to be of vital importance in Canada. Perhaps because there is significantly less training in Canada, it is that much more important for practice teachers to understand their role and purpose. Hence, it is vital to have content on this topic. Whereas in the United Kingdom, the length and type of training and the teaching methods in themselves create opportunities for practice teachers to learn the role and understand the objectives of practice learning. Thus, *practice teacher role & objectives* need not be taught as a specific content area but rather is acquired through the process of learning on the course. The data regarding format appears to confirm this.

In terms of format there is more variance with regard to what directors in the United Kingdom and Canada like best about their formats than there is about what they would like to change about their formats. For example, the format of *student plus course* is highly valued in the United Kingdom. This format likely contributes to practice teachers learning the practice teacher role and the objectives of practice teaching. In Canada, participating in training while supervising a student is not as highly valued. In as much as field directors in Canada want to increase the amount and change the type of training they offer, it can only be speculated that a desirable shift would be to link training with practice teaching by having a student while on the course. Directors in the United Kingdom appear to be far more satisfied with their training format than directors in Canada.

TRAINING ISSUES

Course and field directors were asked to indicate their extent of agreement with a variety of statements about practice teacher training on a Likert-type scale (See Table 5.14). Insofar as possible the same questions were asked of British and Canadian directors. The strongly agree and agree categories were combined as were the strongly disagree and disagree categories to facilitate the analysis of the data. Questions of a similar nature dealt with their opinions about: the amount of training, training being multi-disciplinary, sensitising practice teachers to international issues, addressing anti-discriminatory practice, and the role of CCETSW/CASSW. Questions unique to British course directors addressed additional issues about anti-discriminatory practice teaching in more detail. Questions unique to Canadian field directors addressed issues about training being required or mandatory, the adequacy of the type of training, and if a particular training curriculum was used.

UK Opinion on Training Issues

There is 100% agreement on the part of British course directors on all the items to do with anti-discriminatory practice teaching. This indicates that course directors in the United Kingdom believe they SHOULD and that they DO *prepare practice teachers to demonstrate and teach about anti-discriminatory practice* and that they SHOULD and they DO *help practice teachers incorporate anti-discriminatory practice experiences into their students' placement.* There is strong agreement (73.7%) that *CCETSW's requirements for the accreditation of practice teachers provide necessary guidelines*, although the fact that 21%

disagree with this statement is worthwhile noting. Over half of the course directors agree *Training should be multi-disciplinary including other social care professionals* (55.6%), but a substantial minority (44.4%) do not agree with this statement. However, the statement *Our training is multi-disciplinary . . .* only shows 23.5% agreement meaning that course directors might think this is a good idea but are not presently doing it. Only 50% agree the *Amount of time required for the course is adequate*, which is surprising given the recent substantive increase in the time requirements of a CCETSW-approved course. The least amount of agreement was on course directors' opinion that *A practice teacher course should sensitise practice teachers to international issues* (36.9%) and *The programme we provide sensitises practice teacher to international issues* (16.7%).

Canadian Opinion on Training Issues

The Canadian data are shown in Table 5.14 by training type. The items with the highest overall agreement by field directors are *Field instructors require special training for this role* and *Training should prepare practice teachers to demonstrate and teach about anti-discriminatory practice*. According to training type, 100% with formal course, short course and orientation types of training agree with the first statement regarding the necessity of specific training. Ninety-five percent agreement was received by workshop/seminar types and 90% agreement by those providing individual preparation. Regarding the statement about anti-discriminatory practice, 100% of schools offering formal course, short course and workshop/seminar types of training agree, while 94% with orientation and 90% with individual preparation agree. The statement receiving the next highest level of agreement overall (72%) is *CASSW should require schools to provide training for practice teachers*. By training type, 100% of formal course, 80% of short course, 73.7% of workshop/seminar, 70.6% of orientation, and 63.2% of individual preparation training types agree with the statement. It is interesting to see the degree of agreement lessen as the type of training becomes less formal, structured and frequent.

Table 5.14   Agreement on Training Issues in the United Kingdom and Canada

	UK (n=19)	Canada				
		Formal (n=6)	Short (n=5)	Work-shop (n=19)	Orientation (n=17)	Ind. Prep. (n=19)
Training should prepare to teach about ADP	19 (100.0%)	6 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	19 (100.0)	16 (94.1%)	17 (89.5)
Our training prepares to teach about ADP	17 (100.0%)	5 (83.3%)	3 (60.0%)	9 (47.4%)	8 (47.1%)	9 (47.4)
Training should help incorporate ADP into student learning	19 (100.0%)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Our training incorporates ADP into student learning	17 (100.0%)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
CASSW or CCETSW should require training	14 (73.7%)	6 (100.0)	4 (80.0%)	14 (73.7%)	12 (70.6%)	12 (63.2)
Training should be multi-disciplinary	10 (55.6%)	0	0	1 (5.3%)	2 (11.8%)	1 (5.3)
Our training is multi-disciplinary	4 (23.5%)	1 (16.7%)	1 (20.0%)	3 (15.8%)	4 (23.5%)	3 (15.8)
Amount of time is adequate	9 (50.0%)	4 (66.7%)	2 (20.0%)	6 (31.6%)	6 (35.3%)	8 (42.1)
Type of training is adequate	N/A	5 (83.3%)	4 (80.0%)	7 (36.8%)	7 (41.2%)	9 (47.4)
Training should be sensitive to international issues	7 (36.9%)	1 (16.7%)	4 (80.0%)	6 (31.6%)	4 (23.5%)	3 (15.8)
Our training is sensitive to international issues	3 (16.7%)	1 (16.7%)	2 (40.0%)	2 (10.5%)	2 (11.8%)	2 (10.5)
Field instructors require specific training for this role	N/A	6 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	18 (94.7%)	17 (100.0%)	17 (89.5)
Training for field instructors should be mandatory	N/A	6 (100.0)	4 (80.0%)	12 (63.2%)	12 (70.6%)	13 (68.4)
Training follows Bogo & Vayda	N/A	4 (66.7%)	3 (60.0%)	10 (52.6%)	9 (52.9%)	12 (63.2)

About two-thirds (65%) of field directors agree that *Training for practice teachers should be mandatory*. This would suggest that schools should require this of their practice teachers whereas the previous statement suggests that it be a CASSW accreditation standard and educational policy. This statement has slightly less overall agreement than the previous

statement with the least agreement coming from schools providing workshops/seminars (63.2%).

Approximately half of the field directors agree that *Our training does prepare practice teachers to demonstrate and teach about anti-discriminatory practice* and that *Our training follows the manual sent by CASSW: Bogo & Vayda (1990)*. Those offering formal and short courses are in considerable agreement with the first statement (83% and 80% respectively). This agreement diminishes with the other three training types (47%). This helps explain why the content area on *ADP* was identified as important content to add to training. In terms of the Bogo & Vayda manual, which is a practice teacher training curriculum being made available to schools by CASSW, approximately two-thirds of the field directors agreed they followed it when the types of training offered are formal courses (67%), short courses (60%), and individual preparation (63%). Just over half the field directors offering workshop/seminar and orientation agreed they followed it. There could be less agreement with these training types because they are geared more to a specific school than to generic field instructor training content. It is therefore understandable that in orientation type training where the content is focused on field objectives and the curriculum but it is less easily accounted for in workshop/seminar where the focus appears to be on generic field education concepts like supervision.

Only 40% of field directors agree that the *Amount* and *Type of training is adequate to meet the expectations*. Those offering the formal course are most satisfied with the amount (66.7%) and type (83.3%) of training. When it comes to the short course, field directors are satisfied with the type (80%) but not the amount (20%) of training. The lowest level of agreement is with amount of training provided in workshop/seminar with only 31.6% agreeing the amount is adequate and 36.8% agreeing the type of training is adequate. Similarly, 35.3% offering orientation think the amount and 41.2% believe the type of training is adequate. Of those providing individual preparation, 42.1% and 47.4% respectively think the amount and type of training is adequate.

An Overview of Training Issues

Notwithstanding the fact that half the course directors in the United Kingdom are not satisfied with the amount of training they provide, they are more satisfied with the amount of training

compared to their counterparts in Canada. Both the amount and type of training provided in Canada does not appear to be adequate but those providing formal courses are most satisfied with the amount and type of training provided.

There is unilateral agreement with the direction and emphasis on anti-discriminatory practice and its incorporation into practice teacher training in the United Kingdom. It would appear that although the Canadians agree that it is important, they have been less successful in incorporating it into their training. This is consistent with other findings regarding the need to add content in this area.

There is consensus amongst field directors in Canada that practice teachers require training but less agreement if that training should be mandatory or required by CASSW. The majority of British directors agree with CCETSW's requirements for the accreditation of practice teachers. These findings point to a fundamental distinction between the British model where authority and locus of control are invested in a national body versus the Canadian model where individual programmes have the autonomy to decide whether they even want to provide training for practice teachers. About half of the training provided in Canada follows the Bogo Vayda manual and these materials are used to some extent in all types of training. This indicates that there is some interest in national training materials but it is not likely that a national curriculum would find favour.

There is not a lot of support in either country for training to be multi-disciplinary but British course directors are much more receptive to this idea than Canadian field directors. It might, therefore, be suggested that the recent shifts in delivery of social services in the United Kingdom toward community care involving a full range of health and social care professionals has given rise to this response.

IMPROVING THE QUALITY AND QUANTITY OF TRAINING: A SHARED VISION

The course directors responding to this questionnaire provide a national perspective on practice teacher training in the United Kingdom. Inasmuch as the practice teacher courses must meet CCETSW standards and requirements to be approved, there is considerable variation from course to course in a number of areas. There appears to be wide variance in the size of the different practice teacher courses and although all courses adhere to the

requirement of 150 hours there is considerable variance in how those hours are actually assigned. The procedures for selecting participants onto courses are more consistent, as is the use of teaching methods and assessment practices that require participants to actually demonstrate their knowledge and skills. With respect to content and format of courses, British course directors take seriously the significance and worthiness of the Practice Teacher award. Courses contain content on salient aspects of learning to teach practice and manage student practice learning. As well, they have a strong emphasis on anti-discriminatory practice and practice teaching. Course directors are split in their opinion that the amount of training is adequate but are in general agreement with CCETSW's requirements. There is some indication that they would like to see training programmes for practice teachers become more multidisciplinary but there is not a lot of support for training to become sensitive to international issues or globally relevant. Course directors appear to be a rather homogeneous and well-educated group who tend to keep up-to-date through reading social work journals.

The findings reported in this chapter indicate that field directors in Canada strongly believe that training practice teachers will improve the quality of teaching and learning in field education and that most field directors would like to increase the amount of training as well as move the type of training provided further along the continuum toward more formalised and structured courses. There is also a desire to add content to training that has to do with learning and teaching, supervision, and anti-discriminatory practice. Though some interest in nationally supported generic training materials is observed, these materials do not seem to provide all the answers for every school. It would therefore be suggested that schools need to develop their own materials that are uniquely suited to their programmes. It may be that generic materials cannot provide the context-specific information deemed necessary. An alternate explanation is that not all schools find the generic materials that are available to be sufficient in the approach taken to training practice teachers and that substantively different materials be made available. Field directors in Canada appear to be a homogeneous group, who are all educated at the post-graduate level and are likely to regularly read social work journals although not to the same extent as their British counterparts.

Practice teacher training in the United Kingdom clearly has more status as a valid and valued activity than it does in Canada. The fact that this training leads to a nationally recognised award contributes to its perception of being a worthwhile credential to obtain. The requirements, both in terms of the amount of time on the course and in completing the

portfolio, are substantial. Those who persevere and complete the requirements will want to be assured their efforts are recognised not just by holding the award but by their employers and their opportunities for career advancement. It will take time to see if the introduction of this award actually provides an incentive to social workers to become practice teachers as well as improve the quality of practice learning for social work students. It will take time and follow-up studies to determine if the development and proliferation of courses for practice teachers does indeed address the concerns and issues for which it was intended. For example, the literature suggests that practice teaching is undervalued and not given the recognition it deserves, leading to high rates of turnover of practice teachers and a shortage of placements. The development of the approved practice teacher course within the framework for continuing professional development was seen as a response to the problems besieging practice teaching.

In Canada, the concept of practice teacher training has not evolved to the same extent as in the United Kingdom. Preparation of practice teachers is seen as the responsibility of individual social work programmes and is usually a task that the field director decides upon depending on the interest expressed by practice teachers and the resources the programme has available in any given year to devote to training activities. It is not an expectation of employers nor are they involved in decisions about the amount or type of training being planning or implemented. Training is seen as necessary but not many programmes make it mandatory nor is it very extensive when compared to the United Kingdom. In most instances participation in training is voluntary and expects little more of participants beyond attending. However, the goals of training parallel those in the United Kingdom, and are to improve the quality of practice teaching by providing practice teachers with a better understanding of their role and to give them skills, such as the ability to teach practice, that they might not otherwise have. The acquisition of this knowledge or these skills is not assessed nor is the competence of practice teachers awarded in any significant way.

The provision of practice teacher training in the United Kingdom is viewed as a national expectation and is planned and developed in conjunction with employers and educational institutions. It is seen as an essential element of a social work course and is integral to the quality of social work education. In Canada, virtually all social work programmes provide some type of training for practice teachers but this tends to be quite limited. The provision of formal or even short courses for practice teachers is outside the minimum expectations of accredited social work courses. It is seen as a bonus or as an extra rather than an

indispensable element of a social work degree programme. Yet, there is considerable agreement between the two countries as to what constitutes the important content in training practice teachers. As was noted in the literature review, there are parallel issues and challenges in practice teaching and learning, which translates to a common desire to deliver and cover equivalent content in training practice teachers. In both countries, course and field directors share a belief in the importance and necessity of practice teacher training and a commitment to improve the quality and quantity of the training in whatever form it is provided.

For a different perspective, the next two chapters examine the views and opinions of participants who undertook training on practice teaching in each country. To begin, the next chapter describes in some detail the researcher's viewpoint of 'The first day on a training course' and the lessons that can be drawn from this participant observation.'

CHAPTER SIX

A DAY IN THE LIFE OF . . .

Preamble

The objective of the case studies was to examine the experience of the recipients of training in order to understand how the participants felt about their training, what it meant to them, what they learned from it, and if they thought it contributed to their ability to be a practice teacher. The questions underpinning this part of the study are: Does training contribute to practice teachers' perception of being a competent practice teacher? Do trained practice teachers think they use what they learned in training in their work with students? Are practice teachers satisfied with the training they received? Does training enhance practice teachers' abilities in other area? From the point of view of practice teachers, how could training be improved?

A multi-method approach was used in the case study such that information and understanding was gleaned in a number of ways: participant observation during the first week or day of the course; survey questionnaire upon completion of the course; and in-depth, guided interviews of a sample of participants six to nine months after completion of the course. The findings are presented in that order beginning in this chapter with a thick description of the first day on each of the practice teacher courses.

PARTICIPATING AND OBSERVING IN THE UK: A CULTURAL IMMERSION

The Practice Teacher course under examination was offered for the first time in the autumn of 1991, after receiving approval from CCETSW, and again in the spring of 1992. I observed and participated in the second of these. In preparation for this experience I had immersed myself in the literature by becoming familiar with CCETSW's rules and regulations and consuming large quantities of articles and research reports. I had some opportunity to develop a beginning understanding and appreciation of the cultural nuances communicated by way of mannerisms, expressions and interactions during my previous term at the University,

164

by meeting with staff at CCETSW, and connecting with several people involved in social work courses. I had not yet met any social work practitioners who were or wanted to be practice teachers. From my reading and discussions I was exceedingly impressed with Paper 26.3 and its implications for practice learning and teaching. In considering these issues prior to the participant observation experience I realised that I needed to examine my actions, observations and reflections for culturally biased assumptions and hold in abeyance my initial positive thoughts about the British system of training practice teachers.

A CCETSW-Approved Practice Teacher Course: A Case in the UK

The course consisted of a block week at the beginning where participants took the full week from work to attend the course. Subsequently, participants met each Wednesday, with some exceptions, for 12 consecutive group learning days. These days were divided up so that mornings were spent with the full group and the afternoons were spent in small groups called teaching practice groups (TPGs), assigned the first day of the block week. These TPGs consisted of four participants and one tutor.

Each TPG was expected to set its own agenda and plan its own learning activities. The TPG ideally became a support group for the practice teacher, a forum for presenting issues and problems, and a supervisory team in response to the practice teachers' work with their students. Certain Wednesdays were labelled as independent study days where participants did not come to the educational institution but were expected to use the day for assignments, reading and reflection. An additional four months was given after the end of the course for the submission of a portfolio which was a compilation of evidence that participants had achieved the stated competencies.

Day One on the Practice Teacher Course, United Kingdom

This was the first day of a course for practice teachers leading to the CCETSW Practice Teaching Award. I knew in advance that 20 people had been selected onto the course. They were accepted if they held a CQSW or equivalent qualification, had the support of their line manager or training officer, and had a student on placement to supervise. As it turned out, 18 people attended the first day, 5 did not have a student and all but 1 had a social work qualification.

The agenda, as shown in Figure 6.1, was planned by the training team comprised of the course director and five course leaders (tutors). The course director and two of the course leaders were staff of the Department of Social Work and Social Policy. The other three course leaders were social work practitioners from the practice community in the region and it was the first time teaching on the course for two of these tutors.

9:30 - 12:30	1:30 - 4:30
Welcome & introductions	Introduction to programme structure and procedures (business meeting)
Experience of learning (1)	
	Experience of learning (2)
Accreditation of prior experiential learning (APEL)	

Figure 6.1 The Agenda for Day One Block Week

Upon entering the classroom at 9:10 a.m., I was immediately confronted by an irregularly shaped room with an assortment of chairs and two large tables randomly filling the room. My first impression was, 'What a mess! How is it possible to make the room functional?' I had somehow conjured up an image of a British classroom being orderly with all preparations being made and attended to well in advance. That was my thinking behind arriving early, that everything would be in its place and the instructors would be calmly awaiting everyone's prompt arrival, not that I would be needed to pitch in and lend a hand.

The course leader and I began rearranging the furniture. By 9:20 a.m., one large table was placed off to the side in an alcove and set up with coffee and tea, a kettle and some cups. Another table with an overhead projector upon it was positioned in the middle of the floor near the front of the room. A screen was opened across the front wall and a flip chart was set up beside the screen. Chairs were lined up around the perimeter of two adjacent sides of the room. Along the back wall there were two rows of chairs, while a single row of chairs lined the side wall. In order to accommodate everyone, some chairs were placed in front of the coffee table, the flip chart and beside the screen. Extra chairs were stacked in the corners by the coffee table. The room still appeared rather full with furniture, but looked orderly and prepared for a group.

I set up my camera in a corner where the alcove joined the main room next to the coffee table. My angle gave me a view of the front and side wall which allowed me to see the facilitator/leader and some of the participants seated along the side wall near the front, but did not enable me to view the majority of the participants who were lining the wall near the back and sitting in the double row of seats or those sitting by the coffee table. The camera was in the most unobtrusive place from the perspective of the participants, as it was clearly directed at whoever was at the front. This was done intentionally so that participants would not feel uncomfortable by having a camera focused on them and with the hope that the course leaders could cope with the effects of being taped without it adversely affecting their behaviour. I would have preferred to have been able to tape more of the participants, but my only other option of camera placement, given the way the room was set up, would have had the camera pointing directly at the most number of participants. I was concerned about the effect this might have on the participants and, since I wanted to have the camera set up and ready to go as soon as I was given the permission by the group to turn it on, I opted to tape from a safe, unobtrusive angle.

People began arriving at 9:15 while the furniture was still being moved around. There was no one to greet those arriving and the first few to enter the room asked if they were in the right place for the practice teacher course. As more and more people arrived, an unspoken process evolved for taking a seat and waiting. A few people knew each other and were pleasantly surprised to find colleagues on this course. They spoke to each other in polite whispers. It did appear, however, that the majority of participants knew no one else and were feeling somewhat apprehensive as evidenced by their body language of staring at the ground and furtively looking up as someone entered the room.

It felt to me like a very long time before people were greeted and materials were passed out to them. In actual fact, it was twenty minutes from the time the first person arrived until people were invited to get coffee, and another ten minutes of waiting for the last few to arrive before the session officially began. Some of the initial anxiety might have been eased if one of the course leaders had been there to greet people as they entered the room, invite them to put on a name tag and have coffee, and give them their package of materials. This would have given the participants something to do while they were waiting for the rest of the people to arrive and the programme to start.

It was 9:45 when the course director introduced the training team (the other five course leaders/tutors) and handed out the information packages to the participants one by one, as they were individually labelled with each participant's name. Participants were informed that a business meeting would take place right after lunch to deal with the practicalities of the course. The session was then turned over to the course leader who would facilitate an introduction exercise. I observed that several people were looking through their packages while the introduction exercise was being explained. At the time I interpreted this as an indication that some people may have wanted some basic information about the course before moving onto the content of the programme.

The introduction exercise was a very basic ice-breaker type wherein partners exchanged information, such as name, place of work, main hope, and main anxiety about the course. Each person then took a turn introducing her/his partner to the entire group. People very quickly moved into the exercise. They seemed to have no hesitation getting started and accomplished the assigned task quite quickly. After about four minutes it was obvious that dyads were drifting onto other topics or not talking to each other at all. Another two minutes went by before the group was called together.

There were 24 introductions made: 18 of the 20 participants, 5 of the 6 course leaders plus myself. The introductions were factual and dry. Several had to check with their partner to make sure they had their name correct. Almost everyone stated the same hope and anxiety: they hoped to get the Practice Teaching Award or become a better practice teacher and they were anxious about the amount of time the course would take or whether they could meet the expectations of the course. It seemed difficult for people to pay attention to all of the introductions as evidenced by the fact that some started to look at their folders, others were gazing about, and a few were whispering to each other. I found it difficult to stay focused and maybe others did too. I wondered how many people actually remembered anything about anyone except perhaps the one person they introduced? It seemed to me that this was a collection of individuals experienced in working in groups and participating in experiential exercises. However, too much time was given for the dyads to exchange the basic information.

I participated in the introduction exercise and was in a dyad with one of the five course leaders. I was surprised to discover that even though she was a course leader and responsible

for planning and delivering this course along with the other five leaders, she had only been informed that morning that I would be there.   She was not at all sure that I would get the permission from the participants that I needed in order to continue. She was very concerned about the impact I would have on the participants, but underneath that concern I sensed a certain amount of outrage that she had not been privy to granting me permission to be there at the outset. I was worried that there might be some unresolved power and control issues within the training team itself that might interfere with my involvement with the course.

Several questions came to mind: Why had the course director not shared my written request to participate and observe the course with the other course leaders, particularly with this course leader who is also the head of the programme? Why was she not informed until that morning that I would be there? What effect would this have on the way I was perceived by the other course leaders and the participants? Was there a chance my involvement would be sabotaged because of the way I was brought into the course? I pondered these questions while attempting to mend/build a relationship with this particular course leader. I needed to reassure her that I was not covertly colluding with her colleague and that my data gathering was above board and for the sole purpose of my Ph.D. research.

When it came time to be introduced to the entire group, I was presented by this course leader in a most positive and enthusiastic fashion. I was given the opportunity to explain to the participants (and other course leaders) why I was there; my role as a participant/observer; the nature of my research and their role in the study; and to seek permission to turn on the video camera and obtain their written consent to participate in the research with the understanding that anyone could change her/his mind at any time without consequence. Everyone was willing to allow me to participate and observe them and videotape the session at my discretion unless I was asked not to by anyone. Additionally, I obtained written consent forms from 17 of the 18 participants who were willing to complete a questionnaire at the end of the course and take part in a follow-up interview six to nine months later.

The first substantive topic introduced to the group by two of the course leaders was the *Experience of Learning*. The steps used to teach this content involved: one course leader giving a brief definition of learning;   another course leader describing a recent personal experience of learning with questions asked to clarify his learning process; the first course leader presenting the cycle of learning framework (Honey & Mumford, 1986) using the other

169

course leader's example of learning; splitting the class into groups of three where one person would describe a recent experience of learning (the second person would ask questions and the third person would observe and give feedback about the person's learning style vis à vis the framework); and a large group discussion of the learning process and the meaning of the exercise.

The participants were very quick to involve themselves in the exercise and to take it seriously. There was a high degree of participation and animation in the small groups. People appeared to be working hard to listen and understand each other. Back in the large group, before the discussion was started, everyone had a chance to briefly tell their example of learning. Each person shared a relevant and meaningful attempt to learn something. I found this very interesting, given the rather basic example of learning to use a washing machine demonstrated by the course leader. Some examples of the recent learning experiences people chose to describe were as follows:

- interventions for non-organic failure to thrive
- operating the video equipment for use in therapy
- learning new administrative tasks
- implementing a training program for new workers
- dealing with a mother who was recently disabled

The ensuing discussion involved a high degree of disclosure of feelings and insights. The following comments are examples of the level of depth in the discussion:

> It was hard for me to admit that there were some things I couldn't do that others in the group had no problems with. But once I did that I found out that there were things that I was good at that they weren't.

> It was really difficult for me because I had no interest in learning to use that equipment but I had to as part of my job.

This was further evidence that my hunch that this group was capable of risking and sharing at an earlier stage than most might be correct:

> For me there was fear and anxiety but most of all shame of ignorance that got in my way. There are so many emotions involved in learning.

> I need time to see learning take place. It is not always evident right away. Sometimes you need to wait before you can say whether or not you learned.

I hypothesised at the time that if the leaders did not catch up to the pace and stage of the group there may be discontent about the course. These participants were willing to invest

170

themselves in a learning process and were eager to get started. The discussion was lively and energetic. There was a high level of interaction among the participants and not just directed at the leader.

Following the agenda as planned, a transition was made to introduce a new topic, the concept of APEL (the accreditation of prior experiential learning). The plan was to present APEL in a straight didactic style and to finish the morning session at 12:30. It was now 12:00. It would require an experienced facilitator to alter the planned strategy in order to make use of the knowledge gained about the way this particular group works, and to take advantage of the momentum and energy already present in the room. No alteration was made to the plan and as the didactic presentation began the energy dissipated from the room. The animation disappeared and passivity took over. Bodies were slouched back in chairs, eyes were glazed over or gazing about inattentively. The change was dramatic and abrupt. There were no questions about the information presented and no comments were made at any time during the presentation.

An interesting and provocative question was asked by the leader that could have sparked a valuable and useful exchange:

> How do you acquire the ability to help someone else understand what they have learned and how do you assist someone in making sense of her/his experience?

However, there was no response. Not one comment. Only silence filled the room. The course leader briefly summarised the reason for introducing the concept and told the group that it would likely become clear to them later on in the course. The course leader had little choice than to end the session on that note and hope that lunch would revitalise people. He interpreted their silence and non-responsiveness as not quite grasping the concept. I interpreted their silence as people being out of energy and finding the material irrelevant to them at that time.

My perspective is that as a whole they felt their earlier high mood disregarded and they were not about to participate in a discussion that had undermined their willingness to risk, share and work interactively. Their previous effort and hard work had not been validated or acknowledged either verbally or behaviourally. They had been empowered to take charge of

171

their learning by the method employed to facilitate the last topic and now they were being treated as passive learners.

The lunch break provided an opportunity for people to chat with each other informally and casually. Most people sat with each other at large tables in the cafeteria. The course leaders did not join them. It would appear from comments shared with me during lunch that the last half hour did not completely spoil the morning's success:

> This course is going to be great. I just wish they would pick up the pace a bit. They need to know what we're on about so they don't make it dull for us.

> I almost fell asleep during that last bit, but the first bit was good.

> I like it better when they let you work on it and figure it out by talking it over with each other.

While talking with the others it occurred to me that it may have been possible to have had a different outcome that morning. One option would have been to end the morning session on the high note at the end of the previous topic and shift the APEL material to another time slot. Another option would have been to select a different method of presentation of the APEL material in order to capitalise on the interest, energy and expertise in the room. Both of these options would require a flexible, creative and quick thinking course leader. With a team teaching approach like this course had adopted, it is very difficult to make such changes, as there is little, if any, opportunity to negotiate the change with the rest of the training team. The transition between topics was a problem because of the teaching methods selected, not because the content areas were unrelated or too different to be linked with a smooth transition from one to the other.

The afternoon session began as promised with a business meeting that was to run approximately thirty minutes but lasted one hour and forty-five minutes. It began with an explanation of CCETSW's changes to social work education, referring specifically to *Paper 30: DipSW Rules and Requirements for the Diploma in Social Work* (1991a) and *Paper 26.3: Improving Standards in Practice Learning* (1989b). Three or four people were taking notes, the rest were not paying much attention. As time went on, people got restless. They moved about in their seats, shuffled papers, tapped pens on the desk top and there were a few audible sighs. It was not clear to me why there was so little interest in this material.

I wondered if most people were already familiar with CCETSW's changes to social work education or, if the information simply did not seem relevant or important to them at this time. Often, interest in a subject can be maintained and sustained if people are informed about why they need to know something, and how it is or will be of use to them. There was no explanation at the start of the session which would have provided them with a sound reason to pay attention. This did not seem like a 'business' meeting where the practicalities of the course were discussed as promised in the morning. About 25 minutes into the presentation, a participant interrupted with a question that was not related to the topic, but was clearly on her mind:

> Based on the last group taking this course, do you have an idea of an average amount of time per week it was taking for this course?

It became apparent, as a result of the ensuing discussion which lasted over one hour, that people had a number of questions about the course and some anxiety about taking it. It was evident that people did not come into the course with very much information about its structure, content or expectations:

> Are we to come here each day this week? Is it to be the same time each day? And will it always last all day long?

> Will we have access to the library while we're on the course?

Thus far, there had been no venue for dealing with questions and concerns of this nature since the morning session had moved directly from an introduction exercise to the topic of the learning process. And they were wondering about many things:

> On the Wednesday will we have to take the whole day from work?

> How much time, in addition to the days here, will I have to spend on the course?

It seems that the participants would have appreciated receiving the information package prior to the first day so that they could have arrived knowing some of these things:

> I'm still not clear exactly what you need for your portfolio and just how much time it will take.

> Will we be expected to videotape our work with our students? Who will see this and how will it be used?

They had a lot of concerns about the requirements, the time commitment and the workload:

My line manager has given me the time off to be on the course but I'm not
at all sure he'll actually reassign my work or if I'll have to get it all done in
less time.

What happens if your student doesn't work out? Can you get another?

Finally, there was an opportunity to air these concerns and it was no wonder that it took over
an hour to satisfy their need for information and reassurance.

The next part of the session involved a continuation and extension of the morning session on
learning. It was designed to have participants identify the elements of a good learning
experience and the principles involved in developing valuable learning opportunities for
students in social work practice. The teaching methods included: brainstorming ideas in the
large group; individual recall and private reflection through a structured series of questions;
small group work using self-disclosure, active listening and generating concepts; presenting
each group's work to the entire class; and summarising the findings and linking the
conclusions to practice teaching and being a practice teacher. The participants' effort and
expertise was validated by acknowledging how much collective knowledge and experience
they had and their willingness to share so openly with each other. This work took the rest
of the afternoon. People left feeling both exhausted and stimulated:

I'm beat but it certainly feels good.

This is much better than I thought it would be but I don't know if I have the
energy to last all week.

They had worked hard and had demonstrated a high level of commitment and a willingness
to invest themselves in a learning process. They were prepared to not just learn about
learning but to actively participate in learning:

It was a bit dull in spots but I'm looking forward to tomorrow. These things
often start out this way until they figure out how much we know.

This group, for the most part, preferred inquiry-based participatory learning. They wanted
to use their own experience to make sense of the ideas and concepts about practice teaching
and facilitating learning:

I needed to know there were some things I could do in order to cope with all
the things I didn't know.

You can disable a learner by telling or showing too much. By being too
available, constantly there to step in and help out, you don't give a person a

chance to figure it out on their own, to make their own mistakes. I need to do that.

I spent the next four days with this group and although it is not the intent of this study to report on those days in any detail I was able to confirm some of the impressions I developed from the first day. Knowing that much of the time on this course will be spent in teaching practice groups (TPGs) of four student practice teachers with one course leader, I got the impression that this small group work process, which is designed as an integral part of this course, would suit them. It struck me that they would value learning opportunities which allowed them to be active. For example, they found the session on live supervision, which involved taping and reflecting on the playback, very valuable and not overly threatening. Sessions that were more lecture oriented and passive were less appealing to them. This group of learners wanted challenges that go beyond simple self-disclosure and the sharing of feelings, as they were already capable and willing of this level of expression at the time of entry into the course.

PARTICIPATING AND OBSERVING IN CANADA: WEST MEETS EAST

Both of the courses for field instructors under study were located, from the vantage point of a Calgarian, 'out east'. In actual fact, the two cities are situated geographically in what is known as central Canada. Those from the region, however, are quick to point out that it is really the 'centre' of Canada. Given the enormous regional disparities, physically, economically, socially, politically, culturally and, some would say, intellectually, there are certain attitudes that exist which foster something akin to an ongoing family feud. These are grounded in the belief the west has of being disadvantaged, second best, and simply unable to compete. The east, on the other hand, not only sees itself as superior and having all the advantages, but it also believes it is rightfully entitled and deserves them. At the outset of this study I needed to examine my own assumptions and hold in abeyance any beliefs I might have as a westerner that, since these courses were developed and taught in prestigious eastern universities, they would *ipso facto* be brilliant.

The Formal Course: A Brief Description

This is a regularly scheduled university course. It meets weekly for two hours for twelve consecutive weeks. The course outline states: This course is designed for beginning field

instructors and is open to post-graduate MSW students who are having, or have had, field teaching experience.

Participants are given a bursary to attend the course when they have made a commitment to accept a student during the time they are taking the course or the following calendar year. Completion of the course is an expectation for new field instructors, either prior to or concurrent with their first student. A mark for this course is granted, based upon the completion of one assignment, and this grade appears on the student's transcript. Selection into the course is by written application and the minimum requirements are two years post-MSW work experience, one-year employment in the agency, and a first-time field instructor. This course is taught by a faculty member of the social work programme. This particular social work programme educates social workers at the post-graduate level leading to the MSW degree.

Day One on the Formal Course: Beginning Practicum Instruction

This is the first session of the formal course but it is the second time this group of students has met with the instructor. Last week students attended briefly to receive a course outline, meet each other, and go over the expectations. It was 8:15 a.m. when I entered a typical classroom accompanied by the course instructor. It was an interior rectangular-shaped room with no windows. There were single seat desks set up haphazardly with a large table at the front of the room. There were more desks than people as the room has a capacity for a much larger number than the seventeen participants who eventually arrived.

People started filtering into the room around 8:25 a.m. and although the class was to start at 8:30 a.m., there was a need to wait since there were only four people in the room at 8:30 a.m. As people entered the room, they selected a desk and faced the instructor who was sitting behind the large table. There was little to no interaction among the participants as they waited for the class to begin. At 8:45 the instructor began by introducing me. He had told them last week that I would be there so my presence was not a surprise. I explained the purpose of my study, answered questions about the information I wanted to collect and asked for and received permission to turn on the video recorder. The informed consent forms were distributed and all participants indicated a willingness to participate in the study.

The instructor asked each member of the class to state her/his name and place of work. This was accomplished quite quickly as there was no elaboration or expansion on the facts. I inquired as to the nature of the introductions the previous week and was told it had occurred in much the same way with one addition, people were invited to say why they were taking the course. The information shared was not recorded so I was unable to capture the essence or range of reasons. I was told that there was virtually no discussion other than the exchange of names and handing out of materials and that the meeting was concluded very quickly.

After the brief round of name and workplace statements, the instructor proceeded with the planned agenda. The topic for this class, as indicated on the course outline, was "Orientation of student to agency setting." The instructor was prepared with lecture notes and an outline for the session was distributed. Fifteen items were listed under the heading of "Field Orientation." Participants were told that each item would be addressed sequentially. Some of the items listed were: practical details, agency service history, student of the agency, clerical system, recording procedures, student identification, confidentiality, etc.

The instructor sat or reclined in his chair and began at the top of the list with practical details such as lunch breaks, parking and office space. He asked for input regarding the provision of office space for students. Two people briefly described what was done in their agency to physically accommodate students. The instructor moved onto the next item which was a rationale as to why it is important to tell students something about the history of the agency. No input from the class was sought. The next item was introduced as one in which the instructor wanted to focus on and spend some time discussing. He then presented an argument for viewing the student as a "student of the agency" as opposed to a "prize given to the field instructor" and asked how this issue was addressed in the various settings. The first person to respond explained in some detail her agency's response to who 'owns' the student and this triggered in the instructor several additional points which he then presented. This ended the 'discussion.'

The class had now been under way for approximately 45 minutes. Most of this time was spent listening to the instructor talk. As I observed the participants, some were taking notes, some were doodling on their paper, some were fidgeting and moving about, and some were gazing blankly into space. They did not appear to be fully engaged in a learning process. This may have been a consequence of the approach the instructor had taken to cover this

material. The participants, who were all professional social workers, were relatively passive in the learning exchange that had thus far occurred.

The instructor at this point appeared to have made a conscious decision to reach for more involvement. In doing so he introduced the next item on the list, which was, "How students are referred to in the agency," by asking participants to share with others the common practices in their setting. This generated little more than the factual reporting of agency practices. The more substantive issue related to this was how a student's status is communicated to clients but this was also dealt with in the same brief manner with a few people reporting on what they did, but no real discussion.

A pattern seemed to have evolved whereby the instructor would ask a question, wait a few moments, add content of his own, ask for other thoughts, whereupon the same two or three people would contribute a piece of information. These contributions appeared to be at a 'reporting of facts' level rather than the sharing of an example or incident, or giving an opinion or perspective based on personal experience. The rest of the participants in the room appeared to have made a minimal investment in the classroom.

As more topics were addressed such as confidentiality, agency procedures in orientating students, there were more contributors and more discussion. Participants were now talking to each other rather than answering directly to the instructor. The instructor was asking more open-ended questions such as, "What is the typical way your setting responds? How does that fit with your own experience?," which encouraged sharing on a more personal level. It is interesting to note that when the question was too open, such as, "Who has something more to say?" there was hardly any contribution. I thought to myself at the time that this instructor needs to find a balance between questions that are too closed, which seem to result in only getting briefly stated facts, and asking questions that are so wide open that participants are not sure how to answer and therefore choose not to. Questions such as, "How is this done in the agency? What kinds of preparations are made in your agency?," seemed to elicit answers from the greatest number of participants.

There was a perceptible change of pace and energy in the room when one person shared what it was like for him when he was a student. He shared this not because he was asked this directly but it was his way of responding to how agencies made preparations for students.

This seemed to spark a chord with others in the room. Heads perked up, bodies leaned forward, pens were put down and the attention was focused. Others picked up where this participant left off by describing incidents from their student days in the placement. It occurred to me that an important place to begin with practice teachers would be to have them recall and reflect upon what is was like for them and how this might influence their approach to practice teaching.

This discussion had the effect of raising the energy and level of participation. The instructor wanted to move onto the next item on the list. He did so in a manner consistent with earlier items, that is, participants were asked to report specific practices. This produced very factual comments with little sharing of self, opinions or personal examples.

The session ended with the instructor stating that the next item required more time than was left. He informed the participants that they would begin next week by discussing the pre-placement interview. Participants were asked if they had any comments or questions. There were none. However, as people were leaving, I observed small clusters of participants talking to each other. One person asked:

> Do you understand what the assignment is all about?

The conversation grew serious as others joined in to discuss what it was supposed to be, how long it should be, concerns about the due date. One participant's response revealed her reliance and adoption of the teacher-led approach when she said:

> I'm not going to worry about it, I'm sure [the instructor] will tell us all we
> need to know about it when he thinks the time is right for us to start working
> on it.

Although the demeanour of the instructor was quite easygoing and casual and this created a relaxed and informal environment, the teaching methods used by the instructor were not conducive to a great deal of involvement on the part of the participants. I hypothesised that this group might be responsive to a different type of learning experience but they were not likely to initiate or demand a change. They would probably respond accordingly if different demands were made of them. Furthermore, I thought that this group of learners would not be highly satisfied if the course continued to be taught in the way it was demonstrated today. The instructor used mostly didactic, information-giving teaching methods that prompted

minimal interaction. There was little chance to draw upon what these adult learners already knew.

My impressions by the end of the class were that this approach to teaching a course for practice teachers was not likely to allow participants to make connections, generate and develop ideas, or foster personal reflection and in-depth exchange. I observed that participants in this class were clearly the recipients of information regarding the items the instructor determined were necessary in the orientation of students. They were not involved in the generation of ideas nor did I observe anything more than a limited attempt to build on their knowledge or experience. None of the questions the instructor asked participants challenged them to think in new or different ways or link past experiences as a student/learner with being a practice teacher. However, important information on the topic of orientation was delivered to this group of beginning practice teachers. I wondered how much of this information was absorbed and connected to their actual ability to provide a meaningful orientation for their own students.

An Alternate Training Type in Canada: The Short Course

This course consists of five three-hour sessions offered every fortnight. New field instructors are normally required to complete this course within the first two years of offering student placements. It is recommended for field instructors in their first or second year. There are no stated pre-requisites to taking this course other than a desire to be a field instructor. For this school, field instructors will normally have a BSW or MSW degree and a minimum of two years' post-degree practice experience. This short course is taught by an experienced practitioner and former field instructor, not a faculty member of the social work programme. This particular social work programme educates social workers at the undergraduate level leading to the BSW degree.

Day One on the Short Course: Field Instructor Training Level I

This was the first meeting of a short course for field instructors. It was 12:45 p.m. when I entered the classroom. It was an exterior room with large windows running the length of the long wall. There were several tables pushed together in the middle of the room with chairs around the circumference of the table. At the head of the room, along the short wall was a blackboard, and a flip chart was set up close to the head of the table where the instructor sat.

I sat at the other end of the table along with two others. The rest of the participants found chairs at the table or pulled chairs up to the table. By 1:00 p.m., there were 14 people around the table and two more entered 10 and 15 minutes later. There was room for everyone at the table. As participants took a seat, they were asked to write their name in large letters on a card and to place it in front of them. This way participants could read the names from across the table. The instructor had written the agenda on the flip chart but for the time being it was not exposed. There was a message of welcome on the flip chart.

The instructor began by introducing herself as a seasoned practitioner and experienced field instructor. She shared what she has found personally rewarding over the years and how she has grown and learned from all her students, even the tough ones. She spoke of students who soared through the placements and did beautifully, students who had to be replaced because they just did not fit the agency or her approach, and students who did not suit the social work profession and had to be failed. She informed participants that this course was an opportunity for them to share and learn with each other but that she could contribute her ideas and experiences and offer some techniques and information for "making it go smoother." She set the tone of the class and declared her approach when she said:

> The agenda is flexible. If you come in on a day with a particular dilemma
> you are faced with, then bring it forward. This is your forum and we will
> veer from the planned agenda to deal with it.

Participants were asked to introduce themselves in turn. They were asked to say their names, where they work, their past experiences with students and what they wanted to get out of the course. The first participant set the standard for the degree of disclosure.

> I want to learn how to provide a good learning opportunity to respond to the
> needs of my student, and to find out if I really want to be a field instructor.
> I want to learn how to evaluate this to see if it is a meaningful experience
> both for me, my organisation and the student as well.

The next participant followed suit:

> What I am really curious about is the unique relationship in field instruction.
> My experience is that it is far different from supervision and I believe it
> should be different. So I'm curious about the theoretical framework that tells
> us what characterises this relationship versus a supervisory relationship.

A different kind of comment was provided by the participant who stated:

> I graduated a few years ago and I've been thinking how wonderful my
> supervisors were. I'm glad I can take this course so that I too can offer my
> student a good experience.

This type of introductory exercise allowed participants to share more than factual information. Very quickly there was a fair degree of disclosure of participants' experiences as students, with students and what they hoped from the course. The instructor often commented on a point raised by a participant and noted when, in the course, this would be addressed. For example, one participant was concerned about her role and the shift that would be required in being a field instructor in terms of what is different and what is the same. The instructor informed the class that role expectations would be covered in session two.

However, in another case, the instructor went beyond pointing out when the content would be addressed and actually introduced and taught about a concept. She seized the opportunity to present the "integrating theory and practice loop" (Bogo & Vayda, 1993) in the midst of the introductions. This may have been confusing for participants. Processing this type of information, that is, content presented in a mini-lecture, requires a switch into another learning mode. It was not clear if participants should do this or continue to stay attuned to each other in trying to decipher and get a sense of who was in the room.

It became evident through the introductions that not all of the participants presently had a student. The instructor handled this by noting there were pros and cons to taking this course concurrent with having a student or prior to taking a student. The manner in which the introductions took place generated a congenial and collaborative atmosphere. Participants made eye contact with each other and their comments were addressed to the group as opposed to being addressed to the instructor at the head of the table.

There was a certain amount of repetition towards the end regarding participants' expectations of the course but each person went beyond a surface introduction and divulged something of her/himself. These introductions took approximately 45 minutes to complete. The length of time this occupied and the repetition of the same ideas resulted in some evidence of people losing interest and wanting to 'get on with it.'

When the introductions were completed, the instructor went to the board where she had been writing down some of the course expectations as various individuals had stated them. She

then asked the class to suggest how these expectations might be met and how they would know if, in fact, this was accomplished. Participants verbally offered their opinions and these were written on the board. The instructor then told the class that she was modelling a process for developing a learning contract.

The class had now been together for over one hour. The instructor handed out the course outline along with a packet of material. She invited participants to read over the outline and asked for questions. There were none. She noted that although the topic of matching and selecting students was on the agenda she was aware that for this term this process had already occurred. Therefore the discussion of this topic would entail how it had worked, and how it could be improved or done differently. At this juncture the instructor posed the question:

> Take a minute to reflect on what were some of the positive and negative elements of being a student?

This prompted a variety responses. For example:

> On my first day in my final field placement, my supervisor informed me she was going on maternity leave and handed over her entire caseload. I found this very empowering that people who didn't know me would entrust me with this work.

The instructor suggested that this could have been a negative experience had the student felt used by the agency for work replacement and not treated as a learner. The instructor used this example to introduce the notion of individual learning style preferences and how one's approach to learning impacts on their response in a given situation.

Another student recalled her first day in the placement as the first student of her field instructor:

> The first thing my field instructor told me was how anxious she was about being a field instructor. She disclosed her uncertainty about being able to teach me anything and said we'd be learning this together. As a student I felt it was unfair of the field instructor to dump her anxiety onto me since I was already very anxious myself. I felt like I was a burden and began to wonder if, in fact, the field instructor *could* teach me anything.

This prompted a discussion of how honest and open a field instructor, who is new and uncertain about her role, should be. There were diverse opinions presented which prompted people to think about this issue in different ways:

> My first reaction was that I would appreciate the field instructor being
> honest, that it would level the playing field so to speak. But I can see how,
> for some students, this could unnerve them, especially if they needed the field
> instructor to be in control or in charge of things.

The class was split into three groups for a small group exercise. This was done in an arbitrary manner which is the most efficient way to put people into small groups but it eliminated any choice of group. Each group was asked to brainstorm around a different issue for 10 minutes, put the ideas on flip chart paper and report back to the large group. Each group was arbitrarily assigned one of three issues: to explore the advantages of being of field instructor; to describe the qualities of a good field instructor; and to discuss when should an agency or field instructor not take a student.

The flip chart pages were taped to the blackboard at the front of the room. Rather than have someone from each group act as spokesperson, the instructor read outloud the points written on each page and asked for clarification of some of the items or for any additional comments. There was very little discussion which seemed to cause the instructor to say more herself. For example, she frequently drew on her own experiences with students by citing examples or describing incidents relating to a point on the board. She would often begin with, "I remember the time when one student I had . . ." Participants were listening but it appeared that their attention was waning.

It occurred to me that if the groups had presented their own findings, there may have been more interaction. I got the sense that there may have been some fatigue beginning to affect the instructor. The class had now been in session for approximately two and one-half hours. It is exhausting for an instructor to work at facilitating interaction, to maintain the energy and use strategies to motivate participation and work from others. To a certain extent, it takes less energy to do the talking but the result is a decrease in the commitment of participants to engage themselves in the work of being an active learner.

Sensing the dissipating energy, the instructor posed two questions for the class to consider: "What do you need from your agency to be a field instructor? What do you need from the school to be a field instructor?" This was all that was necessary to re-engage the class in sharing points of view and opinions:

> In my agency I need my time with my student respected and I need credit
> from my agency for taking a student.

> From the school I need basic tools. For example, I knew it wasn't a job
> interview when the student came for the placement but I didn't know how to
> make it different.

> I need to get clear permission from the school to call when there is a
> problem. This includes some indication of what constitutes a problem.

The session concluded with another mini-lecture by the instructor on models of field
instruction and phases of learning in social work. The group had no comments or questions
after this presentation. I speculated at the time that they could have had enough for one day,
that the information was not relevant or meaningful to them at this time, or that this particular
group preferred to generate ideas and build upon each other's experience rather than have
material didactically presented:

> I really liked that the instructor didn't just teach to us but drew us out.

> I didn't realize how much there was to being a field instructor. There really
> is a whole new body of knowledge out there but also within me. It's like a
> specialisation all of its own. I'm really looking forward to getting more into
> this.

Participants left feeling tired but stimulated and looking forward to the next class:

> This was great. We sure covered a lot but for me the best part is hearing
> what everyone else had to say.

> I don't get the chance to meet with other social workers very much so this
> course is going to give me that.

Participants from the very beginning of the class were engaged, animated and willing to
share. They appeared to be connected to the process and were beginning to connect with
each other. My hypothesis was that if this level of energy could be sustained, this would be
a very satisfied group of learners.

Thematic Summary of Participant Observation

The main themes emerging from this participant observation can be summarised under the
headings of:

1) beginnings: climate, pacing, pitching, past experience

2) group dynamics: forming, sharing and supporting

3) teaching methods and style: selection, adaptation, flexibility

4) learning approaches and processes: active, differentiated

185

Beginnings

Each of these cases demonstrates substantively different approaches to beginning a course for practice teachers. Drawing from all three of these instances of beginning a course, it is evident that the climate is influenced by everything that participants experience from the moment they enter the room. The physical set-up of the space, the welcome at the door, the provision of materials, and the first words of the instructor are examples of such influences.

In the United Kingdom course, there was some last minute scrambling to set the room up, no welcome at the door and no materials to look over while people were waiting. This created an uncomfortable first few minutes. The beginning of formal course in Canada was typical of an academic university class. There was nothing special done to create a climate other than 'getting down to business.' Little attention was paid to how participants were feeling about being there or the barriers there might be to their participation and learning. The start was brief, matter-of-fact and all business. The beginning of the short course in Canada was more like the start of a group. A great deal of thought was put into being ready for the participants. The flip chart had a welcome message, the instructor was present to greet each person as they entered the room, participants could busy themselves with putting their name on the place card in front of them. The fact that people pulled up to a common table also made a difference. In the United Kingdom, they sat in individual chairs in a room that was too small. In the formal course, they sat in individual desks in a room that was too large.

My experience in working with groups of experienced practitioners gives me a biased perspective on how best to begin. I believe that participants have very specific needs at the outset. They want to know what is expected of them and how much time it will take. They cannot attend to names and where other people work until some of their anxiety about the course is dealt with. These are busy and committed professionals who may be concerned about their ability to succeed with the course. Perhaps they are wondering if they will measure up to being a student again and be able to manage the expectations of the course along with their normal workload responsibilities. In the UK case this was not dealt with during the first part of the morning. In the formal course it was not even considered an issue worthy of much discussion but in the short course it was directly addressed.

My preference is to start with brief introductions moving quite quickly into an overview of the course that attends directly to participants' anxieties about managing their workload with the course expectations. I would then combine and integrate a more in-depth introduction/ice-breaker exercise with the first topic which, in the case of the UK, was to describe an experience of learning; in the formal course was related to the orientation of students; and in the short course was a detailed personal introduction.

Pacing refers to the tempo set by the instructor. How quickly the instructor moves through the agenda, the amount of time spent on process issues such as decision making and achieving consensus, particularly at the beginning of a course, are factors in pacing. It is always a difficult decision when starting a group to know where and how to begin. Especially when a high level of interaction and participation is desired, it is important to set the right mood and create the right atmosphere. The course leader has to decide whether to jump right into the content when people are fresh and eager and postpone dealing with structural issues until later; or risk not having a splashy opening by starting with technical details and satisfying participants' need for certain information. Pacing had an impact in each of the cases.

I am not sure that the course leaders in the UK were aware of the extent of anxiety over the expectations and requirements, and the pressure people were feeling about the time away from work. Had they been, the course leaders might have opted to start with satisfying those concerns and addressing those issues before moving into the content. They opted to pay a considerable amount of attention to introductions, likely with the belief that it was critical to have people get to know each other right away. But the pace in this case was too slow during the introduction exercise.

Too much time was allotted for the dyadic interaction and it took too long to go around the room with one partner introducing the other. Participants got impatient and anxious to 'get on with it.' Given the nature of the group, it is likely they could have been asked to share something of themselves in the dyads that might have been more of an in-depth nature, and subsequently, more interesting to the entire group. This may have resulted in a greater degree of participation in listening to the introductions and perhaps the group being given something more specific to remember about the participants as individuals. Alternatively, this type of simple introduction could have been made without going through the dyads first,

187

thereby moving through the introductions at a quicker pace, as was the case with the short course in Canada.

The intent of the introductions on the short course was likely similar to the United Kingdom but dyads were not used. Participants were asked to introduce themselves but to go beyond the facts by stating what they hoped to get out of the course. This provided an opportunity for participants to reveal something about themselves and was a vehicle to get to know each other. This pacing seemed more in tune with where the participants were at but they were also ready to move on towards the end.

A different picture emerges with the pacing of the formal course. In contrast, the formal course in Canada treated the introductions as a mere formality to be dispensed with as quickly as possible. It is not likely that anyone remembered anyone else's name as there was nothing personal attached to the introduction for people to identify with. The pace was quick with little time spent on process. One participant noted in the follow-up interview that she never did get to learn everyone's name on the course.

Pitching the content at the appropriate level for a diverse group of participants is difficult for instructors, especially at the beginning when little is known about the participants. Introductory exercises can serve the group-process function of getting connected to each other but can also function as a way of discovering what participants already know, have done and where they want to go. This requires flexibility and adaptability on the part of the instructor so adjustments can be made as new information about the group is acquired.

The introductions in the United Kingdom revealed that this group was fairly open to sharing. The "Experience of learning" exercise exposed a willingness to reflect and divulge at a level for which the instructors were not prepared. The content was pitched at too elementary a level for this particular group or alternatively, the instructors could have moved through some of the content at a much quicker pace to get to a more in-depth level.

Little attention was paid to pitching in the formal course in Canada. The instructor had identified the content relevant to orientating students and wanted to make sure he covered it. By asking, "How is this done in your setting?" for many of the items, the instructor was attempting to find out whether or not the issues had been previously considered by agencies

and if so, how this was addressed. There was limited opportunity to get 'a read' on this group of participants but we do know they work in a range of social work settings, some beyond the direct service level.

The instructor on the short course was trying so hard to pitch the content at the right level that she began 'instructing' the moment an opportunity presented itself. She interrupted the introductions on several occasions to 'teach something' when a comment triggered in her a way to expand an idea or present material directly relevant to what was being said. In an effort to seize a teachable moment and pitch the content in a directly applicable way, the instructor created a random, somewhat disruptive and unpredictable process.

Most experts on adult education espouse the principle of drawing upon the past experience and prior knowledge of participants as a starting point in any continuing education endeavour. Tuning into the knowledge and experience participants bring to the learning environment is an essential task. This is not something that can simply be accomplished the first day but is a process of continually asking participants to reflect back and bring forward, to consider and reconsider in light of new information. The climate for doing this and the value placed on past experience and prior knowledge is established in the beginning.

Participants in the United Kingdom were encouraged throughout the day to recall, share and work with past incidents of learning and previous experiences of being a student. Participants in the formal course in Canada, although not directly asked to do so, drew upon their own experiences to make sense of some of the concepts being presented. Those in the short course were asked directly to describe both positive and negative elements of being a student themselves. These opportunities, in all of the cases, evoked the greatest response, involvement and interaction amongst participants.

Group Dynamics

Group dynamics have a powerful influence on learning. In honouring the value of group learning, the choice of topics, sequence and teaching methods, need to be part of an ongoing negotiation. There should be consensus about the agenda and a review at the end to ensure that what was covered and the way it was covered met the needs of the group. The forming stage of the group establishes the norms, sets expectations for behaviour, and develops the

189

roles and relationships of individuals in relation to the group. In forming, a group needs to become clear about the goals and objectives.

In the United Kingdom, the instructors failed to notice the degree of anxiety and the amount of uncertainty participants had about the course itself. In their effort to start the group off well, get people connected and interacting with each other and motivate their interest, the instructors postponed addressing the pressing concerns regarding expectations and requirements. In the formal course in Canada, there was no time devoted to the discussion of the expectations and requirements of the course. There were, however, several unanswered questions about the assignment but this was not discussed with the instructor. A clear message was given to the participants of the short course that this was their course to meet their needs and that they could influence the agenda and bring forward any emerging concerns. In this case, group dynamics influenced many of the choices made in this session.

In all cases there was evidence in varying degrees that instructors value the group learning environment for mutual support purposes. They all sought ways to foster sharing and they all recognised that there is learning value in the realisation that others share the same concerns, feelings, apprehensions, doubts, excitement and needs. The teaching practice groups in the United Kingdom are built upon this premise. They are designed to provide support, stimulate and generate new ideas, offer suggestions and promote dialogue and reflection. The small groups began with a more in-depth introduction and sharing of self. The tutor clearly reinforced the idea that as trust is developed, it is expected that they will take risks and inquire into each other's difficulties and strengths in becoming practice teachers.

Given that the formal course meets like a regular university class, the instructor has clearly opted for content rather than group process, at least at the outset. Minimal attention was paid to group dynamics but the instructor was interested in having participants share some of their practices and experiences. The instructor of the short course in Canada operated from a group work model and worked hard to give participants a chance to share, exchange ideas, and connect with each other. There was a brief opportunity for breaking into small groups. Since they were given a very specific task to accomplish in a short period of time, this did not create an opportunity for furthering trust building or making connections with each other.

Teaching Methods and Style

The theme of teaching methods and style emerged as fundamental to the unfolding of events and engagement of participants in a learning process. The dynamic of multiple teachers affects the flexibility and responsiveness in the teaching situation as was observed in the United Kingdom. It is very difficult to renegotiate the teaching strategy and agenda with the team as the process is unfolding, whereas an individual instructor can make changes swiftly as the need arises.

Instructors in the United Kingdom, and for the short course in Canada, clearly saw themselves more as facilitators. They used teaching methods that facilitated discussion, disclosure and discovery. They desired a collaborative approach that sought to empower the learners. In the United Kingdom, participants in the TPGs were given the responsibility for the success and outcome of the small groups. The tutor was only there as a consultant or guide. The participants were expected to design their own process, set their own agenda and in the process motivate each other. Some groups may find this more or less difficult depending on the composition of the group in which case the tutor needs to be responsive and flexible regarding the role s/he takes. It could be, for example, that the tutor needs to be more directive at the outset so the groups do not flounder and become unnecessarily frustrated. The ability of the instructor/tutor to select appropriate teaching methods and style and be flexible in adapting to the needs of the group is critical to the group's progress.

The instructor of the formal course used more traditional teaching methods that clearly put him in the role of teacher as information provider with clear lines of authority. Teachers of this style worry much less about adapting to students' wants and needs and being flexible, because they value and believe in the importance of the content. Their role is to give as much content as the time allows. Teachers who ultimately want to satisfy their learners may sacrifice the content to please their participants. They may become so flexible and adapt to the demands of the group to such an extent that they no longer provide leadership or direction. Clearly a balance needs to be struck.

Learning Approaches and Processes

The adult learning literature is replete with discussion of approaches to learning and the processes of adult learning. Many of the teaching methods were consistent with adult learning principles where an adult's experience is used to augment the learning process and

191

understand a concept. By describing an experience and reflecting on it, several disparate experiences are linked by an abstract concept which can then be applied to the structuring of future learning opportunities.

Suffice it to say that there is no one adult learning style and that the approach to learning varies with what is to be learned and the conditions under which the learning is to occur. Programs for adult learners need to respect the different approaches and styles by providing choices and variety. Adult learners most often prefer to be active in their learning but there are some things that are best learned through a more passive mode.

For example, in Canada in the formal course, the instructor covered items to consider in orientation. He decided that it was most efficient to present them while participants passively listened. This method may have appealed to those participants who prefer to learn this way even though it goes against strongly held beliefs about adults needing to be active in their learning. If the instructor persists in using only this mode of instruction throughout the course, he will have failed to differentiate his style to the preferred approaches of other students. On the other hand, an instructor who believes, regardless of the content or purpose, that participants must be actively engaged in all learning transactions may frustrate learners. Frustration levels may increase when straight-forward information which could be simply conveyed by delivering it is handled by having participants 'discover' this information through inquiry-based exercises. An example of this was observed in the United Kingdom. The significance of this theme is in honouring the difference and variations participants bring in their approach to the learning process.

THE LEARNING DYNAMIC: CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK PROFESSIONALS

This chapter has examined and reflected in some detail upon the first day on three different types of courses for training practice teachers. The first course was a CCETSW-approved 150-hour practice teacher course leading to the nationally recognised practice teacher award. The second case was a formal course for field instructors in Canada of twelve weeks duration where participants receive university credit upon completion of the course. The third case was a short course for field instructors in Canada which consisted of five sessions with no assignments or credit given for completion. Emerging from the thick description of each of

these cases was a number of themes related to the dynamics of learning on courses that would typify the genre of continuing education for social work professionals.

It is evident that the environment shapes the way in which people are enabled to use each other as resources for learning. There is a need to pay attention to how people interact collectively as the culture of the social unit has a strong influence on learning (Baskett & Marsick, 1992). Knowledge is accumulated and disseminated in a variety of ways that are more or less impactful and meaningful depending upon what is to be learned, where the learning is to be applied, and who is doing the learning. The role of the teacher and the teaching styles used to deliver information and facilitate learning influences the learning dynamics in significant ways, particularly at the onset of formalised learning such as a practice teacher course. Learning that is linked to practice, is organised around practice problems and challenges, involves action and reflection, participation and observation, and facilitates networking with both experts and peers has the greatest likelihood of enhancing performance and the acquisition of new, usable knowledge and skills. The perspectives of the participants of the three cases of practice teacher training and the impact and influence the training had on them are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN
THE EXPERIENCE OF THE PARTICIPANTS

This chapter presents the results of phase two and phase three of the case studies. Phase two of the case study research reports the findings of a survey questionnaire which was mailed out to course participants in the United Kingdom and Canada immediately following the last class. Phase three describes the themes emerging from the follow-up interviews conducted with eight purposively selected participants from each in country.

THE PARTICIPANTS' SURVEY: VIEWS ON TRAINING

The questionnaire was mailed to 19 people who took the Autumn 1991 course (Cohort One) and to 17 people who took the Spring 1992 course (Cohort Two) in the United Kingdom. Four people from the first cohort and two people from the second cohort could not be reached, leaving the total surveyed at 30 (15 from each course). A total of 22 responses were received (10 from Cohort One, 12 from Cohort Two) which is a response rate of 73.3%. In Canada, the questionnaire was mailed to 16 people who attended the formal course and to 17 people who attended the short course. A total of 23 responses were received (10 from the formal course, 13 from the short course) for a response rate of 69%.

There are four broad categories of findings that provide information about the practice teachers in each of the case studies and their experience of training: 1) socio-demographic and background characteristics of participants; 2) perspectives on the course content and format; 3) ratings of helpfulness on various aspects of the course; and 4) opinions about the course and other training issues.

Socio-Demographic and Background Characteristics

Questions were asked of participants completing the survey to collect basic socio-demographic details and background information such as employment, educational/training history, practice teaching experience, and pre-course issue and decisions.

Age, Gender, Ethnicity

The mean age of the UK participants was 36.3 years, while the mean age of Canadian participants was 35.8 years. With regard to gender, 77.3% (n=17) of the UK participants were female but there was a difference in the ratio of females to males in each of the cohorts. Cohort One had a ratio of 60:40 females to males while Cohort Two had a ratio of 10:1 females to males. In Canada, 87% (n=20) are female. There were no male participants in the short course and 3 out of 16 in the formal course were male. When asked about their ethnic background, there was surprisingly little diversity among participants in both countries. Only one participant, who was from the United Kingdom, indicated an ethnic origin other than white.

Job Title, Work Experience, Work Description, Client Groups

Fifty-nine percent of the UK course participants use the title Social Worker when asked for their job title. The remainder use titles such as Probation Officer (9.1%), Training Officer (9.1%), Study Supervisor (4.5%), Team Manager (4.5%), Juvenile Resource Officer (4.5%), Education Welfare Officer (4.5%) and Project Worker (4.5%). Similarly, in Canada 60.8% use the title Social Worker. The rest use titles such as Case Manager (8.7%), Family/Child Service Worker (8.7%), Caseworker (4.3%), Child Protection Worker (4.3%), Executive Director (4.3%) and Program Coordinator (4.3%). It is interesting to note that none of the titles except that of Social Worker overlap between the two countries. It could be semantics but it is more likely reflective of the differences in roles and functions.

The number of years' experience in social work for the UK participants ranged from 3 years to 22 years with an average being 8.5 years. In Canada, the number of years of experience in social work ranged from 3 years to 21 years with the mean being 8.0 years. Both groups are similar in this regard.

Most UK participants reported their broad description of work as field social work (72.7%) with a small number describing their main area of work as training (18.1). They work in a range of settings including residential (20%), community (20%), probation (20%), hospital (10%), intermediate treatment (10%) and combinations of the above (20%). In Canada, participants reported their broad description of work as Provincial Social Service (39.1%), Non Government Organisation (NGO) (21.7%), Municipal Social Service (17.4%), School Board (13%) and mental health (8.7%). The range of work settings in Canada include community (73.9%), hospital (13%), and school (13%).

Field
Training
Neither

Provincial SS
School
Municipal SS

NGO
Mental health
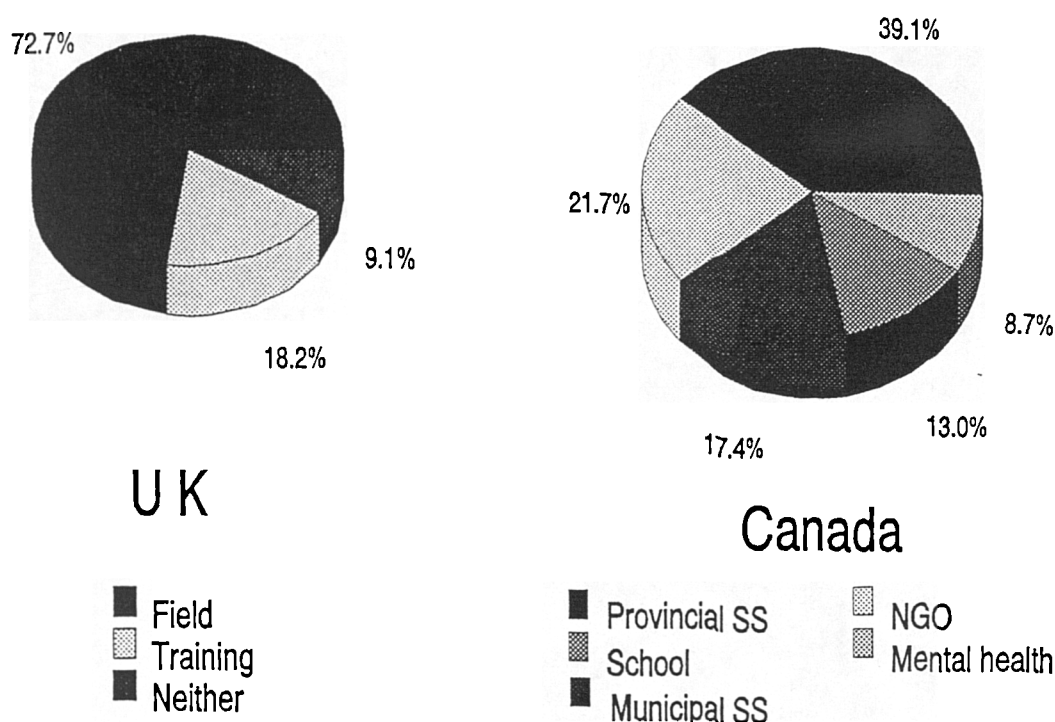
Figure 7.1   Work Settings for the United Kingdom and Canada

The course participants in the United Kingdom work with a variety of client groups. The most frequently mentioned client groups is families: children/adolescents (31.7%). Next most often, they work with mentally/physically handicapped, learning disabled (27.2%). With much less frequency they work with elderly (18.2%), offenders (9.1%), trainees (9.1%), and psychiatric or substance abuse (4.5%). Likewise, in Canada, course participants also work with a variety of client groups. By far the most frequently reported client group is families:children/adolescents (52.1%). Next most often they work with homeless, unemployed, low income (17.3%). This client group is not identified at all in the United Kingdom. Canadian course participants also work with mentally/physically handicapped

(13%), elderly (8.7%), psychiatric or substance abuse (4.3%), or a combination of the above (4.3%). They do not report working with offenders or trainees.

■ Field	■ Provincial SS ▦ NGO
▩ Training	▨ School ▦ Mental health
■ Neither	■ Municipal SS
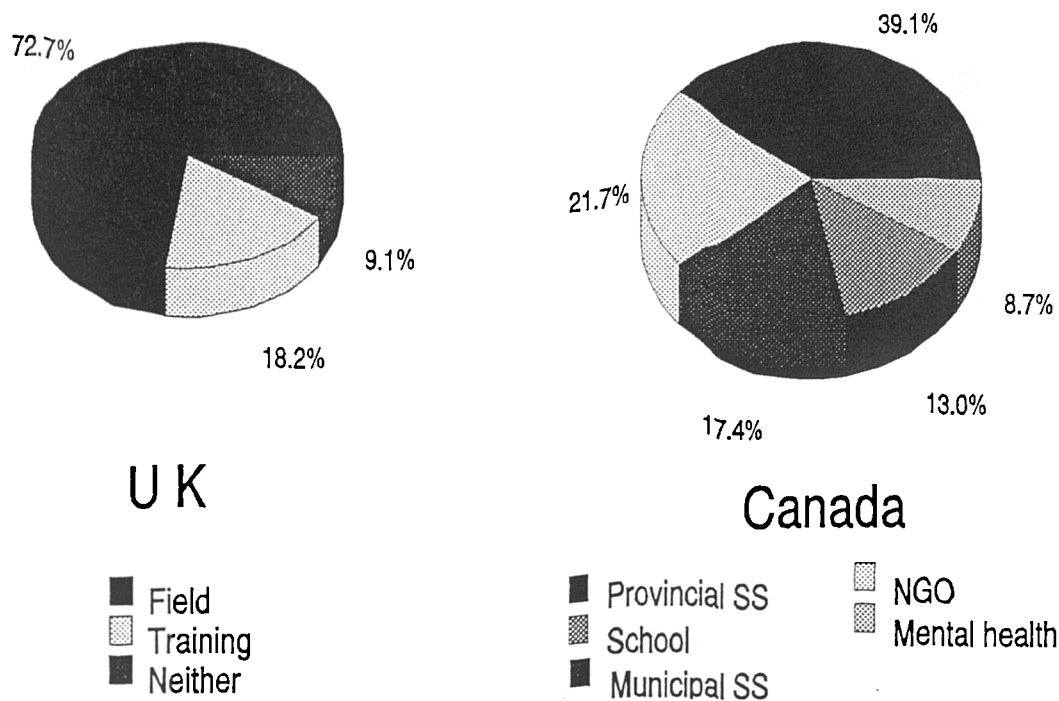
Figure 7.2   Main Client Groups for the United Kingdom and Canada

Educational Background, Practice Teaching Experience

Table 7.1 shows selected educational background and practice teaching experience characteristics. In the United Kingdom, 68.2% have their A levels (advanced high school), while 40.8% have a diploma of some kind. Most have an undergraduate degree (71.4%) while only 34.3% have a post-graduate degree. All but two participants (9.5%) have the CQSW qualification. This qualification was obtained between 21 and 3 years ago with a mean of 8 years ago. One-third of these participants indicated a range of 'other' qualifications. One individual reported holding a post-qualifying social work qualification. Almost all participants (90.9%) have attended at least one in-service training programme and 83.3% have attended two in-service training programmes in the past two years.

In Canada, all participants have their high school diploma (there is no category of A or O levels in Canada). Most do not have a diploma (90.9%) and almost two-thirds have an undergraduate degree other than the Bachelor of Social Work (65.2%). Fifty-nine percent hold a BSW degree which, similar to UK participants, was obtained between 20 and 3 years

ago with a mean of 9 years ago. Two-thirds of the Canadian participants (65.2%) hold a post-graduate (master's) degree with all but one being the Master of Social Work (MSW). Almost all participants (90.5%) have attended one in-service or staff development programme and 70% have attended two.

Table 7.1   Educational Background and Practice Teaching Experience of Participants for the United Kingdom and Canada

	U.K. (n=22)		Canada (n=23)	
	n	%	n	%
Educational Background				
A levels for UK High school diploma for Canada	15	68.2	23	100.0
Diploma	9	40.9	2	9.1
Undergraduate degree	15	71.4	15	65.2
Post-graduate degree	7	34.3	15	65.2
CQSW for UK BSW for Canada	20	90.9	13	59.1
Post-Qualifying SOWK Qualification	1	4.5	0	0.0
Practice Teacher Training and Experience				
One In-Service Training	20	90.9	19	90.5
Two In-Service Training	19	83.3	16	70.0
Prior training for practice teaching	9	36.4	3	17.4
Practice teacher before	12	54.5	10	43.5
Student while on the course	20	90.9	13	56.5
Reasons for not having student:				
None Allocated	2	100.0[a]	0	0
No students interested	0	0	2	22.2
No time	0	0	2	22.2
I prefer the course first	0	0	2	22.2

[a] The percentage is based on the number of particpants who do not have students while taking this course.

With regard to prior training for practice teaching, 36.4% of UK participants indicated they had some, while over half (54.5%) had been a practice teacher before taking this course. Almost all (90.9%) had a student while taking the practice teacher course. In Canada, the

picture is quite different. Only 17.4% had some prior practice teacher training, while close to half (43.5%) indicated they had been a practice teacher before taking this course. Only 56.5% of the Canadian participants had a student while on the course. The reasons cited for not having a student were different in the UK and Canada. The only reason in the UK for not having a student was *none allocated*, while the reasons in Canada were varied: *no students interested, no time, I prefer the course first.*

The majority of UK participants had students on CQSW courses (40%) or DipSW courses (35%) or both (10%). A few (15%) had students on CSS courses. In Canada, most participants had students on BSW courses and a few (15.4%) had students on MSW courses.

Reasons for Training, Obstacles to Training

Practice teachers in both countries report similar reasons for taking the training course as shown in Table 7.2. The top two most frequently stated reasons are to *increase knowledge on practice teaching* (81.8% UK, 91.3% Canada) and to *improve skills* (68.2% UK, 82.6% Canada). In the United Kingdom, participants also indicated to *obtain the award/credits* (81.8%) as their main reason for taking the course but since there is no award in Canada, and only in the formal course could they earn credits for taking the course, this did not appear as a main reason in Canada with much frequency (4.3%). The reason cited third most frequently is for *career development* (54.5% UK; 56.5% Canada).

Table 7.2   Reasons For Training

Reasons	UK (n=22)		Canada (n=23)	
	n	%	n	%
Increase knowledge	18	81.8	21	91.3
Obtain award/credits	18	81.8	1	4.3
Improve skills	15	68.2	19	82.6
Career development	12	54.5	13	56.5

Participants were asked if there were any *obstacles* to taking this course and if so, to indicate what they were (see Table 7.3). The majority of participants in both countries had no obstacles to taking the course (59.1% UK, 47.8% Canada). When there was an obstacle, it was most frequently the *time from work* that was the problem (66.6% UK; 83.3% Canada).

It is interesting that this is more of an obstacle for participants in Canada when the actual commitment of time is so much less than in the United Kingdom.

Table 7.3   Obstacles to Training

Obstacles	UK (n=9)		Canada (n=12)	
	n	%	n	%
Time from work	6	66.7	10	43.5
Short notice	1	11.1	0	0.0
Lack pre-requisite	1	11.1	0	0.0
Not visible minority or handicapped	1	11.1	0	0.0
Workload not adjusted or diminished	0	0.0	2	16.7

Discussion: Socio-demographic and Background Characteristics

The British and Canadian participants are very similar on most variables. They are of similar ages, predominantly female and white. They refer to themselves as social workers with similar frequency and have the same number of years of work experience. Their broad descriptions of work and the client groups with whom they work are different, which reflects the difference in the social service delivery systems and the deployment of social workers between the two countries. With regard to their educational backgrounds, they hold undergraduate degrees to the same extent but more Canadians hold post-graduate degrees and more British hold diplomas. With only one or two exceptions, both groups of participants hold social work qualifications but, because of the distinction in the United Kingdom between a university degree and a social work qualification, more Canadians are social work degree holders. Both groups participate in in-service training to a similar extent. Twice as many British than Canadian participants had received some practice teacher training prior to this course but only 11% more had previously supervised students. Almost all British participants had students while doing this training whereas only slightly more than half the Canadians simultaneously had a student with the course. These participants even had similar reasons for taking the training and similar obstacles in the way of training. Now that we have a picture of the characteristics of these two groups of social workers engaged in practice teacher training, we will turn to their perceptions of the training they received.

Perspectives on Content and Format

This section analyses the data on participants' perspectives on a range of content and format issues. Content topics and format aspects were identified from the course outlines and since each questionnaire was tailored to the specific course they differed somewhat in this regard. The first section examines particular content topics in relation to quality and quantity and the second section looks at participants' agreement with statements that are both specific and general regarding the content and format of the course.

Course Content: Enough, New, Use, Teaching Methods Helpful

Four questions were asked with reference to each content topic: Was **enough** emphasis given to the topic? Was the information **new** to them? Were they able to **use** the information in their work as a practice teacher? and, Were the **teaching methods** used by the course leaders to cover the topic **helpful** to their learning? Table 7.4 presents this data.

Table 7.4   Course Content: Enough, New, Use, Teaching Methods Helpful

CONTENT	Enough		New Information		Use		Teaching Methods	
	UK	CAN	UK	CAN	UK	CAN	UK	CAN
ADP	9.1	13.0	40.9	N/A	54.5	N/A	22.7	N/A
Teaching Strategies	40.9	91.3	72.7	73.9	81.8	82.4	40.9	65.2
Adult Learning	81.8	78.3	72.7	N/A	59.1	N/A	68.2	N/A
Learning Contract	59.1	87.0	77.3	82.6	72.7	82.4	59.1	73.9
Supervision	45.5	78.3	59.1	69.6	63.6	70.6	59.1	59.1
Assessment	50.0	82.6	59.1	60.9	72.7	58.8	40.9	47.8
Report Writing	22.7	N/A	27.3	N/A	22.7	N/A	13.6	N/A
Problems	9.1	73.9	22.7	69.9	22.7	40.0	18.2	65.2

UK : n=22
Canada : n=23

Note: This table reports the percentage.

On the topic of *anti-discriminatory practice,* only 9.1% of UK participants agreed there was enough emphasis on anti-discriminatory practice teaching in terms of assessing student competence. Less than half of the participants (40.9%) thought the information they received on this topic was new to them, while slightly more than half of the participants (54.5%) agreed they were using the information in their work with students. Not many participants (22.7%) agreed that the teaching methods used to deal with anti-discriminatory practice were helpful to their learning. It is reasonable to conclude that these participants were not satisfied with the amount that was taught, with what was taught, with how it was taught, or with their ability to use what was taught with their student. From the participants' perspective, there needs to be more emphasis using better teaching methods to address ADP. With reference to this topic in Canada, 13.0% agreed there was enough emphasis on this topic. Since *ADP* was not identified as a topic covered in the course, participants were not asked about the use, newness or helpfulness of teaching methods on this content area.

Teaching strategies had to do primarily with techniques used to orient the student and get them involved and active in the placement. There seemed to be more 'teaching' done at the beginning of the placement hence the topic of teaching strategies was closely intertwined with beginnings. Forty percent of British participants agreed that there was enough emphasis in the UK course on this topic. However, 72.7% felt the information provided was new to them and 81.8% thought they were using the information on teaching strategies with their student(s). There was less agreement (40.9%) about the helpfulness of the teaching methods used to cover this topic. The topic of *teaching strategies* is not addressed in Canadian courses per se but related material is covered in the topic on *the beginning phase* in examining various strategies for working with students. Ninety-one percent agreed there was enough emphasis on this topic. A majority (73.9%) agreed the information provided was new and 82.4% reported they were using the information in their work with students but only two-thirds (65.2%) agreed the teaching methods used by course leaders to cover this content was helpful. Canadian participants are more satisfied than their British counterparts on the amount of emphasis given this topic and the teaching methods used but both groups seem to find the information new and useful with students.

Accreditation of prior experiential learning *(APEL)* was a topic on the UK course addressing aspects of adult learning. The majority (81.8%) of UK participants agreed there was enough emphasis and 72.7% thought it was new information. Fifty-nine percent felt they were using

it with their student and 68.2% thought the teaching methods used to cover this topic were helpful. There seems to be a high degree of satisfaction with this topic in all four areas. This topic is not addressed in Canada nor would participants have familiarity with the concept of APEL so they were asked about the related topic of *adult learning*. Canadian participants were asked if there was enough emphasis on *adult learning* and 78.3% agreed there was, even though it did not appear as a content item or topic heading in the course outlines.

Learning contracts is a topic common to the courses in the UK and Canada. Fifty-nine percent of UK participants thought there was enough emphasis on *learning contracts*, while 77.3% agreed the information on learning contracts was new. The number agreeing the information was new to them is curious given that just over half the participants had previously been practice teachers and over one-third of them had some prior practice teacher training. Seventy-two percent agreed they were using the information and 59.1% agreed the teaching methods were helpful to their learning this topic. In Canada, 87% agreed there was enough emphasis on this content area, while over 80% agreed the information was new and they were using it with students. Not quite as many thought the teaching methods were helpful (73.9%) but there is still a high level of satisfaction on this topic.

On the topic *supervision: models and techniques*, slightly less than half (45.5%) the British participants agreed there was enough emphasis on this topic in the United Kingdom. For 59.1% of the participants, information on this topic was new and 63.6% were using the information with their student. The teaching methods used to cover this topic were helpful to 59.1%. In Canada, 78.3% agreed there is enough content on *supervision*, 69.6% agreed it is new information to them and 70.6% are using it with students. Not as many (59.1%) agreed the teaching methods used to cover this topic were helpful.

In terms of *assessment of student performance and progress*, only 50% agreed there was enough emphasis and only 59.1% felt that what they did get was new to them. However, 72.7% were using it with their student but only 40.9% thought the teaching methods to cover assessment were helpful to their learning. In Canada, 82.6% agreed there was enough emphasis on *assessment* but only 60.9% agreed the information was new to them and only 58.8% were using it. Less than half (47.8%) agreed the teaching methods used to cover this topic were helpful.

Writing a student's final report is only a content item in the UK and it is likely one that course directors might want to reconsider. Only 22.7% agreed there was enough emphasis given to this and 27.3% agreed that the information provided was new to them. Only 22.7% agreed they were using the knowledge gained about report writing in their work with students and only 13.6% agreed the teaching methods used to cover this topic were helpful. Clearly there is dissatisfaction with the emphasis given to report writing and what is provided does not appear to be used by practice teachers nor did they find the teaching methods very effective. This topic was not addressed as an item separate from assessment in Canada as it was in the United Kingdom, so no comparable information on report writing can be obtained.

According to UK participants, the content on *dealing with difficult or problematic student situations* was not given enough emphasis. Only 9.1% agreed there was enough emphasis on it, 22.7% agreed that what was covered was new to them and that they were able to use this in their work with students. Even fewer (18.2%) agreed the teaching methods were helpful to them in learning this material. In Canada, however, 73.9% agreed there was enough emphasis on this topic and 69.6% viewed it as new information. Only 40% thought they were using the information in their work with students. About two-thirds (65.2%) found the teaching methods used on this topic helpful to their learning.

In general, Canadian participants appeared less critical of the course content in all four aspects examined: emphasis given to the topic, the newness of the information, their ability to use the information with their student, and the helpfulness of the teaching methods used to deliver the content. British participants were less willing to agree there was enough emphasis on particular topics than Canadian participants. British participants gave less than 50% agreement on five of the eight topics regarding the quantity of information whereas only one topic received less than 50% agreement by Canadians. They were similar in their views that there was not enough content on ADP and that there was enough content on adult learning/accreditation prior learning. They were very different in their views regarding the amount of content provided on teaching strategies and dealing with problem students. The other topics show a difference in perception, albeit not as large, by fewer British participants agreeing there is enough emphasis provided.

There was more similarity in views between the UK and Canadian participants regarding their opinion that the information was new; however, on the topic of dealing with problems, there

was a large difference. Again, British participants showed less than 50% agreement that three of the topics were new, whereas none of the topics showed less than 50% agreement that the information was new according to the Canadian perspective. The newness of the content on teaching strategies, learning contracts and assessment was viewed similarly by British and Canadian participants.

With reference to participants' ability to use the information they gained on the course in their work as a practice teacher, there was similarity of opinion on four topic areas: teaching strategies, learning contracts, supervision and dealing with problems. It is interesting to note that the topic of assessment was the only one in which Canadian participants showed less agreement than British participants.

The teaching methods used to deliver various topics, with the exception of two—supervision and assessment—were not seen similarly by the participants from the UK and Canada. In this category, British participants showed less than 50% agreement on half the topics, while Canadian participants showed less than 50% agreement on only one topic—assessment.

Programme Issues: Participants' Opinions

Participants were asked their opinions about specific content and format aspects of the course as well as their general perspectives under the general heading of programme issues. These data are reported in Table 7.5.

An example of a specific aspect was if they *used the library* to further their knowledge about practice teaching. In the United Kingdom, 81.8% of the participants agreed they did, while only 47.8% of the Canadian participants agreed they used the library.

All participants were asked if they were provided with enough information about the content, requirements and format prior to the start of the course. There appears to be greater satisfaction among Canadian practice teachers regarding what they were told about the course before it began. In the United Kingdom, only 13.6% agreed there was enough information about *content*, 18.2% agreed there was enough about *requirements*, and 22.7% agreed there was enough about *format*. In Canada, 47.8% agreed there was enough about *content*, 65.2% agreed there was enough about *requirements*, and 47.8% agreed there was enough about

format. It seems that both course and field directors need to do a better job informing participants about what they can expect on the course before it begins.

On the other hand, approximately three-quarters of the participants in both countries (72% UK; 76.2% Canada) expressed agreement that the *selection process into the course was appropriate.* Half of the participants (50.0%) in the United Kingdom agreed their employer allowed them *adequate time from their workload to fulfil the requirements of this course,* but in Canada, three quarters (72.7%) of the participants agreed. Perhaps because the course requirements were so much more extensive in the United Kingdom, it was more difficult to gain adequate time from employers.

Participants in both countries were asked if there were *enough opportunities to practice* what they were learning during the course. Fifty percent of the United Kingdom participants agreed while 36.8% of the Canadians agreed. Since most of the UK participants had a student while on the course and were expected to demonstrate their use of knowledge and skills in actual work with a student in order to meet the requirements of the course, it is interesting that not more than half of them agreed with this statement. Fewer Canadians had students while taking the course and there was no expectation that the course was designed to provide opportunities to practice so the low level of agreement to this statement is not surprising.

Given the importance placed on anti-discriminatory practice and multicultural issues, participants were asked their opinion on a general statement about this subject in addition to the specific questions asked earlier. They were asked for their agreement with the statement: *There was enough emphasis on ethnic, cultural and other diversity issues relevant to practice teaching.* Neither group agreed with this to any great extent (18.2% UK; 17.4% Canada) which supports the earlier findings.

Participants were asked for their agreement with the statement: *In general, there was enough content on practice teaching.* Interestingly, there is quite a difference in perceptions between UK and Canadian participants. Only 40.9% of British participants agreed with this statement while 78.3% of Canadians agreed. This finding is validated by the previous findings with regard to the emphasis given to particular content topics. British participants are more

discerning and less accepting of the amount of content in the course than their Canadian counterparts.

Table 7.5   Programme Issues: Participant Opinions

	UK (n=22)		Canada (n=23)	
	n	%	n	%
I have used library to further my knowledge	18	81.8	11	47.8
Had enough information about the CONTENT of the course before it began	3	13.6	11	47.8
Had enough information about the REQUIREMENTS of the course before it began	4	18.2	15	65.2
Had enough information about the FORMAT of the course before it began	5	22.7	11	47.8
The selection process into the course was appropriate for me	16	72.7	16	76.2
My employer allowed me adequate time from my normal workload to fulfill the requirements of this course	11	50.0	16	72.7
There were enough opportunities to practice what I was learning	11	50.0	7	36.8
There was enough emphasis on ethnic, culture, and other diversity issues relevant to practice teaching	4	18.2	4	17.4
In general, there was enough content on practice teaching	9	40.9	18	78.3
My TPG was focused and got a lot accomplished	15	68.2	N/A	
I feel able to prepare a portfolio	11	50.0	N/A	
I feel prepared to be a competent practice teacher	16	72.7	20	87.0

United Kingdom participants were asked about their *teaching practice group* for which there is no comparison in Canada, other than the opportunity for small group work during the course.   For the most part, they agreed (68.2%) that their group was focused and accomplished a great deal.   Since there is no equivalent to the portfolio in Canada, only United Kingdom participants were asked if having taken the course they felt *able to prepare a portfolio*. Only half agreed they were prepared.

Participants in both countries were asked if having taken this course they felt *prepared to be a competent practice teacher*. In spite of the fact that the training in Canada involved less time, covered fewer topics in a more limited way, had fewer opportunities to practice what they learned, and had only minimal expectations from participants, 87% agreed they were prepared. In contrast, 72.7% of the United Kingdom participants agreed they were prepared to be a competent practice teacher. Possibly it is a case of 'the more you know the more you know you don't know' that would cause this discrepancy. Add to that the pressure to complete the portfolio and demonstrate competence and it is somewhat understandable that one quarter of the participants, even after a 150-hour course, did not agree they were prepared to be a competent practice teacher.

Discussion: Perspectives on Content and Format

One can only speculate about the reasons the British participants are more critical about their training. Although the questionnaires were completed at the conclusion of the course, the British participants still had the prospect of completing the portfolio and submitting it to the assessment panel in front of them. It may be that since UK participants are expected to demonstrate they can apply the acquired content taught on the course, they were acutely aware at the conclusion of the course what they had not received and how much they still needed to do before completing the portfolio. They seemed particularly critical of the emphasis given to several of the topics and the teaching methods used to present or cover many of them. Their anxiety regarding the work yet to do may be reflected in the low agreement reported here. It may also be that participants went into the course expecting greater things than the course, touted as the 'answer' to quality practice teaching, could produce. Canadian participants, on the other hand, are not expected to produce evidence of their competence in any of the areas that were covered in the course and appeared that much more complacent and accepting of whatever they received.

Ratings of Helpfulness

Specific and unique aspects of each course, such as format, structure, organisation, and the use of hand-outs, were identified as worthy of examination. The questions varied for each group depending upon the specific characteristics of the course but, in many instances, were similar. Participants were asked to evaluate the identified components according to their

perception of the degree of helpfulness to their learning. Helpfulness was ranked according to: most helpful=5, very helpful=4, helpful=3, somewhat helpful=2, and not helpful=1.

Table 7.6 presents an index of helpfulness of various programme structure and format variables. The components that stood out as having the highest mean score on the helpfulness index, according to UK participants, were: Feedback on progress (3.77) and the Teaching practice group (TPG) (3.77). Also quite highly rated were the articles and other materials used for Hand-outs (3.55), the Independent study time (3.32), the Block week to begin the course (3.23), the Group-learning days (3.18), and the Support received from the line manager while on the course (3.00). Those components receiving a score of less than three on the helpfulness index are the Help with the portfolio (2.73), the Library orientation and the course leaders' Teaching methods (2.64), the recommended Assignments (2.50) and lastly, the Observation visits made to the workplace (2.41). Observation visits came last partly because, in many cases, these visits did not take place as the practice teacher and student came to the college where they could make use of the studio for videotaping.

Table 7.6   Helpfulness Scale

	UK (n=22)	Canada (n=23)
Feedback on progress	3.77[a]	3.31
TPG/small group work	3.77	3.67
Hand-outs	3.55	3.38
Independent study time	3.32	N/A
Format/Block Week	3.23	3.39
Group learning days/Large group discussion	3.18	3.82
Support from line manager/other participants	3.00	3.76
Help with portfolio/assignments	2.73	3.50
Teaching methods of course leader	2.59	3.50
Library Orientation	2.64	N/A
Assignments	2.50	3.67
Observation visits/role play	2.41	2.00

[a] The value reported in this table is a mean score for each item.

Canadian participants rated the Large group discussions as the most helpful aspect of the course (3.82) followed by Support from other participants (3.76). The aspects of Small group work and Assignments (only asked of participants of the formal course) were scored as third most helpful (3.67). Canadian participants also found the Help with assignments (3.50), Teaching methods of the course leader (3.50), the Format (3.39), Hand-outs (3.38), and Feedback on progress (3.31) helpful. The only aspect that fell below three in the helpfulness scale was Role play which included other opportunities to practice and develop skills (2.00).

It seems that participants from both countries have found specific programme and format aspects of the training helpful to their learning. What stands out is the perception of helpfulness derived from working with each other in small groups. The opportunity to share and learn from each other appears to be a contributing factor to participants' perception of what was helpful.

Opinions About the Course

Participants were asked for their opinions about the course by completing a series of sentences. This technique was used to draw out their views without prompting or directing the response. Answers were coded and grouped thematically for analysis. Participants were asked to identify a highlight and low point during the course, the part of the course they learned the most and the least from, and what topics they would add or delete from the course. They were queried about the teaching methods they found most and least helpful to their learning and how helpful the course was in learning about practice teaching. Finally they were asked whether they felt they were able to transfer what they learned on the course to their work as a practice teacher or to other areas in their lives.

Highlight, Low Point

The highlight of the course most frequently cited by both British and Canadian participants was the category representative of the theme, Sharing with each other. This category included the teaching practice groups in the UK, the opportunity for exchange with colleagues and the benefits derived from interacting with other participants. Close to half of the participants indicated this theme represented the highlight of the course (46.7% UK; 44.8% Canada). UK participants also highlighted Input on supervision, Validation of ability, and Help from course leaders, tutors and instructors, but much less frequently. For Canadian

participants, other highlights mentioned were Help from course instructor and Input on beginning phase. These data are shown in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7   Highlight of Course

	UK (n=30)		Canada (n=29)	
	n	%	n	%
Sharing with each other	14	46.7	13	44.8
Input on supervision	5	16.7	N/A	
Validation of ability	4	13.3	1	3.4
Help from course leaders, tutors, instructors	3	10.0	4	13.8
Input on beginning phase	N/A		3	10.3

The low point of the course does not show the same degree of similarity between UK and Canadian participants (see Table 6.8). The most frequently mentioned low point for UK participants was the Amount of work (31%). This was followed by ADP: too little, poorly handled (24.1%). Also mentioned were TPG problems and Teaching approaches and styles. In Canada, there was less agreement on the low point but the two most frequently mentioned were Managing time away from work (19%) and Participants not participating (19%). The next most frequently cited low points were Teaching approaches and style (14.3%) and Not having a student (14.3%). The only point of overlap between British and Canadian participants regarding the low point of the course is related to the approach to teaching.

Table 7.8   Low Point of Course

LOW-POINT OF COURSE	UK (n=29)		Canada (n=21)	
	n	%	n	%
Amount of work	9	31.0	2	9.5
ADP : too little, poorly handled	7	24.1	N/A	
TPG problems	3	10.3	N/A	
Teaching approaches and styles	2	6.9	3	14.3
Managing time away from work	N/A		4	19.0
Participants not participating	N/A		4	19.0
Not having a student	N/A		3	14.3

Learned Most, Learned Least

Participants were asked to complete sentences that began with: *The part of the course I learned the most from was. . . The part of the course I learned the least from was. . . .* The part that both British and Canadian participants learned the most from was Small group discussion/TPG. This was indicated with more frequency in the UK (39.3%) than in Canada (25.8%) but it is consistent with other findings regarding what was valuable to participants in the training they received. Participants in the UK also indicated they learned the most from two other categories: Live supervision (25%) and Adult learning/APEL (25%). In Canada, Adult learning (19.4%) was also noted as was Hand-outs (19.4%) and Beginning phase (19.4%). Also mentioned to some extent in Canada and the UK was the Opportunity to reflect on practice/link theory (3.6% UK; 16.1% Canada). These data are reported in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9   Learned Most

	UK		Canada	
	n	%	n	%
Small group discussion/TPG	11	39.3	8	25.8
Live supervision	7	25.0	N/A	
Adult learning/APEL	7	25.0	6	19.4
Hand-outs			6	19.4
Beginning phase			6	19.4
Opportunity to reflect on practice and link to theory	1	3.6	5	16.1

UK participants indicated they learned the least from ADP (28%) followed by Report writing (20.0%), Being lectured to (16.0%) and Assignments (12.0%). Canadian participants learned the least from Being lectured to (26.7%), which is also the only item of overlap between the UK and Canada. Canadians also noted Reluctance of classmates to interact (20.0%), Not having a student while on course (13.3%), School's objectives (13.3%) and Input on orientation (13.3%) as aspects of the course they learned the least from. These findings, reported in Table 6.10, are consistent with earlier findings and with the impressions gained from the participant observation phase of the case studies.

Table 7.10   Learned Least

	UK		Canada	
	n	%	n	%
ADP	7	28.0		
Report writing	5	20.0		
Being lectured to	4	16.0	4	26.7
Assignments	3	12.0		
Reluctance of classmates to interact			3	20.0
Not having a student on course			2	13.3
School's objectives			2	13.3
Input on orientation			2	13.3

Topics to Add, Topics to Delete

Participants were given the opportunity to suggest topics they would like to see added to the course and to recommend topics to delete from the course (see Table 7.11). Both British and Canadian participants wanted to add ADP/multicultural issues (13.9% UK; 15.4% Canada) and Supervision issues (13.9% UK; 11.5% Canada). Participants in the United Kingdom wanted to add most frequently, Problem students (22.2%). They also suggested Portfolio information (11.1%) and Assessment process and report (11.1%). In Canada, they would like to add More small group discussion (15.4%) and Examining and sharing experiences (11.5%).

Table 7.11   Topics to Add

	UK (n=36)		Canada	
	n	%	n	%
ADP/multicultural issues	5	13.9	4	15.4
Supervision issues	5	13.9	3	11.5
Problem students	8	22.2	1	3.8
Portfolio information	4	11.1		
Assessment: process and report	4	11.1	1	3.8
More small group discussion			4	15.4
Examining and sharing experiences			3	11.5

Interestingly, there was no overlap in what not to include on the course between the United Kingdom and Canada. British participants recommended deleting Report writing (44.4%),

at least the way it was handled on this course. They also suggested excluding the Discussion of sensitive issues without prior consent (33.3%) and one person suggested deleting Everything except the TPG (11.1%). Canadian participants recommended changing the Way it was taught (44.4%). In stating they thought there was Too much on incompetent students (22.2%) and Too much on school's objectives (22.2%), it is surmised that time spent on these topics should be reduced. With regard to this latter point, it should be noted that in the previous chapter, field directors in Canada viewed including content on the school's objectives as very important yet the participants in both types of training courses indicated this was an item to delete. These data are reported in Table 7.12.

Table 7.12   Topics to Delete

	UK (n=9)		Canada (n=9)	
	n	%	n	%
Report writing	4	44.4		
Discussion of sensitive issues without prior consent	3	33.3		
Everything except TPG	1	11.1		
Way it was taught			4	44.4
Too much on incompetent students			2	22.2
Abstract ideas /too much on school			2	22.2

Most Helpful Teaching Methods, Least Helpful Teaching Methods

Participants were asked to complete the sentences: *The teaching methods used by the course instructor that were most (least) helpful to my learning were* . . . (see Table 7.13). By far, the most helpful method listed by UK participants was TPG/small group (47.1%). This method was also indicated second in frequency by Canadian participants (16.7%). The most helpful teaching method according to Canadian participants was Methods that use adult learning principles (25.0%) which was also seen as helpful in the United Kingdom (14.7%). Other helpful teaching methods were: Live supervision/video playback (20.6% UK); Handouts (8.8% UK); Direct teaching lecture method (16.7% Canada); Sharing experiences (11.1% Canada); and Role plays/experiential exercises (11.1% Canada).

Table 7.13   Most Helpful Teaching Methods

Helpful teaching methods	UK (n=34)		Canada (n=36)	
	n	%	n	%
TPG/Small group	16	47.1	6	16.7
Methods that use adult learning principles	5	14.7	9	25.0
Live supervision/video playback	7	20.6		
Hand-outs	3	8.8		
Direct teaching/lecture method			6	16.7
Sharing experiences			4	11.1
Role plays/experiential exercises			4	11.1

The teaching method that was most frequently reported as least helpful is common to both countries, Direct teaching lecturing method (50.0% UK; 41.2% Canada). The teaching method seen next as least helpful is Role play/experiential exercises (20.8% UK; 11.8% Canada). It may seem surprising that these items appeared as both most helpful and least helpful. Given what we know about adult learners, that is, that there is no single adult learning style and that adults vary in their approaches to learning, it is not at all surprising that what one finds most helpful, another will find least helpful. Other least helpful methods included: Assignments (8.3% UK; 5.9% Canada), Disjointed and restricted approaches (4.2% UK; 11.8% Canada), and Not using adult learning principles (11.8% Canada). See Table 7.14.

Table 7.14   Least Helpful Teaching Methods

Least Helpful Teaching Methods	UK (n=24)		Canada (n=17)	
	n	%	n	%
Direct teaching/lecturing method	12	50.0	7	41.2
Role play/experiential exercises	5	20.8	2	11.8
Assignments	2	8.3	1	5.9
Disjointed/restricted appraoches	1	4.2	2	11.8
Not using adult learning principles			2	11.8

Discussion: Participants' Survey

This phase of the case study has attempted to quantify participants' experiences and perceptions of a training course they had recently completed. In the case of UK participants, the course was over but they still had the portfolio to finish. In the case of Canadian

participants, those from the formal course who had assignments to complete had already done so but for half of the participants, who did not have a student while on the course, they were still waiting to apply what they had learned.

Participants from the United Kingdom were more critical of their training and less satisfied than the Canadians as a whole. However, the Canadian participants from the formal course were much more critical and less satisfied with their experience of training than the participants of the short course who were overwhelmingly pleased with their course. Two distinguishing differences between the formal and short courses, which may account for the difference in perception of satisfaction with the course, appeared to be the approach and style of the instructor and the opportunity for interaction among participants. The participant observation of these courses revealed very different instructor styles which influenced the process of the course with reference to sharing, discussing and debating opportunities among participants. These differences were reflected in the findings of the survey. The instructor of the formal course used more didactic approaches and was more focused on delivering content than on creating an environment conducive to the process of exchange and dialogue. The instructor of the short course drew from group work techniques as opposed to traditional classroom teaching techniques and emphasised process. Where she was criticised was for "dragging out the process and not getting on with the real substance."

The participant observation in the United Kingdom revealed the potential for dissatisfaction amongst participants, both in terms of content and process. The content problems had to do with a lack of content that was pitched at right level for participants or covered at the right time. The process problems had to do with the approach and style of instructors in the large group but not in the TPGs. It seems that the part of the course generating the most positive thoughts and feelings was the work done in the teaching practice groups. This underscores the value of collaborative teaching and learning models. The next section presents the findings of the follow-up interviews conducted six to nine months after completing the survey. We now turn our attention to their perceptions of training after some time has elapsed.

THE VOICES OF THE PARTICIPANTS: FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEWS

Participants were asked to indicate their willingness to be interviewed six to nine months later and all but two participants agreed. Sixteen participants in total were subsequently contacted, eight from each country. In the United Kingdom, there were three participants from Cohort One and five participants from Cohort Two. In Canada, four participants were from the formal course and four were from the short course. The interviews in the United Kingdom were conducted face-to-face, while the interviews in Canada were conducted over the telephone. The interviews were semi-structured and they attempted to gather information about participants' views of the course and the meaning it had for them as practice teachers and as social workers without being overly directive.

I discussed with participants their thoughts and feelings about the course in retrospect, exploring in some detail their views now, compared with their views at the end of the course. I asked them to consider what the course meant for them in terms of their present job and future aspirations. In an attempt to inquire about the acquisition of specific knowledge and skills I asked them to describe what they were doing with students, how they were thinking about what they were doing and if they could attribute any of their thoughts and actions to the course. This was explored further in relation to other aspects of their work or personal lives. In the UK the portfolio was discussed in relation to where participants were in the process of completing it, the degree of ease or difficulty they were experiencing with it and the contribution it made or was making to their learning. Canadian participants on the formal course were asked about the assignment in a similar way and the short course participants were asked to speculate whether producing evidence that they learned something on the course would have made a difference to them. Each participant was encouraged to discuss what being on the course meant to them, what being a practice teacher meant to them and to examine these meanings in relation to specific elements of the course. Throughout the follow-up interviews participants were invited to make evaluative comments, reflective judgements, and consider what was different for them now, through the disclosure of incidents and examples.

All interviews were audiotaped for later analysis. I have tried wherever possible to use participants' own words but for the protection of the individuals involved all identifying information has been removed. There are colloquialisms and other details provided that

undoubtedly identify whether the participant is British or Canadian. These could not be removed without sacrificing the richness of the lexicon so I have included this information in parentheses after each verbatim report but I have not indicated the specific course, that is, Cohort One or Two in the UK, formal or short in Canada, in order to safeguard confidentiality.

From a thematic analysis of the tapes and notes of the follow-up interviews, and with the assistance of the software program, Ethnograph, six themes emerged: shifts in thoughts and feelings; the role of practice teaching in professional development; the role of practice teacher as educator; the transfer of learning in practice teaching; the time involved in practice teacher training; and the complexity of adult learning and teaching.

Shifts in Thought and Feelings

In noting the trends and direction of the data in response to how participants viewed the course now that some time had passed, there appeared to be a shift towards a middle ground. Those who were overwhelmingly pleased at the conclusion seemed to be still satisfied but not quite as effusively, and those who were quite critical appeared to have softened their harsh views. One example is the case of a British participant who had a profoundly negative experience with another participant early in the course which clouded her view of the whole course in a rather negative light. But six months later her feelings were more moderate:

> It wasn't processed properly or ever really concluded for me. When I did the questionnaire I was feeling quite negative about it and I'm afraid it spilled over into my feeling about whole course. Now that I've had the opportunity to get some distance from it I can see it better. After the incident happened I was feeling extremely vulnerable and that it was not a safe place to talk. But I realize now that we are only going to learn if we make the big mistakes and someone can gently lead us through that mistake and explain it, so we can look at it and discuss it. In many ways I learned a lot so I do owe the course that. (UK)

In a similar vein, a Canadian participant who was exceedingly critical of the manner in which the course was taught and the lack of opportunity to participate did find that in retrospect she gained important knowledge:

> I know I was extremely frustrated and I made the choice not to protest openly but I desperately wanted to tell [instructor] to change the whole way of presenting so that there was participation from class members. Now that I'm working with my student I'm actually surprised at the amount of information

> I have taken from it that I can use. I'm still critical about being lectured to about adult learning but I have to admit there was substance. (Cdn)

It is interesting that not only did the negative views become more balanced but the positive feelings also became differentiated. In one instance a participant became aware of the halo effect causing her to see the entire course in an extremely positive manner. In time she became aware that it was really the qualities of the instructor that had impressed her the most, overshadowing other aspects of the course. With the passage of time she became aware that there were other things with which she was less enamoured:

> I was so taken with the instructor's personality and manner that I went around raving about the course to any one who would listen. But you know we really spent a lot of time listening to horror stories about this student or that faculty when those things happen so rarely. I think we could have covered things that would have helped me right now with my student but instead we did a lot of complaining. Some of that is okay but I can see the shortcomings now. (Cdn)

Practice Teaching Promotes Professional Development

The notion that there is a relationship between practice teaching and one's own continuing professional development emerged as a theme in the discussion of the outcomes of training for practice teachers. The training experience and process promoted reflection, extended knowledge and skills, and reminded practitioners that they are lifelong learners:

> I feel a renewed sense of commitment to practice teaching and to this type of learning. This course has indirectly done my self-esteem a power of good. (UK)

> The portfolio is not the end of the line. We need to be constantly looking at what we are doing and updating it. (UK)

Some saw being a practice teacher as benefitting their own development and a way of developing the profession by giving back to the next generation:

> I think it's a good thing to be able to take a student because students are great for keeping you on your toes and for reminding you about things you might have taken for granted. I had a good practice teacher so why shouldn't I return that to a student. (Cdn)

Both training and practice teaching enhanced feelings of competence and job satisfaction. The opportunity to be a practice teacher provided experienced staff with new responsibilities, challenges and diversions:

> There is a definite connection for me in developing myself here and the consulting work that I have been developing on the side which is benefitting the agency as well. (Cdn)

> It was like a breath of fresh air coming in here each week. It was hard on the team while I was on the course but it did the whole team a spot of good to have me back a bit refreshed. (UK)

The opportunity to come on a course provided a level of interaction and discourse, about styles and improving their own practice not otherwise available:

> Some of the discussions and topics forced me to more closely define my own style of social work and how I relate to others. (UK)

> An important part of the course was to challenge your own work, think about how you could do it better. (Cdn)

> Just to have built in space to think about practice teaching was as useful as the course content. (UK)

Coming on the course created a chance to meet others which was perceived to be beneficial to personal development but heterogeneity has its challenges:

> I quite enjoyed people coming from other agencies. One of the strengths is that not all the people come from the same place. At the same time it means we're not all starting at the same level so it takes some time to make that work but it's so much richer to be with different sorts. (UK)

> I particularly benefitted from meeting other professionals on the course, getting to know about their agencies and programmes. We were all so different in what we had, so what was new information to some was 'old hat' to others. (Cdn)

It seemed, however, that if busy professionals were going to take their time for professional development activities, of which practice teacher training was one such endeavour, then they wanted it to be worthwhile:

> A course like this is a rare opportunity for academic, intellectual and professional stimulation. I feel it should have been of much higher quality. I recall feeling bored, listless and angry that my time, which is very precious, was being squandered. (Cdn)

> This course slotted nicely into my overall development as a practice teacher but I doubt I would have found it so useful if I had not been a practice teacher before. (UK)

In a similar vein, not having a student precluded this participant from maximising the use of time on the course:

> It was a waste of my time really, not having a student. Everything had to be postponed and delayed. They should have just told me to wait. I have a student now and so that's alright, it just put me back a bit. (UK)

Or, not having a student was seen as a missed opportunity:

> I do think I missed out because I could have been trying this and that out. I'll have a student next term and I'm looking forward to putting this into practice but I think it would have been better for me, a better use of my time. (Cdn)

Practice Teacher As Educator

The role of practice teacher as educator emerged as a theme in the follow-up interviews when inquiring into what was different about practice teaching in relation to other tasks, functions or roles. Since being an educator is not the primary function for most social workers who provide practice placements for students, the ability to see oneself as an educator when working with a student, or to know when to 'put on the instructor's hat', was a valuable feature of the courses:

> I realised there is more to being a practice teacher than meets the eye. I could not contemplate practice teaching without having the benefit of a course. The big thing is the difference between a student doing work versus having a learning experience. (Cdn)

> I'm more aware of the educational nature of practice teaching, that it is more than supervising. (UK)

Participants tended to view the training as responsible for their ability to differentiate and discriminate the educator role in practice teaching. Participants were able to articulate that supervision of a student is not therapy or staff induction and that, as an educator, practice teachers require skills extra to front line supervision or direct service provision:

> Practice teaching is quite different from working with clients, it's a different approach and different skills. Its even different from supervising staff. Prior to this there was just a 3-day course and most people came away without a clue about these things. (UK)

> It underscored the importance of placements in overall education of social work. I really feel like I understand what it means to amalgamate social work with teaching so you don't do one when you mean to do the other, with a student that is. Before the course I know I would have tended to get quite 'social worky' because I had no other frame of reference. (Cdn)

These are important distinctions but they are not easy to make when being an adult educator is not the primary affiliation. Participants were able to articulate what some of these distinctions looked like in practice:

> There are things that I found were different and in some ways new to me . . . they are totally appropriate with a student but I wouldn't have had them in my normal repertoire since most of my clients are kids . . . things like sharing my practice framework and unfolding my practice so the student can really see where you are coming from. (Cdn)

For another participant the distinctions were related to facilitating reflection and giving feedback:

> . . . facilitating reflection, that is, getting my student to look back, as well as look in. You see I knew how to do that with my own practice but I just somehow knew to do that. What I realise now is that I need to help students learn to do this to.

This same participant went on to say:

> . . . another thing was giving feedback that is productive and constructive, not just all wonderful stuff but also not tearing someone right down. You've got to make the feedback meaningful and relevant to the person so you have to figure out with each one what that is. (UK)

Becoming *competent and confident with the teaching task,* which includes assessing and determining a final outcome, is critical to the performance and perception of practice teacher as educator but this aspect does not always fit well with social work:

> Evaluating learning and a student's progress in addition to assessing performance are quite different from assessing clients and gauging their progress. An issue for me was to come to terms with my understanding and using the authority in the role and the need to confront difficulties in learning. (Cdn)

At the same time, practice teachers who got the message that this inquiry-based, reflective style of practice teaching is the ONLY style that is appropriate for practice learning, felt conflicted when it did not mesh with agency practices, type of work or the student's approach to learning:

> I felt inadequate as a practice teacher because what I did with my student does not fit the model taught. I did not observe my student, have tapes or process recordings. My work does not lend itself nor do I have the time for that. (UK)

> For example, the inquiry-based learning . . . We had a bit on that and at the time it didn't make much sense cause my student wasn't at that level at all.

222

> I mean she was a totally dependent learner. So I felt there was something wrong with me and I kept on trying to draw it out of her, what she should do next.

Intrinsically, this same participant saw this student needing something different:

> But deep down I knew that this student needed to be told what to do and shown how to do it, plain and simple. Finally that is what I did, but I couldn't admit it to [my tutor] and you know what happened? It took a bit of time of me just feeding her the answers and taking her through step-by-step but she eventually got it and has done brilliantly since. (UK)

Others found that some topics were not addressed at the most opportune times:

> I found the timing of some topics at odds with my work with the student. For example, by the time we covered contracts, I'd already written the contract. (UK)

> What was the point of covering orientation two weeks after the students were already in the agency? (Cdn)

A course for practice teachers needs to find the right balance between providing a stimulating environment that motivates participation and facilitates learning without being overly taxing. Having too many expectations can overwhelm participants and undermine the very learning that the requirements were meant to promote:

> The course was far too riddled and rigid with requirements without any attention to the very real problem of how we should be prepared to help students learn to be social workers. New practice teachers need to feel confident in their ability to develop methods and skills in dealing with the obstacles and blockages that stop students learning, and this wasn't even touched upon. All the rest we can read up on. (UK)

> It's taken me nearly a year [the portfolio]. We were given the impression that it was so many hours of work and that it was something we could cope with. To be honest it just railroaded out of control the amount of work that was required of us. Taking into account our own jobs you can understand why so few of us completed the portfolio stage. It's just about beyond what is manageable. (UK)

The amount of work involved was much more of an issue in the UK than in Canada but they too were concerned about the course being too onerous. Although one Canadian thought there would be value in some type of assignment that might pull it together, reservations were also expressed:

> If they [referring to both the instructor and the programme] had expected something from us, some way that they could actually give us some useful feedback on our supervising, it might have helped to gel all the topics. I

> know I used what I got from the course but I don't really know if what I'm
> doing is closer to what they think I should be doing.

This participant went on to say:

> having said all that I don't know if I would have taken the course knowing
> that I had some type of assignment to do. I think that just may have been
> enough for me to say 'Why bother, what do I need this for'. Now if they put
> more value on the course, if say we got some kind of credit or if they said
> you had to have this course to be a field instructor, then the extra effort
> might be worth it. (Cdn)

The Transfer of Learning

The transfer of learning was addressed through discussion of the impact that the training and
concurrent or subsequent practice teaching had on other areas of functioning. There was
general consensus that participants transferred their learning on the practice teachers' course
to the development of management and supervision skills:

> Some of the information I learned on the course in terms of practice
> teacher/student relationship is parallel in the social worker/client as well as
> the supervisor/worker relationship and process. (Cdn)

> Knowing how to access information and resources for practice teaching is
> helpful to me, it spills over to my job as a supervisor. (UK)

The training helped them to become clear about boundaries and expectations, and expressing
feelings and opinions in a clear, facilitative, constructive way:

> The ability to approach tasks in a more organised and structured fashion is
> applicable to other things I do. I've been able to add to my skills and
> enhance my role as facilitator and enabler but I'm also clearer about
> boundaries. (Cdn)

> I found that my supervision was very wooly. I wasn't clear about why I was
> having supervision and what was the purpose and things like that. That's
> quite different now. (UK)

There were impacts noted on participants' own practice by becoming more aware and attuned
to their own practice strengths and areas for work. The attention given to helping students
become more self-reflective seemed to increase their own ability for reflective analysis of self
and skills:

224

> I think prior to the course my method of supervision was to talk about it, talk about the work, draw out from students and staff, to facilitate what they were doing. Using the videotape was quite interesting because I now make sure I observe the actual practice. That goes for myself as well. You only get one side of the picture from a report of the events and that is all you have to rely on if you don't see the events themselves. (UK)

> Having a better understanding of my own style of teaching and of practice has made me a much better practice teacher. I had one student that failed last year. I've been able to reflect on that and made some linkages for myself. (UK)

There was evidence that the training improved participants' ability as team members:

> We talked on the team a lot about the stuff from the course on ADP and the need to be aware of racist and sexist attitudes. We had a student challenge the principle officer about making sexist remarks and he took it really well. The course has made more of an issue of ADP for our team. (UK)

> It has sharpened my skills as a group leader and caseworker. The key word is being 'prepared,' and I feel I am prepared for the worst if it should happen with a student or someone on the team. (Cdn)

Emerging from this analysis is the observation that if transfer is to be realised for other aspects of agency work and practice then there needs to be ongoing support and consultation which focuses on practice development and the 'real' meaning of social work:

> The idea that you have all this time for practice teaching doesn't really work in the authority. The first priority is getting the job done, then you are a practice teacher and that's just the way it is. Until that changes I don't know if the full value of the course gets realised. They send us on the course but they don't get their monies worth because we're so bogged down with audit control and the like . . . we need support, support to do our jobs, including with students, in the ways we are thinking about it on the course. (UK)

Some aspects of the course may not have been directly applicable in their settings but enabled them to reflect and think in different ways:

> Being critically reflective? That would be a luxury around here, if they would even allow it. But I'll tell you I had forgotten about that as even being a part of being a social worker. A course like this revitalises the profession and reminds us that we are not mechanics just tinkering or fixing things up but that we can try to understand why it doesn't work and make a real difference in the lives of our clients. (UK)

Time Involved in Training

Despite the significant differences in the amount of time involved in the training in the United

Kingdom and Canada, all participants seemed to believe the training took too much time.

The time-consuming nature of practice teacher training programmes was reflected in the

personal costs of being over-extended with work, student and course. There seemed to be

some uncertainty whether or not the benefits and rewards were commensurate with the

investment of time and effort:

> The course has actually taken away my initial enthusiasm and motivation to become
> a practice teacher. The commitment of time and energy that is expected of a practice
> teacher far exceeds what I am able to give and still perform my job. Why is it all
> up to the practice teacher? (UK)

> The time constraints made it difficult to complete the assignment which didn't
> add anything to my learning. It was just a hurdle to jump through to
> complete the course. (Cdn)

Time was a factor contributing to the participants' stress. In the United Kingdom, this meant

the time involved in being supervised, assessed and submitting a portfolio, although there

were both negative and positive views of this. There is a sense that the requirements in

United Kingdom are excessive for written evidence. The amount of time and effort it took

exacted a cost from the individual and the agency in terms of resources needed for preparing

and producing documentation. Several participants mentioned requesting extensions and noted

that allowances were made while they were on course but not for the time needed to complete

the portfolio/accreditation work:

> I had to get an extension because things at work have been crazy. I've got
> a new post and there have been all sorts of changes for me. The portfolio
> doesn't figure into any of that just now. (UK)

> My line manager was good about me being on the course but he doesn't
> understand why I still need time from work to do the portfolio. It's been a
> bit of a struggle. (UK)

A more positive view of the portfolio was presented that underscores the value inherent in the

exercise and makes the amount of time a secondary concern; however, this was not a typical

view:

> As I've been doing the portfolio and working on the content I realise all I've
> learned about learning contracts and supervision. I've taken on board stuff
> about adult learning. Seeing the assessment of prior learning put into an
> academic setting concreted my ideas of taking account of people's previous

> experiences. The portfolio has really given me a chance to really examine
> many things from the course and with my student. (UK)

The time that participants spent in the classroom was the subject of some criticism. In some instances it had not been used efficiently:

> They need to tighten up on the use of valuable time. They could cover more
> topics or give us more in-depth coverage. Starting times and breaks were too
> elastic. (UK)

In other instances time was not used effectively:

> I feel the course could have been more condensed and still covered the
> important material with lots of opportunity for discussion. I think they
> dragged it out unnecessarily. (Cdn)

Workload reductions for taking a student and the course, when they were made, were never seen as enough to compensate for the time on the course. In this regard, support from the organisation and immediate supervisor appears to be critical to making the commitment feel worthwhile. Additionally, there was a sense that the college did not appreciate or understand the demands:

> I feel that the college is unrealistic in its demands upon fieldwork staff and
> is not fully aware of current pressures in the field. I simply couldn't attend
> all of the sessions due to other work commitments. (UK)

> Practitioners are in a very stressful pressurised job and these course planners
> have to realise that sometimes that has to come before what the college
> wants. The nature of our work has to be taken on board by the college.
> (UK)

For one participant there was a sense of being disappointed by the college, that there was no return for her investment:

> I left the course feeling 'this is great', it's a real partnership—but that's not
> the reality. I feel quite let down by them [the college]. The course
> empowered me to pursue the partnership and I invested a lot of time. But
> they weren't as invested in the students' academic and professional growth
> as they said they were. (UK)

Complexity of Adult Learning and Teaching

Participants developed a perspective on 'adult learning' and, in particular, continuing professional education, of which practice teacher training is an example, and viewed it as

complex and multifaceted. Adult learning and teaching strategies tended to be presented on the course as a uniform set of principles with straight forward practices, when in reality it is not. There was some dissatisfaction with a narrow interpretation of what facilitates and triggers adult learning:

> I found the course very unstructured for me. I need to be disciplined, I need the structure. You floated from one topic to another. There was no real introduction, no real ending. That's how it felt for me. You just came in, listened, went away. It meant nothing to me. You could do as much as you wanted, do the assignments or you don't have to. You get mixed messages. I found that very difficult. I can't work very well in that environment. (UK)

The above concern about the lack of structure, and the difficulties in learning that it posed, were quite different from this participant's reflection of what it was like to become a 'student' again:

> In some ways I felt like I wasn't supposed to know the material, that it was supposed to be new. But a lot of it is just common sense or a part of your practice anyway. There is something about coming into the classroom that makes you think you don't know things. So I know [the instructor] didn't mean to but in some ways I was invalidated. (Cdn)

The data indicates that participants found certain practices peculiar, such as a lecture about the disadvantages of lectures as compared with other teaching methods, but they were also willing to admit that even a lecture might be appropriate under the right conditions:

> It's not appropriate to 'lecture' about adult learning, it needs to be modelled in the classroom. On the other hand, there is certain information that is best conveyed in a straightforward direct way. It made me crazy sometimes because it would have been so much simpler and a better use of our time if they had just come out and said it rather than waiting until we came up with it. (Cdn)

> They tell us that adults don't learn best in the old way of giving information and then regurgitating it in exams. There's quite a bit of that, being told this. Then they put up an overhead and just lectured to us. I started to laugh, I thought it was a joke. (UK)

Participants concluded that choice of teaching strategy depended on what was to be learned, under what conditions, in what context, under what timeframe, under whose auspices, and for what reasons. Given those parameters, they appreciated that even then different approaches will be more or less appropriate for different individuals or for the same individuals under different circumstances or at different times:

> I do not believe that adult learning techniques preclude offering theoretical material that can lead to exploration and debate, not everything comes from self-discovery or inquiry-based learning. (UK)

> It [teaching method] really depends on what you are meant to get out of it.
> If you are meant to act on it, well that is different than if you are supposed
> to understand it in a more advanced way. (Cdn)

Others found that the opportunity to share with each other was critical to their learning. This point has been reiterated consistently in all three phases of the case study and in both countries. The sharing through small group work or classroom discourse needs to be orchestrated and it has to be facilitated but it undoubtedly is an effective and highly regarded way to learn:

> I learned the most from personal stories and discussions about peoples's past
> experience, both successful and not. But it was easy to get side-tracked only
> that was fun too. (Cdn)

> Sharing with others is a good way to learn, but there is more to it than that.
> The sharing needs to be guided and purposeful, the experiences need to be
> linked to each other and to the concepts they represent. This is the way that
> knowledge emerges and gets built and it is far more than saying what you did
> and how you feel about it. (UK)

LEARNING COMES IN MANY FORMS

From the analysis of these cases of practice teacher training, there is evidence to suggest that practice teachers learn in a variety of ways. Some of these ways are easily incorporated into a course for practice teachers and others require more effort and planning. Having a student while on the course is one of these. Every practice teacher who did not have a student while on the course noted that this was a disadvantage in both the surveys and the follow-up interviews. Not one participant who had a student wished it otherwise. Facilitating this may be more or less difficult for course organisers but it is an important finding for future consideration.

Another example was the use made of recommended readings. There was little evidence that practice teachers learn from scholarly journals or research reports although carefully chosen articles, handed out as suggested readings would be read, particularly if practice teachers were given the opportunity to discuss and critique the contents.

The courses most likely to impact learning were those which started from where practice teachers were at in their understanding of themselves as learners, as social workers and as

practice teachers. This acknowledgement of participants' histories and work contexts recognises and values their starting place, counteracting the de-skilling effect noted in the process of becoming a learner.

Practice teachers appeared to be influenced by example and experience particularly when this was coupled with guided reflection by peers and instructor. However, exposing one's work to others, especially when it was in an early developmental stage, is risky. This explains why brief episodic types of training are less likely to be effective. It takes time to develop the trust necessary to take risks, to challenge others and be challenged. Support was essential to learning new or replacing old practices.

On the basis of what we know about adult learning and from the findings of the case studies, there is a need for relationships in which individuals are able to confide and disclose without the fear or threat of recrimination. What is required is that small groups of practice teachers-in-training, who trust each other, work together on an extended basis and provide each other with accurate, critical (not necessarily negative), thoughtful feedback on their actual performance and progress with a student over time. The TPG in the British case study was an example of one such opportunity. There was no evidence of this opportunity in Canada as neither course met over a long enough period of time to promote its development. The Canadian findings did support the value of group interaction. It would be recommended that colleagueship amongst practice teachers be facilitated, promoted and designed into training programmes.

Both groups of practice teachers benefitted from those activities that combined action and reflection. There was some evidence that practice teachers learned their craft from one another. Like Joyce and Showers (1980) who analysed 200 research studies of staff development as it applies to teachers, I identified five ingredients that together constitute effective teaching/learning conditions: presentation of theory or description of skill; modelling or demonstration of behaviours; practice in simulated and real settings; structured and open-ended feedback; and coaching for application and transfer. These elements all contribute and appeal to the preferences and approaches of a wide range of adult learners. The study of these cases of training programmes suggested that presenting theoretical material and describing skills (i.e., some type of didactic or lecturing method) does contribute to learning if it is accompanied by a demonstration (i.e., showing what it looks like in practice).

If practice teachers can then practice this in the classroom (i.e., role play) and in their actual work with a student (i.e., conscious use of a particular skill or technique), then the learning becomes activated by doing. This needs to be followed by reflection and observation (i.e., the practice is viewed, reviewed or played back for self and others) where feedback is provided. Practice teachers can be guided or coached in their use of specific strategies so the learning can be transferred back to the workplace. But all this takes time.

The amount of time the training occupied was a recurring theme through all three phases of the case study. We know from the literature that taking the time, making the time and having the time for practice teaching are issues of concern in both countries. This study has found this to be the case for being on a practice teacher training course as well. Concern about time was voiced from both countries regardless of the type of course or cohort; even the participants of the training with the least hours and fewest expectations commented about the time factor. Clearly course and field directors and agency managers are going to have to address this issue and make sure the time on the course is worthwhile and the commitment is recognised as well as supported.

This requires that the academy and the organisation work together. A coordinated model is in place in the UK and although, as noted in the literature, it is fraught with implementation and operationalisation difficulties, the mandate of partnership exists. However, this is occurring in the UK at a time when the collective self-image of social work as a time-honoured profession is at an all-time low. The diminished status of social workers and the lack of recognition of practice teaching within the organisation has had an impact on self-esteem in the workplace. Social workers need to believe that efforts to learn and improve their competence as practice teachers are valued and rewarded. As much as participants were concerned about the investment of time, there were indications that training in and of itself was a valuable undertaking. Inherent in the training enterprise was an opportunity to be revitalised and get back in touch with the reasons for choosing social work in the first place. As one participant eloquently put it:

> This course was like a beacon of light. It reminded me that social work is a
> very human profession and that is just what our society needs more of right
> now. There is so much happening that is *not* what we stand for . . . Training
> for practice teachers is a form of rear guard action and it will revitalise the
> profession . . . I'm really very proud to be in this profession and I can thank
> the course for reminding me of that.

231

We turn now to the concluding chapter to pursue an understanding of the findings of this research and its implications.

CHAPTER EIGHT

IN PURSUIT OF UNDERSTANDING

This study began as a search for quality and competence in practice teaching through the examination of practice teacher training in two countries: the United Kingdom and Canada. It has considered the perspectives of course directors of CCETSW-approved practice teacher courses and field directors of CASSW-accredited schools of social work and practice teachers / field instructors in each country who have shared their views of training as their experience of it unfolded. These distinct perspectives make this research a unique and valuable contribution to the understanding and knowledge base of practice teaching and practice teacher training.

The literature review indicated that there is very little exchange of information in the area of practice teaching between the United Kingdom and North America and it revealed no comparative studies of this nature. Course and field directors' opinions have been sought on a number of issues related to social work education in general and practice teaching in particular that specifically address training requirements, content, process or format issues. There are few reports of practice teachers' perceptions of their training, either in terms of assessing what they need, or evaluating what they received. This research has attempted to inquire into these largely ignored areas in a comparative way between Canada and Britain, which prior to this study had not been undertaken.

The research took place during a time of transition in the United Kingdom creating an opportune time to compare perspectives. The recent policy changes in the UK have placed increased expectations on the role and commitment of practice teachers. By credentialling practice teachers through a nationally recognised award following CCETSW-approved training, it is expected that practice teachers will become less marginalised and more qualified. The desired outcomes of this training are practice teachers who are more capable and competent; agencies who see practice learning as important and valued resulting in less turnover of practice teachers; an improvement in the quality and quantity of placements;

233

enhanced partnerships between educational institutions and social work organisations; and a better educated and trained work force.

The findings describe the current state of training for practice teachers in each country. They present a full picture of what training programmes look like and what they contain, who participates in training, and what is expected of the participants as a result of training. Cases of training programmes in each country were studied to obtain the view of practice teachers who were engaged in a training process. A description of the training experience at its beginning set the scene for analysing and understanding participants' perceptions and opinions, thoughts and feelings at the end of the course and half a year later. Both descriptions, the national scene and the case studies, were a precursor to uncovering the broader principles and the theories-in-use (Argyris & Schön, 1974), informing the practice of preparing practice teachers. The describing and theorising led me to question and confront critical issues and assumptions located in the historical, social, political and cultural contexts in which social work practice and social work education are embedded. In the final analysis an attempt was made to reconstruct training for practice teaching by shifting paradigms and reasserting the importance of collaborative learning, the essence of which is forthcoming in this chapter. Thus, in search of quality and competence we pursue an understanding of what has come before.

Practice Teaching: A Pedagogy of Its Own?

It is argued that practice teaching has a distinct and distinguishable body of knowledge and skills which has been generated through research, built from experience, and drawn from related disciplines. It can be articulated, transmitted, and made accessible to practice teachers and field instructors through carefully designed and delivered courses.

Shifting Paradigms: From Training to Learning

Preparing practice teachers for their role in the professional education of social workers requires a paradigm shift from a training to a learning emphasis in the search of quality and competence. The training paradigm focuses on the acquisition of skills and techniques that lead to desired outcomes which will ultimately be demonstrated in practice. The learning paradigm focuses on the practice teacher accumulating a deeper understanding through critical thinking and reflection to enhance the quality of what occurs in the context of the practice

234

placement. Skills and techniques are a means to that end but the behaviours in and of themselves do not represent the gestalt of high quality, competent practice teaching.

The learning paradigm instills the confidence to peel back the layers of practice and improve performance in light of this reflective and analytic process. It enables practice teachers to adjust to the demands of a rapidly and radically changing environment and equips them to deal with new, unspecified challenges. It is therefore incumbent on such preparation programmes that they be designed to encourage practice teachers to become continuous learners, to extract meaning from their experiences, and to disseminate the learning in collaborative contexts. Requiring practice teachers to simply engage in the experience of practice teaching is not enough for quality practice learning to be realised. To transform *doing,* that is, the acts or skills of practice teaching, into *learning*, that is, the understanding and critique of the accumulated experiences, requires a process of dialogue and reflection. This is the paradigm that quality training for competent practice teachers encompasses.

Staff Roles: A Complex Affair

The role of the trainer of practice teachers needs careful consideration. Individual approaches to learning, affected by a whole range of human diversity variables, must be honoured and respected while maintaining the integrity of expectations and course objectives. The instructor must be a knowledge provider, a demonstrator, a model and a critic but, of equal importance, the instructor must also be a learning partner, learning facilitator and a critical inquirer of her/his own practice.

At one level, those learning to be practice teachers need to acquire specific information and skills by observing or listening to 'expert' teachers of practice teachers who can model the expected role behaviours. The 'neophyte' learner can begin by imitating or approximating the teacher. However, practice teachers-to-be come to training with a repertoire of experience and preconceived ideas about practice teaching. Therefore, at another level they need to begin by articulating and drawing upon what they know which is often embedded in their actions, by exposing to the scrutiny of co-learners and instructors their underlying assumptions about practice teaching (Brookfield, 1986). The instructor then must help them process this material so that practice teachers can decide what of this is accumulated wisdom, bad habits, misinformation, or valid theories-in use (Argyris & Schön, 1974), which can be discarded or expanded and applied in new or different ways.

Prior Experience: Valid Knowing or Habitual Doing?

The role of experience and prior learning can be a resource if channelled and scrutinised for its relevance, appropriateness and applicability. It can be a hindrance if it is taken as a given and not subjected to a reflective process of its own. In that regard the past becomes the present and serves to entrench fixed ways of thinking and doing or reinforces practices that are not progressive or evolving. It can close the mind to new ideas rather than open it to different possibilities. Prior experience and knowledge is the place to begin but it must be seen as a departure point for new learning and making changes in thinking and practice.

From Social Worker to Educator: A Shift of a Different Sort

When social work practitioners become practice teachers they must adopt a different perceptual stance from that which may have served them well with clients or consumers of their services. One such shift involves the assessment of a student's progress and performance which is based on acquisition and achievement, not on needs. This must be done despite the anxiety that grading may generate or its dissonance with egalitarian principles. Unlike the social worker concerned with client need, the practice teacher must look beyond the felt needs of students to what the students must know and be able to do with and for clients (Wood & Middleman, 1991).

Learning to assess the competence of students could be paralleled with an assessment procedure and process built into a programme for practice teachers so that their growth, change and learning can also be evaluated over time. Neither are typical or traditional methods for assessing readiness for a given role (objective tests, standardised instruments, micro-skills checklists) designed to assess the adaptation of practice teachers with unique characteristics and capabilities to particular environments, nor do they consider the accommodation of particular environments to the unique qualities of individual practice teachers (Jackson & Cafferella, 1994). Appraisal schemes that treat practice teachers as technicians presume that teaching and learning are processes that can be broken down into discrete and unconnected skills. The nature of social work and of practice teaching involves a reliance on discretionary interpretation, decision making based on insufficient or incomplete information, and working conditions that are often uncertain and unpredictable.

Portfolio assessment establishes a direction whereby a practice teacher's performance can be measured in relation to the context in which it is occurring. Reports that attest to the practice

teacher's abilities at the placement, videos of the practice teacher in-action with a student demonstrating specific behaviours, and reflective chronologies of the practice teacher's development and understanding, all serve to provide documentary evidence of an individual practice teacher's ability through a portfolio. In considering how well a practice teacher performs it is also necessary to consider how well the system is designed to permit the achievement of intended outcomes (Smyth, 1991).

Colleagueship and Cooperation

The importance of group dynamics in educating practice teachers cannot be underestimated. Collaboration among the participants and with the instructor(s) provides a range of responses to situations and challenges, from which practice teachers can draw. The sharing of information and of struggles and successes promotes the ability to perceive and reflect on the changes they are experiencing. Active involvement in the learning process means that practice teachers not only grasp the content and try out new ways but also that they think about *how* they are thinking about what they are doing in new and different ways. The group itself serves to affirm the need for practice teachers to be connected and supportive of each other's learning. Being connected and supportive sustains the dialogic process for helping each other get behind the habitual and taken-for-granted ways of being and doing (Smyth, 1991), for exposing their reflections on their own and others' practices.

Impediments to Progress

Concerns have been identified that must be addressed if the search for quality and competence is to progress. One of these issues revolves around a too narrow view of competence and a preoccupation with outcomes. Another is related to deeply held beliefs and assumptions influencing decisions about the provision and content of training.

The Trouble with Outcomes: Whose Best Practice is It Anyway?

Competence and outcomes are two terms that have become inextricably bound with social work education in general and practice learning in particular. There is no objection to the application of these terms in principle but using them as the sole criteria for the design and evaluation of social work programmes, begs the question, 'Whose competences'? What counts as good practice in social work is at best debatable and at worst indecipherable. Whose voice is it that determines the criterion of best practice?

237

Is it the academics and researchers who ponder, pontificate and try to prove what constitutes best practice? Is it the practitioners and managers whose day-to-day practices are driven by factors of cost-effectiveness, efficiency and accountability which may or may not be related to 'best' practice? Should the service users or the general public have a voice in such matters? Could the profession (given there is an autonomous body representative of the entity) agree on a list of competences? Or should the politicians decide? To complicate matters further, today's competences are not necessarily tomorrow's.

To orient curricula around competences, in the narrow sense of the term, means reducing best practice to a set of practical skills replete with behavioural indicators which is to reduce it to technical training. In arguing this very point in a different context Grundy (1987) suggests what we need is less competence and more critical reflection. In that regard, professional education for social workers would equip them to form a view of their profession and its changing relationship with society, and society's evolving demands on and expectations of the profession. This requires contemplation about the competences themselves, to critique them, to embrace, discard or change them, to find new best practices and deepened understandings which, in turn, can be submitted to the rigours of critical thought. This type of professionalism, following Schön (1983, 1987), can be said to embody valid 'knowledge-in-use' derived from 'reflection-on-action' used to build 'theories-in-use' for 'reflection-in-action' that is grounded in a congruent set of personal and professional values. A genuine higher education for the professions, according to Barnett (1994, p.89) "will not be content with reflecting the professionally defined competences but will insert alternative modes of reasoning, action and reflection into the curriculum." This is not what CCETSW's competences are made of and nor is this evident in CASSW's educational policy statements or accreditation standards.

Questioning the Unquestionable

The assumptions and criteria governing what are considered to be appropriate curricula, methods, assessment procedures and research activities are reflective to some extent of the prevailing attitudes towards social work and the status accorded social work as a valued professional practice in the two countries under study. In the United Kingdom, practice teacher training is much more likely to be seen as a necessary extension of social work education itself particularly in light of CCETSW's policies regarding the DipSW. In Canada, however, it is seen as extra to the delivery of a social work course, albeit a useful contribution to the quality of a programme if the resources can be found.

Key Concerns and Critical Issues: The UK

In the United Kingdom the recent move towards a national curriculum has meant that the prevailing values, attitudes and ideologies of the culture represented by CCETSW are reproduced in approved practice teacher courses. Any course advocating curricular alterations which challenge the assumptions of CCETSW's culture becomes politically contentious and professionally dangerous. CCETSW itself must come to terms with its relationship to the even more dominant culture of the 'new right' and will likely find itself embroiled in conflict as the ideologies they are promulgating are found to clash with the prevailing political majority point of view. (See, for example, the shift in emphasis on anti-discriminatory practice learning in the most recent proposed revisions to Paper 30, Doherty, Pierce, & Smith, 1994).

As much as programme provider groups are seen as the answer to bridging the gap between academe and practice in social work, when it comes to practice teaching, the domain of practice (defined all too often as employer-driven job descriptions) dominates. The place for critical inquiry, debating competing paradigms, and considering contrasting philosophical orientations may be seen as legitimate in college, if there is time for thinking *and* meeting the competency-based requirements, but it appears to have no place in practice learning. The only competency that is provocative of the status quo in the work place is the requirement that students demonstrate ant-racist and anti-discriminatory practice and this may soon be changing (Doherty, Pierce, & Smith, 1994). We have seen elsewhere that this national requirement poses considerable difficulty in its interpretation and application (Walker et al., 1995).

Critical Concerns and Key Issues: Canada

In Canada there is a predominantly North American preoccupation with the ethos of 'rugged individualism' which is played out in practice teacher training and social work education through the popularity of concepts related to andragogy (Knowles, 1980) and self-directed learning (Brookfield, 1986). The application of principles that adults can and should be encouraged to design, conduct and evaluate their own learning in an independent manner as free from institutional control as possible means that any attempt to legislate or mandate a specific curriculum would be soundly rejected. It is also a mechanism by which programmes can argue against putting resources into practice teacher training.

If the resources cannot be located to provide practice teacher training the Canadian response is to simply rely on the belief in adult learning and self-directed principles that would suggest that willing practice teachers will find their own way to equip themselves to be competent practice teachers. There is also an underlying assumption that 'training would be nice but after all experienced social workers know what to do with students and if they don't then they will develop themselves as any self-directing, life-long learning professional would do.'

When training is provided in Canada it is primarily under the guise of providing 'salient' information about the programme, its objectives and curriculum. Any training over and above that is seen as a perk to practice teachers designed to motivate them, entice them and thank them. A service-oriented rationale drives the criteria by which this training is determined. According to this rationale the responsibility for determining content and curricular direction rests largely with the practice teachers who come to training as it is for their enrichment and enjoyment. The role of the teacher of practice teachers becomes that of facilitating the acquisition of those skills or that knowledge which the learners themselves have specified. One implication arising out of the adoption of this learner-led, service-orientated rationale is that educational activities in which practice teachers-to-be are challenged, in which their existing assumptions are called into question, and in which they are forced to confront aspects of their values and actions they would prefer not to examine, are likely to be avoided. In seeking to offer training which leaves participants feeling satisfied and pleased with the outcomes, the danger is that practice teachers will never be provoked or confronted for fear of displeasing them. This may cause them to change their minds about providing the essential service of taking students, which was the raison d'être of the training in the first place. Training practice teachers under these conditions looks more like trying to slip in methods and techniques of good practice teaching without demanding an undue amount of work while, at the same time, flattering egos and fostering a commitment to the social work course.

Educative and Empowering Forms of Action

The research points to cardinal areas where changes could be made and practices could be adopted or adjusted in each country effecting quality and competence in practice teaching.

On the British Side

In the United Kingdom, the ideal of the 'partnership' promoted by programme provider groups must be realised through to the level of practice teachers themselves. At the same time, educational institutions must not simply turn over the practice learning component to Social Service Departments. What is at risk in doing so is marginalising and diminishing academic influence over the practice curriculum, rendering it increasingly employer-led and industry-driven. In the short run this may please the employers and the politicians but in the long run it further deprofessionalises social work and denigrates its value and contribution to the social fabric and social order of our society. A clear commitment to social work as a profession fully supported by substantial and substantive educational programmes with demarcated levels of attainment is a way forward in the United Kindom.

Motivating individual social workers through the award to become and remain practice teachers is simply not enough. The research on practice teacher turnover suggests that work has to be done at an agency level to promote commitment to the value of practice teaching by supporting practice teachers in terms of workload reduction, release time to participate in training or meetings sponsored by schools, and to acknowledge the value of practice teaching within the organisation (Walker et al., 1995). This may be expecting a lot from our social work community especially in light of the current economic, social and political realities.

On the Canadian Side

Canadian schools would benefit with assistance in developing and implementing models of training practice teachers rather than each school, as it is ready and able to do more in the way of practice teacher training, fending for itself. CASSW could be a central clearinghouse in connecting field directors interested in increasing or changing the type of training with recommended materials and the expertise of others who have already instituted training programmes.

The British model of a nationally recognised credential for practice teachers that is awarded after completing a nationally accredited training programme is probably too far along the 'centralised control over schools' continuum for most Canadian schools of social work. However, CASSW could help field directors give voice to their concerns regarding the training of practice teachers by creating a set of expectations governed by accreditation policies similar to other aspects of the curriculum. For example, it may be impossible for

241

some schools to meet a standard that requires practice teachers to have an MSW and a minimum of two years work experience but it may not be difficult to expect schools to provide a minimum amount of training for whomever they select as practice teachers. It may also be useful for CASSW to expect a minimum curriculum to be delivered in training practice teachers that includes content beyond providing information about a schools' objectives and curriculum. This would include content that covers the knowledge and skills of practice learning and teaching, multicultural issues, and other content areas such as supervision and assessment methods to help practice teachers prepare students for the social work profession.

Valuing the Process: Competence of a Different Order

A preoccupation with outcomes and behaviourally defined competences renders the learning process, as a valued entity unto iteself, relatively unimportant. For example, the NVQ approach has adopted the belief that *how* competences are acquired is irrelevant as long as the achievement of same can be assessed. Yet, it is the *process*, the journey taken to find meaning and understanding in the practice of social work that transforms an eager student into an enabled practitioner. This new breed of practitioner is empowered to make an informed and personal commitment to the values and ethics of the profession. This is competence personified. Practice learning that is directed, guided and facilitated by a practice teacher who has insight and wisdom as well as knowledge and skills is an integral player in this transformation process. This is quality epitomised.

Ultimately, everyone loses when the quality of practice teaching is poor. Employers become frustrated by the lack they see in graduates; consumers of social work services suffer from poor practice delivered by students and hasty practice delivered by overburdened practice teachers; whether or not students are exposed to certain opportunities is often left to chance as students experience a huge variance and lack of consistency in the quality of learning; and courses suffer a loss of reputation and poor relations with the practice community. A clear set of expectations and a reasonable and achievable pathway towards meeting the expectations will help all those involved.

A Way Forward

Both from the point of view of course and field directors and from practice teachers there is a clear consensus that practice teachers require specific training. This research has

endeavoured to search for elements of quality and competence in practice teaching that can inform the preparation of practice teachers and thereby contribute to improvements in the practice of practice teaching. Future research should address the actual impact of training practice teachers on student progress and performance and to examine if different types of training produce different results in the way students learn to be social workers.

It is hoped that practice teacher training will have an impact on the attitudes and outlook of practitioners who undertake this role and in turn socialise their students, the next generation, into the profession in a manner that epitomises professional education rather than technical training. Education for practice teachers is a form of individual professional development, if discerned as such by the individuals who partake in it. If sanctioned and valued by the organisation, it can take its rightful place as staff development. And, it is a form of technical development if it is mandated by the social work course but not regarded as much in the way of professional or staff development by either the individual or the organisation. The ideal form is a combination of all three perspectives where educating practice teachers is a priority and is prised by the individual, the organisation, the educational institution and the profession.

The Practice Teacher: An Image Reconstructed

Each of these stakeholders must have a vested interest in the pursuit of the ideal form before it can be realised. To some extent this is determined by the image of the practice teacher held by each stakeholder. There seem to be three current images that predominate. The traditional image is one where the practice teacher is viewed as belonging to one domain, typically the organisation, and for personal interest reasons may be peripherally connected to the other two, education and profession, as long as this does not interfere with the primary domain. The second image recognises there are competing interests and views the practice teacher as being in a precarious position pivoting on a point where work, course, occupation and home intersects, consequently pulling the individual in many directions. A third more collaborative image views the practice teacher as being at the heartland, a vital and solid place, balanced at the nexus of practice, education, profession and personhood. It is the pursuit of this collaborative image, the image of choice, that will lead us to the confluence of quality and competence.

REFERENCE LIST

AASW. (1929). *Social casework, general and specific: A report of the Milford Conference.* New York: American Association of Social Workers. (Reprinted by NASW in 1974.)

Abramson, J., & Fortune, A. (1990). Improving field instruction: An evaluation of a seminar for new field instructors. *Journal of Social Work Education, 26*(3), 273-286.

Ackhurst, C. (1978). Assessment of performance in professional practice in social work courses. *Assessment in Higher Education, 4*(1), 46-59.

Addison, C., Rosen, G., & Welchman, R. (1990). *Evaluation of the practice teaching project. First evaluation report.* London: Practice Research and Development Section, Welbeck House, Wandsworth Social Services.

Ahmed, S., Hallett, C., Statham, D., & Watt, S. (1988). A code of practice. *Social Work Education, 7*(2), 7-8.

Akin, G., & Weil, M. (1981). The prior question: How do supervisors learn to supervise? *Social Casework, 62*(8), 472-479.

Alaszewski, A., & Manthorpe, J. (1990). Literature review: The new right. *British Journal of Social Work, 20*(3), 237-251.

Anders, J. (1975). Internationalism in social work education. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 11*(1), 16-21.

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. (1974). *Theory in practice: Increasing professional effectiveness.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Arkava, M., & Brennen, E. (Eds.) (1976). *Competency-based education for social work: Evaluation and curriculum issues.* New York: Council on Social Work Education.

Austin, D. (1979). Basic principles of supervision. In C. Munson (Ed.), *Social work supervision: Classic statements and critical issues* (pp. 56-69). New York: The Free Press.

Austin, D. (1983). The Flexner myth and the history of social work. *Social Service Review, 57*(3), 357-377.

Bailey, R., & Brake, M. (Eds.). (1975). *Radical social work.* London: Edward Arnold.

Baird, P. (1990). The proof of the pudding: A study of client views of student practice competence. *Issues in Social Work Education, 10*(1&2), 24-50.

Baldwin, M. (1992). Induction programmes for students on placement. *The Journal of Training and Development, 2*(4), 7-13.

Baldwin, M., & Burgess, H. (1992). Enquiry and action learning in practice placements. *Social Work Education, 11*(2), 36-44.

Balen, R., Brown, K., & Taylor, C. (1993). 'It seems so much is expected of us': Practice teachers, the diploma in social work and anti-discriminatory practice. *Social Work Education, 12*(3), 17-40.

Barbour, R. (1984). Social work education: Tackling the theory-practice dilemma. *British Journal of Social Work, 14*(6), 557-577.

Barclay, P. (1982). *Social workers: Their role and tasks.* NISW: Bedford Square Press.

Barker, R. (1987). *The social work dictionary.* Silver Springs, MD: NASW.

Barnat, M. (1973). Student reactions to the first supervisory year: Relationship and resolutions. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 9*(3), 3-8.

Barnett, R. (1994). *The limits of competence: Knowledge, higher education and society.* Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Barr, H. (1990). *In Europe: Social work education and 1992.* London: CCETSW.

Bartlett, H. (1970). *The common base of social work practice.* Washington: National Association of Social Workers.

Baskett, M., & Marsick, V. (1992). Confronting new understandings about professional learning and change. In M. Baskett & V. Marsick (Eds.), *Professionals' ways of knowing: New findings on how to improve professional education* (pp. 7-16). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Basso, R. (1987). Teacher and student problem-solving activities in educational supervisory sessions. *Journal of Social Work Eduction, 23*(3), 67-73.

Bastien, P., & Blyth, E. (1989). *Joint appointments in social work education* (Paper 27.2). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Becker, H. (1968). Social observation and social case studies. *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences* (Vol. 11). New York: Crowell.

Bell, L., & Webb. S. (1992). The invisible art of teaching for practice: Social workers' perceptions of taking students on placement. *Social Work Education, 11*(1), 28-46.

Bellamy, D., & Irving, A. (1986). Pioneers. In F. Turner, & J. Turner, (Eds.), *Canadian social welfare* (2nd ed., pp. 29-49). Toronto: Collier Macmillan Canada.

Berengarten, S. (1957). Identifying learning patterns of individual students: An exploratory study. *Social Service Review, 31*, 407-417.

Berengarten, S. (1961). Educational issues in field instruction in social work. *Social Service Review, 25*, 246-257.

Berl, F. (1979). An attempt to construct a conceptual framework for supervision. In C. Munson (Ed.), *Social work supervision: Classic statements and critical issues* (pp. 94-105). New York: The Free Press.

Bernstein, S., & Epstein, I. (1994). Grounded theory meets the reflective practitioner: Integrating qualitative and quantitative methods in administrative practice. In E. Sherman & W. Reid (Eds.), *Qualitative research in social work* (pp. 435-444). New York: Columbia University Press.

Beveridge Report. (1942). *Report on social insurance and allied services*, Cmnd 6404, London: HMSO

Biggs, S., & Weinstein, J. (1991). *Assessment, care management and inspection in community care: Towards a practice curriculum*. London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Blum, E. (1990). The education and training of professionals and paraprofessionals involved in settlement and integration. In S. Yelaja (Ed.), *Proceedings of the settlement and integration of new immigrants to Canada conference*. Waterloo, ON: Faculty of Social Welfare and Centre for Social Welfare Studies, Wilfrid Laurier University.

Blyth, E. (1980, October 9). The dilemma of practice teaching. *Community Care*, pp. 28-29.

Boehm, W. (1959). Objectives of the social work curriculum of the future. In W. Boehm (Ed.), *Social work curriculum study* (Vol. 1, pp. 175-178). New York: Council on Social Work Education.

Bogo, M., & Power, R. (1993). *Educational methodologies and group elements in field instructor training*. Paper presented at the 39th Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, New York.

Bogo, M., & Power, R. (1992). New field instructors' perceptions of institutional supports for their roles. *Journal of Social Work Education, 28*(2), 178-189.

Bogo, M., Raphael, D., & Roberts, R. (1993). Interests, activities, a self-identification among social work students: Toward a definition of social work identity. *Journal of Social Work Education, 29*(3), 279-292.

Bogo, M., & Vayda, E. (1993). *The practice of field instruction in social work: A teaching guide*. Toronto: University of Toronto Bookstore Publishing Service.

Bogo, M., & Vayda, E. (1986). *The practice of field instruction in social work: Theory and process*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Borland, M., Hudson, A., Hughes, B., & Worrall, A. (1988). An approach to the management of the assessment of practice placements. *British Journal of Social Work, 18*(3), 269-288.

Borrill, W., O'Sullivan, P., & Sleeman, S. (1991). *The management and reduction of failing placements. Report to the Department of Health*. Southampton: Department of Social Work Studies, University of Southampton.

Boud, D. (1988). *Developing student autonomy in learning*. London: Kogan Page.

Bouey, E., & Rogers, G. (1991). *The role of field work and libraries in preparing culturally sensitive practitioners*. Paper presented at the 37th Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education. New Orleans, LA.

Bradford Post-Qualifying Partnership. (1991). In CCETSW (Ed.), *One small step toward racial justice* (pp. 20-40). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Bradley, G., & Harris, R. (1993). Social work in Europe: An ERASMUS initiative. *Social Work Education, 12*(3), 51-66.

Brandon, D. (1976, October 6). Out of the lecture room, into the field. *Community Care*.

Brandon, J., & Davies, M. (1979). The limits of competence in social work: The assessment of marginal students in social work education. *British Journal of Social Work, 9*(3), 296-347.

Brennen, C. (1982). Evaluation of field teaching and learning. In B. Sheafor & L. Jenkins (Eds.), *Quality field instruction in social work* (pp. 76-97). New York: Longman.

British Association of Social Workers. (1988). *Social work in multi-cultural Britain: Guidelines for preparation and practice*. Birmingham: BASW.

Brodie, I. (1993). Teaching from practice in social work education: A study of the content of supervision sessions. *Issues in Social Work Education, 13*(2), 71-91.

Brookfield, S. (1986). *Understanding and facilitating adult learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brookfield, S. (Ed.) (1988). *Training educators of adults*. London: Routledge.

Brookfield, S. (1990). *The skilful teacher*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Brummer, N., & Simmonds, J. (1992). Race and culture: The management of 'difference' in the learning group. *Social Work Education, 11*(1), 54-64.

Burgess, H., & Jackson, S. (1990). Enquiry and action learning: A new approach to social work education. *Social Work Education, 9*(30), 3-19.

Burgess, R. (Ed.) (1982). *Field research: A source book and field manual*. London: Allen & Unwin.

Burke, P., & Bradley, G. (1993). Modular teaching, the practice curriculum and the practicum: Some innovations in the Hull University DipSW Programme. *Issues in Social Work Education, 13*(1), 73-88.

Burns, M. (1958). *The historical development of the process of casework supervision as seen in the professional literature in social work*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago.

Butler, B., & Elliott, D. (1985). *Teaching and learning for practice*. Hants: Gower.

Caldwell, B., & Carter, E. (Eds.) (1993). *The return of the mentor*. London: The Falmer Press.

Campbell, B., & Rose, J. (1992). An analysis of the language and race debate. *The Journal of Training and Development, 2*(4), 14-19.

Carew, R. (1979). The place of knowledge in social work activity. *British Journal of Social Work, 9*(3), 349-364.

Carniol, B. (1987). *Case critical: The dilemma of social work in Canada*. Toronto: Between the Lines.

Carroll, D., & McCuan, P. (1975). A specialized role function approach to field instruction in social administration. In CSWE (Ed.), *The dynamics of field instruction: Learning through doing* (pp. 1-9). New York: Council on Social Work Education.

Carruthers, J. (1993). The principles and practice of mentoring. In B. Caldwell & E. Carter (Eds.), *The return of the mentor* (pp. 9-24). London: The Falmer Press.

Cassidy, H. (1969). Role and function of the coordinator or director of field instruction. In B. Jones (Ed.), *Current patterns in field instruction in graduate social work education* (pp. 148-155). New York: Council on Social Work Education.

Casson, P. (1982). *Social work courses: Their structure and content* (Study 5). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CASSW. (1991a). *Directory*. Ottawa: Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work.

CASSW. (1991b, May). *Social work education at the crossroads: The challenge of diversity*. (Report of the Task Force on Multicultural and Multiracial Issues in Social Work Education). Ottawa: Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work.

CASSW. (1993). *Board of accreditation manual of educational policy statements accreditation standards and procedures* (rev.ed.). Ottawa: Canadian Association of Social Work.

CCETSW. (1975). *Annual report*. London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1981). *Guidelines for courses leading to the Certificate of Qualification in Social Work* (rev. ed., Paper 15.1). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1983). *Certificate in Social Service: Second Progress Report* (Paper 9.6). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1984). *Certificate in Social Service: The Durham Papers* (Paper 9.7). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1989a). *Requirements and regulations for the diploma in Social Work* (Paper 30). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

248

CCETSW. (1989b). *Improving standards in practice learning: Regulations and guidance for the approval of agencies and the accreditation and training of practice teachers* (Paper 26.3). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1990a). *The requirements for post-qualifying education and training in the personal social services: A framework for continuing professional development* (Paper 31). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1990b). *Proposed guidelines for practice learning centres including funding arrangements: A working paper*. London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1990c). *Partnerships and collaboration in programmes for the diploma in social work (DipSW)*. London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1991a). *Improving standards in practice learning: Requirements and guidance for the approval of agencies and the accreditation and training of practice teachers* (rev. ed., Paper 26.3). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1991b). *DipSW rules and requirements for the diploma in social work* (2nd ed., Paper 30). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1991c). *Progress on agency approval: Improving practice learning in social work education*. London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1991d). *One small step towards racial justice: The teaching of antiracism in diploma in social work programmes. Improving Social Work Education and Training—Eight*. London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

CCETSW. (1991e). *Setting the context for change: Anti-racist social work education*. London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Cervi, B. (1992, May 28). Joining the professionals? *Community Care*, pp. 11-16.

Challis, D., & Davies, B. (1986). *The case management system*. Aldershot: Gower.

Chau, K. (1990). A model for teaching cross-cultural practice in social work. *Journal of Social Work Education, 26*(2), 124-133.

Cheetham, J. (1972). *Social work with immigrants*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Christensen, C. (1986). Immigrant minorities in Canada. In F. Turner & J. Turner (Eds.), *Canadian social welfare,* (2nd ed., pp. 51-59). Toronto: Collier Macmillan Canada.

Clancy, C. (1985). The use of the andragogical approach in the educational function of supervision in social work. *The Clinical Supervisor, 3*(1), 75-86.

Clapton, G. (1989). *Support groups for individual practice teachers*. London: National Organisation for Practice Teaching.

Coady, N. (1995). A reflective/inductive model of practice. In G. Rogers (Ed.), *Social work field education: Views and visions* (pp. 139-151). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Cocozzelli, C., & Constable, R. (1985). An empirical analysis of the relation between theory and practice in clinical social work. *Journal of Social Service Research, 9*(1), 47-64.

Collins, D., Thomlison, B., & Grinnell, R. (1992). *The social work practicum: A student guide*. Itasca, IL: F.E. Peacock.

Collins, S., & Ottley, G. (1986). Practice teaching: Reflections, steps before reflection and some steps for the future. *Social Work Education, 6*(1), 11-14.

Cornwell, N. (1992). From understanding to taking action: Developing and assessing anti-racist/anti-discriminatory practice. *Issues in Social Work Education, 12*(2), 89-110.

Cornwell, N. (1994). Social work education and practice sans frontieres. *Issues in Social Work Education, 14*(1), 39-52.

Cotgrove, J., & Teague. A. (1990, September 27). Racism in practice. *Social Work Today*, pp. 23-25.

Coulshed, V. (1986). What do social work students give to training? *Issues in Social Work Education, 6*(2), 119-127.

Coulshed, V. (1988). Curriculum designs for social work education: Some problems and possibilities. *British Journal of Social Work, 18*(2), 155-169.

Cronbach, L. (1975). Beyond the two disciplines of scientific psychology. *American Psychologist, 30*, 116-127.

CSWE (1988). *Handbook of accreditation standards and procedures*. Washington, DC: Commission on Accreditation, Council on Social Work Education.

CTSW. (1971). *The teaching of fieldwork: Report of the working party on fieldwork*. London: Council for Training in Social Work.

Curnock, K. (1975). *Student units in social work education*. London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Curnock, K., & Hardiker, P. (1979). *Towards practice theory: Skills and methods in social assessments*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Curnock, K., & Prins, H. (1982). An approach to fieldwork assessment. *British Journal of Social Work, 12*(6), 507-542.

Danbury, H. (1986). *Teaching practical social work: A guide for supervisors*. Gower: Aldershot.

Dastyk-Blackmore, R. (1982). Is field teaching supervision? *Canadian Journal of Social Work Education, 8*(3), 75-80.

Davies, H., & Kinloch, H. (1991). Improving social work practice teaching: Steps towards the goal. *Social Work Education, 10*(2), 20-37.

Davies, M. (1981, January 15). What we have to learn about social work education. *Community Care,* pp. 18-22.

Davies, M. (1984). Training: What we think of it now. *Social Work Today, 15*(20), 12-17.

Davies, M. (1985). *The essential social worker* (2nd ed.). Aldershot: Gower.

Davis, J. (1983). Practice notes from the field. *Social Work Education, 2*(2), 18-19.

de Souza, P. (1991). A review of the experiences of black students in social work training. In CCETSW (Ed.), *One small step toward racial justice* (pp. 148-178). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

de Vaus, D. (1986). *Surveys in social research.* London: Allen & Unwin.

Denzin, N. (1989a). *Interpretive interactionism.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Denzin, N. (1989b). *The research act* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (Eds.) (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research.* Thousands Oaks, CA: Sage.

Department of Health. (1989). *Caring for people: Community care in the next decade and beyond.* London: HMSO.

Deshler, D. (1990). Metaphor analysis: Exorcising social ghosts. In J. Mezirow (Ed.), *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood* (pp. 296-313). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Devore, W., & Schlesinger, E. (1987). *Ethnic-sensitive social work practice* (2nd ed.). Columbus: Merrill Publishing Co.

Dillman, D. (1978). *Mail and telephone surveys: The total design method.* New York: Wiley.

Diner, S. (1977). Scholarship in the quest for social welfare: A fifty-year history of the Social Service Review. *Social Service Review, 51*(1), 1-66.

Doel, M. (1987a). Putting the 'final' in the final report. *Social Work Today, 18*(22), 13.

Doel, M. (1987b). The practice curriculum. *Social Work Education, 6*(3), 6-12.

Doel, M. (1988). A practice curriculum to promote accelerated learning. In J. Phillipson, M. Richards, & D. Sawdon (Eds.), *Towards a practice led curriculum* (pp. 45-60). London: National Institute for Social Work.

Doel, M. (1990, January 18). Putting heart into the curriculum. *Community Care,* pp. 20-22.

Doel, M., & Shardlow, S. (1989). *The practice portfolio. A research report*. Sheffield: Department of Sociological Studies, University of Sheffield.

Doherty, G., Pierce, R., & Smith, L. (1994). Review of the diploma in social work: Final consultation papers ("Firm Draft"). London: CCETSW.

Dominelli, L. (1992). An uncaring profession? An examination of racism in social work. In P. Braham, A. Rattansi, & P. Skillington (Eds.), *Racism and antiracism: Inequalities, opportunities and policies* (pp. 164-180). London: Sage.

Dominelli, L. (1988). *Anti-racist social work practice*. London: Macmillan.

Dwyer, M., & Urbanowski, M. (1981). Field practice criteria: A valuable teaching/learning tool in undergraduate social work education. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 17*(1), 5-11.

Elliott, N. (1988). The experience of the singleton practice teacher. *Social Work Education, 8*(1), 27-30.

Elliott, N. (1990). Practice teaching and the art of social work. *Social Monograph, 8*. Norwich: University of East Anglia.

Ellison, M. (1991). *A study of effective and ineffective field instructor behaviors*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of South Carolina, Ann Arbour, MI.

Ellison, M. (1994). Critical field instructors behaviors: Student and field instructor views. *Areté, 18*(2), 12-21.

Ely, P., & Denney, D. (1987). *Social work in a multi-racial society*. London: Gower.

England, H., & Shardlow, S. (1993). Competence at the post-qualifying level—A way forward. *Issues in Social Work Education, 13*(1), 25-44.

Entwistle, N. & Ramsden, P. (1983). *Understanding student learning*. London: Croom Helm.

Evans, D. (1976). Some implications of an integrated model of social work for theory and practice. *British Journal of Social Work, 6*(2), 177-200.

Evans, D. (1987). The centrality of practice in social work education. *Issues in Social Work Education, 7*(2), 83-101.

Evans, D. (1990). *Assessing students' competence to practise in college and practice agency*. London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Evans, D., & Kearney, J. (1988). The placement curriculum - its process and determinants. In J. Phillipson, M. Richards, & D. Sawdon, (Eds.), *Towards a practice led curriculum* (pp. 61-68). London: National Institute for Social Work.

Fanon, F. (1967). *Black skin, white masks*. New York: Grove Press.

Faria, G., Brownstein, C., & Smith, H. (1988). A survey of field instructors' perceptions of the liaison role. *Journal of Social Work Education, 24*(2), 135-144.

FCDRC (1991). *Report on the findings of first national survey of practice placements.* Newcastle: Family and Community Diapute Research Centre, University of Newcastle.

Fellin, P. (1982). Responsibilities of the school: Administrative support of field instruction. In B. Sheafor & L. Jenkins (Eds.), *Quality field instruction in social work* (pp. 101-115). New York: Longman.

Ferns, P. (1990). Tracing the path of anti-racism—Race equality in social work education. *Issues in Social Work Education, 10*(1&2), 134-143.

Fielding, N., & Fielding, J. (1986). *Linking data.* Beverley Hills, CA: Sage.

Finestone, S. (1967). Selected features of professional field instruction. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 3*(3), 14-26.

Fishbein, H., & Glassman, U. (1991). The advanced seminar for field instructors. In D. Schneck, B. Grossman, & U. Glassman (Eds.), *Field education in social work: Contemporary issues and trends* (pp. 226-232). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Fisher, T. (1990). Competence in social work practice teaching. *Social Work Education, 9*(2), 9-24.

Fiske, J. (1994). Audiencing: Ethnic modelling in qualitative research. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 189-198). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Flexner, A. (1915). Is social work a profession? *Proceedings of the national conference on charities and corrections* (pp. 576-590). New York: Columbia University Press.

Flick, U. (1992). Triangulation revisited: Strategy of validation or alternative? *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, 22*, 175-198.

Follet, M. (1970). The teacher-student relationship. *Administrative Service Quarterly, 15*(2), 137-148.

Fontana, A., & Frey, J. (1994). Interviewing: The art of science. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 361-376). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ford, K., & Jones, A. (1987). *Student supervision.* London: Macmillan Education.

Forder, A. (1974). *Concepts in social administration: A framework for analysis.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Fortune, A. (1988). From the editor. *Journal of Social Work Education, 24*(2), 105.

Fortune, A., Feathers, C., Rook, S., Scrimenti, R., Smollen, P., Stemerman, B., & Tucker, E. (1985). Student satisfaction with the field placement. *Journal of Social Work Education, 21*(1), 92-104.

Foulds, J., Sanders, A., & Williams, J. (1991). Co-ordinating learning: The future of practice teaching. *Social Work Education, 10*(2), 60-68.

Fox, R., & Guild, P. (1987). Learning styles: Their relevance to clinical supervision. *The Clinical Supervisor, 5*(3), 65-77.

Fraser, D. (1984). *The evolution of the British welfare state* (2nd ed.). London: Macmillan.

Freires, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed.* New York: Herder and Herder.

Friedman, R. (1983). Aspects of the parallel process and countertransference issues in student supervision. *School Social Work Journal, 8*(1), 3-15.

Fuller, B. (1963). *Education automation: Freeing scholars to return to their studies.* New York: Doubleday.

Fuller, B. (1981). *Critical path.* New York: St. Martins Press.

Gabor, P. (1993). Sampling. In R. Grinnell (Ed.), *Social work research and evaluation* (4th ed., pp. 154-170). Itasca, IL: Peacock.

Gambrill, E., & Stein, T. (1983). *Supervision: A decision-making approach.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Gardiner, D. (1984a). Learning for transfer. *Issues in Social Work Education, 4*(2), 95-105.

Gardiner, D. (1984b). Social work education and the transfer of learning—a comment. *Issues in Social Work Education, 4*(1), 55-57.

Gardiner, D. (1987). Towards internal monitoring and evaluation of social work courses. *Issues in Social Work Education, 7*(1), 53-55.

Gardiner, D. (1988). Improving students' learning—setting an agenda for quality in the 1990s. *Issues in Social Work Education, 8*(1), 3-10.

Gardiner, D. (1989). *The anatomy of supervision: Developing learning and professional competence for social work students.* Milton Keynes: SRHS & Open University Press.

Garland, D., & Escobar, D. (1988). Education for cross-cultural social work practice. *Journal of Social Work Education, 24*(3), 229-241.

Gelfand, B., Rohrich, S., Nividon, P., & Starak, I. (1975). An andragogical application to the training of social workers. *Journal of Social Work Education, 11*(3), 55-61.

Gelfand, D., & Fandetti, D. (1986). The emergent nature of ethnicity: Dilemmas in assessment. *Social Casework,* pp. 542-550.

George, A. (1982). A history of social work field instruction. In B. Sheafor & L. Jenkins (Eds.), *Quality field instruction in social work* (pp. 37-59). New York: Longman.

Germain, C., & Gitterman, A. (1980). *The life model of social work practice.* New York: Columbia University Press.

Gibelman, M., & Whiting, L. (1991). *Social worker professional activities survey: Report and analysis of findings.* Silver Springs, MD: NASW.

Gilroy, P. (1987). *There ain't no black in the Union Jack.* London: Hutchinson.

Gitterman, A., & Gitterman, P. (1979). Social work student evaluation: Format and method. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 15*(3), 108-108.

Gitterman, A., & Miller, I. (1977). Supervisors as educators. In F. Kaslow & Associates (Eds.), *Supervision, consultation, and staff training in the helping professions* (pp. 100-114). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory.* Chicago: Aldine.

Glaser, R. (1990). The reemergence of learning theory within instructional research. *American Psychologist, 45*(1), 29-39.

Gluck, S., & Patai, D. (Eds.) (1991). *Women's words: The feminist practice of oral history.* London: Routledge.

Goetz, J., & LeCompte, M. (1984). *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research.* New York: Academic Press.

Goldberg, A., & Warburton, R. (1979). *Ends and means in social work.* London: Allen & Unwin.

Goldmeier, J. (1983). Educational assessment, teaching style and case assignment in clinical field work. *Aretê, 8,* 1-12.

Gordon, M. (1982). Responsibilities of the school: Maintenance of the field program. In B. Sheafor & L. Jenkins (Eds.), *Quality field instruction in social work* (pp. 116-135). New York: Longman.

Gordon, W., & Gordon, M. (1989). George Warren Brown's field instruction research: An experimental design by empirical data. In M. Raskin (Ed.), *Empirical studies in field instruction* (pp. 15-28). New York: Haworth.

Gould, N. (1994). Anti-racist social work: A framework for teaching and action. *Issues in Social Work Education, 14*(1), 2-17.

Gould, N. (1989). Reflective learning for social work practice. *Social Work Education, 8*(2), 9-19.

Gowanlock, G. (1984). Perspectives on the profession. *The Social Worker, 51*(2), 17-20.

Gray, I. (1987). Some key problems in the current organisation of practice teaching. In CCETSW (Ed.), *Accreditation of agencies and practice teachers in social work education:*

Workshop papers (Supplement to Paper 26.1). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Gray, J. (1986). Learning for transfer—the special case of practising social work in different countries. *Issues in Social Work Education, 5*(2), 145-149.

Green, J. (1982). *Cultural awareness in the human services*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Greenwood, E. (1957, July). Attributes of a profession. *Social Work*, pp. 45-55.

Greenwood, J. & Wilson, D. (1989). *Public administration in Britain today* (2nd ed.). London: Unwin Hyman.

Gregorc, A. (1982). *Gregorc style delineator: A self-assessment instrument for adults*. Columbia, CT: Gregorc Associates, Inc.

Grimwood, C., & Fletcher, J. (1987). The growing problem of attempting to find placements for students. *Social Work Today, 18*(38), 12-13.

Grinnell, R. (1988). *Social work research and evaluation*. Itasca, IL: F.E. Peacock.

Grinter, P., & Raynor, P. (1993). Starting to assess anti-racist practice in the DipSW. *Social Work Education, 12*(3), 41-50.

Grossman, B., & Barth, R. (1991). Evaluating a delayed entry model of first year field work. In D. Schneck, B. Grossman, & U. Glassman (Eds.), *Field education in social work: Contemporary issues and trends* (pp. 131-140). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Grossman, B., & Perry, R. (1995). Reengaging social work education with the public social services: The California experience and its relevance in Canada. In G. Rogers (Ed.), *Social work field education: Views and visions* (pp. 351-371). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Grundy, S. (1987). *Curriculum: Product or process*. Lewes: Falmer.

Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1981). *Effective evaluation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Guest, D. (1980). *The emergence of social security in Canada*. Vancouver: University of British Columbia Press.

Hagen, B. (1989). The practicum instructor: A study of role expectations. In M. Raskin (Ed.), *Empirical studies in field instruction* (pp. 219-231). New York: Haworth.

Haines, J. (1975). *Skills and methods in social work*. London: Constable.

Hamilton, G. (1940). *Theory and practice of social casework*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Hamilton, N., & Else, J. (1983). *Designing field education: Philosophy, structure, and process*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Hardiker, P. (1981). Heart or head—the function and role of knowledge in social work. *Issues in Social Work Education, 1*(2), 85-111.

Harkness, D., & Poertner, J. (1989, March). Research and social work supervision: A conceptual review. *Social Work,* pp. 115-119.

Hawthorne, L. (1975). Games supervisors play. *Social Work, 20*(3), 179-183.

Harris, R. (1983). Social work education and the transfer of learning. *Issues in Social Work Education, 3*(2), 103-117.

Harris, R. (1990). Social work education for the 1990s: An agenda. *Issues in Social Work Education, 10*(1&2), 146-155.

Harrison, D. (1994). The inevitability of integrated methods. In E. Sherman & W. Reid (Eds.), *Qualitative research in social work* (pp. 409-422). New York: Columbia University Press.

Hart, M. (1990). Liberation through consciousness raising. In J. Mezirow (Ed.), *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood* (pp. 47-73). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hawthorne, L. (1975). Games supervisors play. *Social Work, 20*(3), 179-183.

Hayward, C. (1979). *A fair assessment* (Study 2). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Hearn, J. (1982). The problem(s) of theory and practice in social work and social work education. *Issues in Social Work Education, 2*(2), 95-118.

Henkel, M. (1994). Social work: An incorrigibly marginal profession? In T. Becher (Ed.), *Governments and professional education* (pp. 86-103). Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.

Henry, C. (1975). An examination of fieldwork models at Adelphi University School of Social Work. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 11*(3), 62-68.

Henry, J. (1990). Meaning and practice in experiential learning. In S. Weil & I. McGill (Eds.), *Making sense of experiential learning* (pp. 25-37). Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Heppner, P., & Roehlke, H. (1984). Differences among supervisors at different levels of training: Implications for a developmental model of supervision. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 31*(1): 76-90.

Heraud, B. (1981). *Training for uncertainty.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Hersh, A. (1984). Teaching the theory and practice of student supervision: A short-term model based on principles of adult education. *The Clinical Supervisor, 2*(1), 29-44.

Higgins, J. (1981). *States of welfare: A comparative analysis of social policy.* New York: St. Martin's Press.

Hindmarsh, J. (1992). The impact of a university qualifying course: New graduates' accounts. *Issues in Social Work Education, 12*(1), 2-23.

Honey & Mumford (1986).

Howe, D. (1986). The segregation of women and their work in the personal social services. *Critical Social Policy, 15,* 21-35.

Howe, D. (1990-91). Three ways to train a social worker. *Social Work & Social Sciences Review, 2*(1), 45-50.

Hugman, R. (1991). Organization and professionalism: The social work agenda in the 1990s. *British Journal of Social Work, 21*(3), 199-216.

Humphreys, L., & Morton, J. (1991). A model for learning: Some notes from a practice teacher training programme. *Social Work Education, 10*(1), 48-62.

Humphries, B. (1988). Adult learning in social work education: Towards liberation or domestication? *Critical Social Policy, 23*(2), 4-21.

Humphries, B. (1993). 'Are you or have you ever been...?' *Social Work Education, 12*(3), 6-8.

Hurl, L. (1983). *Building a profession: The origin and development of the department of social services in the University of Toronto, 1914-1928.* University of Toronto: Faculty of Social Work.

Hutchison, E. (1977, February 2). Social work education: A view from the field. *Social Work Today,* pp. 10-12.

Ifill, D. (1989). Teaching minority practice for professional application. *Journal of Social Work Education, 25*(1), 29-35.

Jack, R. (1986, July 24). Two way stretch. *Community Care,* pp. 14-15.

Jackson, L., & Caffarella, R. (Eds.) (1994). *Experiential learning: A new approach. New directions for adult and continuing education* (No. 62). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

James, A., Morrissey, M., & Wilson, K. (1990). The resource implications of practice placements. *Issues in Social Work Education, 10*(1&2), 92-111.

Janesick, V. (1994). The dance of qualitative research design: Metaphor, methodolatry, and meaning. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln, (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 209-219). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Järvinen, A. (1990). Experiential learning and professional development. In S. Weil & I. McGill (Eds.), *Making sense of experiential learning* (pp. 161-169). Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Johnson, S. (1989). *Implications of better practice teacher use*. Project Report from West Midlands Teaching Consortium. Rugby: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Johnson, S., & Shabbaz, A. (1989-90). Integrated practice placements: A model for development. *Practice, 3*(3&4), 240-247.

Jones, C. (1989). End of the road: Issues in social work education. In P. Carte, et al. (Eds.), *Social Work and Social Welfare Yearbook No 1*. Milton Keyes: Open University Press.

Jones, C. (1993). Distortion and demonisation: The right and anti-discriminatory practice. *Social Work Education, 12*(3), 9-16.

Jones, C., & Novak, T. (1993). Social work today. *British Journal of Social Work, 23*(3), 195-212.

Jordan, B. (1991). Competencies and values. *Social Work Education, 10*(1), 5-11.

Jordan, C., Franklin, C., & Corcoran, K. (1993). Standardized measuring instruments. In R. Grinnell (Ed.), *Social work research and evaluation* (4th ed., pp. 198-220). Itasca, IL: Peacock.

Jordan, W. (1978). A comment on 'theory and practice in social work'. *British Journal of Social Work, 8*(1), 23-25.

Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1980). Improving in service training. The messages of research. *Educational Leadership, 37*(5), 379-385.

Kadushin, A. (1968). Games people play in supervision. *Social Work, 13*(1), 23-32.

Kadushin, A. (1974). Supervisor-supervisee: A survey. *Social Work, 19*(3), 228-297.

Kadushin, A. (1976). *Supervision in social work*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Kadushin, A. (1989). *What is qualitatively different about quality field education?* Paper presented at the 35th Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, Chicago, IL.

Kadushin, A. (1992). *Supervision in social work* (3rd ed.). New York: Columbia University Press.

Keele University (1989). *Issues identified during survey of agencies*. Keele: Department of Applied Social Studies and Social Work.

Kendall, K. (1978). *Reflections on social work education: 1950-1978*. New York: International Association of Schools of Social Work.

Kenyan, G. (1993). *CASSW field co-ordinators & directors group survey of placement agencies regarding paid student placement: Final report*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting and Conference of the Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work, Ottawa, ON.

Kerr, B. (1988). 'Durham revisited'. Further thoughts on consistency and standards in assessment for a social work qualification. *Social Work Education, 7*(2), 19-23.

Keyes, P. (1991). Ethnic and multicultural concerns in social work. *Journal of Multicultural Social Work, 1*(1), 1-6.

Kimberley, D., & Watt, S. (1982). Trends and issues in the field preparation of social work manpower: Part III Educational policy, accreditation standards, and guidelines. *Canadian Journal of Social Work Education. 8*(1), 101-120.

King, J. (1986). The three faces of thinking. *Journal of Higher Education,* 57(1), 78-92.

Kingston, P. (1992). Some issues in anti-racist workshops for white people. *Social Work Education, 11*(2), 5-21.

Kitchener, K., & King, P. (1990). The reflective judgement model: Transforming assumptions about knowing. In J. Mezirow (Ed.), *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood* (pp. 159-176). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Knight, C., & Glazer-Semmel, E. (1990). *The skills of field instruction: A study of BSW and MSW students' perceptions of effective supervision.* Paper presented at the 36th Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, Reno, NV.

Knowles, M. (1970). *The modern practice of adult education: Andragogy versus pedagogy.* New York: Association Press.

Knowles, M. (1972). Innovations in teaching styles and approaches based upon adult learning. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 8*(2), 32-39.

Knowles, M. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy.* Chicago: Follett.

Kolb, D. (1976). *Learning styles inventory technical manual.* Boston: McBer.

Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and develop-ment.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Kolezon, M. (1979). Notes for practice: Evaluating the supervisory relationship in field placements. *Social Work, 24*(3), 241-244.

Kondrat, M. (1992a). *Education for reflective practice: Formal, substantive, and critical rationality in field education.* Paper presented at the 38th Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, Kansas City, MO.

Kondrat, M. (1992b). Reclaiming the practical: Formal and substantive rationality in social work practice. *Social Service Review, 66*(2), 237-255.

Kruzich, J., Friesen, B., & Van Soest, D. (1986). Assessment of student and faculty learning styles: Research and application. *Journal of Social Work Education, 22*(3), 22-30.

Kuhn, T. (1970). *The structure of scientific knowledge* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Kutzik, A. (1977). History and philosophy of supervision and consultation: The social work field. In F. Kaslow & Associates (Eds.), *Supervision, consultation, and staff training in the helping professions.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass,

Kwhali, J. (1991). Assessment checklists for DipSW external assessors. In CCETSW, *One small step towards racial justice: The teaching of antiracism in diploma in social work programmes. Improving Social Work Education and Training—Eight,* (pp. 41-49). London: CCETSW.

Lacerte, J., & Ray, J. (1991). Recognizing the educational contributions of field instructors. In D. Schneck, B. Grossman, & U. Glassman (Eds.), *Field education in social work* (pp. 217-225). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Lacerte, J., Ray, J., & Irwin, L. (1989). Recognizing the educational contributions of field instructors. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 3*(1), 99-113.

Larsen, J., & Hepworth, D. (1982). Enhancing the effectiveness of practicum instruction: An empirical study. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 18*(2), 50-58.

Latting, J. (1990). Identifying the "Isms": Enabling social work students to confront their biases. *Journal of Social Work Education, 26*(1), 36-44.

LeCroy, C., & Solomon, G. (1993). Content analysis. In R. Grinnell (Ed.), *Social work research and evaluation* (4th ed., pp. 304-316). Itasca, IL: Peacock.

Leddick, G., & Dye, H. (1987). Effective supervision as portrayed by trainee expectations and preferences. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 27*(2), 139-154.

Leighninger, L. (1980). The generalist and specialist debate in social work. *Social Service Review, 54*(1), 1-12.

Lemberger, J., & Marshack, E. (1989). *How field problems are defined: The influence of school and agency culture.* Paper presented at the 35th Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, Chicago, IL.

Lemberger, J., & Marshack, E. (1991). Educational assessment in the field: An opportunity for teacher-learner mutuality. In D. Schneck, B. Grossman, & U. Glassman (Eds.), *Field education in social work* (pp. 187-197). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Lewis, S., & Loughran, G. (1990, November 7). What must change? *Insight,* pp. 16-17.

Liddle, H., Breunlin, D., & Schwartz, R. (Eds.). (1988). *Handbook of family therapy training and supervision.* New York: Guilford.

Livingston, D., Chernack, P., & Grodney, D. (1992). *An innovation in training field instructors in the age of AIDS.* Paper presented at the 38th Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, Kansas City, MO.

Lowy, L. (1983). Social work supervision: From models toward theory. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 19*(2), 55-62.

Lubove, R. (1965). *The professional altruist: The emergence of social work as a career, 1880-1930.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Lyons, K. (1989). The European dimension in social work training. *Issues in Social Work Education, 9*(1), 93-99.

Macauley-Hayes, M., & Gray, G. (1991). Black perspectives: A learning experience. *Social Work Today, 22*(49), 21-23.

MacDonald, B., & Walker, R. (1977). Case study and the social philosophy of educational research. In D. Hamilton (Ed.), *Beyond the numbers game.* London: Macmillan.

Maier, H. (1981). Chance favors the prepared mind. *Contemporary Social Work Education, 4*(1), 14-20.

Malahleka, B., & Woolfe, S. (1991). Ethnically sensitive social work: The obstacle race. *Practice, 5*(1), 47-64.

Marcus, G., & Fischer, M. (1986). *Anthropology as cultural critique: An experimental moment in the human sciences.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Markowitz, M. (1988). Students' expectations of actual experiences in field instruction (Doctoral dissertation, Yeshiva University). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 50,* 1439-A.

Marsick, V. (1990). Action learning and reflection in the workplace. In J. Mezirow (Ed.), *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood* (pp. 23-43). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Matorin, S. (1979). Dimensions of student supervision: A point of view. *Social Casework, 60*(3), 150-156.

McBeath, G., & Webb, S. (1991). Child protection language as professional ideology. *Social Work and Social Sciences Review, 2*(2).

McCann, I., & Radford, R. (1993). Mentoring for teachers: The collaborative approach. In B. Caldwell & E. Carter (Eds.), *The return of the mentor* (pp. 25-43). London: The Falmer Press.

McCarthy, P., & Walker, J. (1994). *UK audit of practice placements 1992-1993.* London: CCETSW.

McInnis, G. (1953). *J.S. Woodsworth, A man to remember.* Toronto: Macmillan.

McRoy, R., Freeman, E., Logan, S., & Blackmon, B. (1986). Cross-cultural field supervision: Implications for social work education. *Journal of Social Work Education, 22*(1), 50-56.

Merriam, S. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mesbur, E. (1991). Overview of baccalaureate field education: Objectives and outcomes. In D. Schneck, B. Grossman & U. Glassman (Eds.), *Field education in social work* (pp. 155-166). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Mezirow, J. (1990). How critical reflection triggers transformative learning. In J. Mezirow (Ed.), *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood* (pp. 1-22). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J., & Associates. (1990). *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: A guide to transformative and emancipatory learning.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Middleman, R., & Rhodes, G. (1985). *Competent supervision: Making imaginative judgements.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Midgley, J., & Jones, C. (1994). Social work and the radical right: Impact of developments in Britain and the United States. *International Social Work, 37*(2), 115-126.

Millard, D. (1972). The examination of students' fieldwork. *Social Work Today, 3*(14), 13-16.

Millard, D. (1978). Fieldwork evaluation revisited. *British Journal of Social Work, 8*(1), 71-78.

Mills, C. Wright. (1959). *The sociological imagination.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Milner, J., & O'Bryne, (1986). The impact of failing students on tutors. *Social Work Education, 6*(1), 21-23.

Mindel, C. (1993). Instrument design. In R. Grinnell (Ed.), *Social work research and evaluation* (4th ed., pp. 221-241). Itasca, IL: Peacock.

Minty, B., Glynn, E., Huxley, P., & Hamilton, M. (1988). The assessment of students' practice. *Social Work Education, 7*(2), 9-14.

Mitchell, D. (1992, November 5). Practice what you teach. *Community Care,* pp. 21-22.

Morrell, E. (1980). Student assessment: Where are we now? *British Journal of Social Work, 10*(4), 431-442.

Mullard, C. (1991). Towards a model of antiracist social work. In CCETSW (Ed.), *One small step toward racial justice* (pp. 10-19). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Munson, C. (Ed.). (1979). *Social work supervision: Classic statements and critical issues.* New York: The Free Press.

Munson, C. (1981). Style and structure in supervision. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 17*(1), 65-72.

Munson, C. (1987). Field instruction in social work education. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 1*(1), 91-109.

Murphy, R., & Torrance, H. (1988). *The changing face of educational assessment.* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Murray, N. (1992, August 13). Crisis? What crisis? *Community Care,* pp. 16-17.

Murty, S., & Lacerte, J. (1989). The practicum experience: Quality for all. *Journal of Continuing Social Work Education, 5*(1), 32-38.

Myers, I. (1976). *Introduction to type.* Gainesville, FL: Center for Applications of Psychological Type.

Naik, D. (1991). Towards an antiracist curriculum in social work training. In CCETSW (Ed.), *One small step toward racial justice: The teaching of antiracism in diploma in social work programmes. Improving Social Work Education and Training—Eight* (pp. 50-57). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Nelson, J. (1974). Teaching content of early fieldwork conferences. *Social Casework, 55*(3), 147-153.

Nixon, S., Shardlow, S., Doel, M., McGrath, S., & Gordon, R. (1994). An empirical approach to defining quality components in field education. In G. Rogers (Ed.), *Social work field education: Views and visions* (pp. 382-397). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt

Olesen, V. (1994). Feminisms and models of qualitative research. In N. Denzin, & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 158-174). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Oppenhiem, J. (1987, November 20). Falling apart at the seams. *Insight,* pp. 10-11.

Orme, J. (1991). Teaching race on a social work course in a predominantly white area. In CCETSW (Ed.), *One small step toward racial justice* (pp. 230-243). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Packham, R., Roberts, R., & Bawden, R. (1990). Our faculty goes experiential. In S. Weil & I. McGill (Eds.), *Making sense of experiential learning: Diversity in theory and practice* (pp. 129-149). Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Paley, J. (1984). The devolution of social work knowledge. *Social Work Education, 3*(2), 19-24.

Paley, J. (1987). Social work and the sociology of knowledge. *British Journal of Social Work, 17*(3), 169-186.

Papell, C. (1978). A study of styles of learning for direct social work practice. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 39,* 1842A-1843A.

Papell, C., & Skolnik, L. (1992). The reflective practitioner: A contemporary paradigm's relevance for social work education. *Journal of Social Work Education, 28*(1), 18-26.

Parry, N., & Parry, J. (1979). Social work, professionalism and the state. In M. Rustin, N. Parry, & C. Satyamurti (Eds.), *Social work, welfare and the state.* London: Edward Arnold.

264

Parsloe, P. (1977). How training may "unfit" people. *Social Work Today, 9*, 15-18.

Parsloe, P. (1982, September 16). The learning process. *Community Care*, pp. 20-21.

Pask, G. (1976). Styles and stategies of learning. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 46*(2), 12-25.

Patton, M. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Payne, M. (1977). An apprenticeship model of social work education. *Social Work Today, 9*(5), 8-12.

Payne, M. (1990). Relationships between theory and practice in social work: Educational implications. *Issues in Social Work Education, 10*(1&2), 3-23.

Payne, M. (1994). Partnerships between organisations in social work education. *Issues in Social Work Education, 14*(1), 53-70.

Perlman, H. (1957). *Social casework: A problem-solving process*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Perry, F. (1990). *Improving practice placement provision. Report of feasibility study on the establishment of a clearing house for practice placements*. Leeds: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Peterson, F.K. (1991). Issues of race and ethnicity in supervision: Emphasizing who you are, not what you know. *The Clinical Supervisor, 9*(1), 15-31.

Pettes, D. (1967). *Supervision in social work*. London: Allen & Unwin.

Pettes, D. (1979). *Staff and student supervision: A task-centred approach*. London: Allen & Unwin.

Phillipson, J. (1988). Introduction. In J. Phillipson, M. Richards, & D. Sawdon (Eds.), *Towards a practice-led curriculum* (pp. 5-7). London: National Institute for Social Work.

Phillipson, J. (1992). *Practising equality: Women, men and social work*. London: CCETSW.

Phillipson, J., Richards, M., & Sawdon, D. (Eds.). (1988). *Towards a practice-led curriculum*. London: National Institute for Social Work.

Pilcher, A. (1982). The development of field instruction objectives. In B. Sheafor & L. Jenkins (Eds.), *Quality field instruction in social work* (pp. 63-75). New York: Longman.

Pincus, A. & Minahan, A. (1973). *Social work practice: Model and method*. Itasca, IL: F.E. Peacock.

Pithouse, A. (1987). *Social work: The social organisation of an invisible trade*. Aldershot: Gower.

Polinger, E. (1991). *The effect of student-field instructor similarity on their respective perceptions of the field practicum in social work education.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Maryland at Baltimore, Ann Arbor, MI.

Polyani, M. (1967). *The tacit dimension.* New York: Doubleday.

Popple, P. (1985). The social work profession: A reconceptualization. *Social Service Review,* 560-576.

Prather, H. (1970). *Notes to myself.* Moab, UT: Real People Press.

Preston Shoot, M. (1989). A contractual approach to practice teaching. *Social Work Education, 8*(3), 3-15.

Qualis Research Associates. (1988). *The Ethnograph* (Version 3.0) [Computer program.]. OR: Corvalis.

Raban, C. (1990). CATS and quality. *Social Work Education, 9*(2), 25-41.

Rachlis, R. (1988). The social work practicum: Who should deliver it? *Canadian Social Work Review, 5*(1), 91-105.

Ramsay, R. (1984). Snapshots of practice in the twentieth century. *The Social Worker, 52*(1), 11-16.

Ramsay, R. (1988). *Is social work a profession? A 21st century answer to a 20th century question.* Unpublished paper, The University of Calgary, Faculty of Social Work, Calgary, AB.

Ramsden, P. (1985). Student learning research: Retrospect and prospect. *Higher Education Research and Development, 4*(1), 51-69.

Ramsey, G. (1992). An afro-centric perspective in social work training. *Journal of Training and Development, 2*(3), 47-50.

Ransley, C., & Mann, A. (1992, October 8). A very peculiar practice. *Community Care,* pp. 17-18.

Raphael, F., & Rosenblum, A. (1987). An operational guide to the faculty field liaison role. *Social Casework, 68*(3), 156-163.

Raskin, M. (1982). Factors associated with student satisfaction in undergraduate social work field placements. *Aretê, 7*(1), 44-55.

Raskin, M. (1983). A Delphi study in field instruction: Identification of issues and research priorities by experts. *Aretê, 8*(2), 38-48.

Raskin, M. (Ed.) (1989). *Empirical studies in field instruction.* New York: Haworth.

Raskin, M. (1993). The Delphi study in field instruction revisited: Expert on consensus priorities. *Journal of Social Work Education, 30*(1), 75-89.

Raskin, M., Skolnick, L., & Wayne, J. (1991). An international perspective of field education. *Journal of Social Work Education, 27*(3), 258-270.

Raynor, P. (1992). Needs and resources in practice learning: Findings from the Welsh placement survey. *Social Work Education, 11*(1), 16-27.

Reynolds, B. (1942). *Learning and teaching in the practice of social work.* New York: Farrar & Rinehart.

Richards, M. (1978). What shall we teach next year? *Social Work Today, 9*(31), 10-13.

Richards, M. (1988). Developing the content of practice teaching (Part 1 & 2). In J. Phillipson, M. Richards, & D. Sawdon (Eds.), *Towards a practice-led curriculum* (pp. 9-16, pp. 69-74). London: National Institute for Social Work.

Riches, G. (1989). Unemployment and the state: Implications for Canadian social work education, practice, and research. *Canadian Social Work Review, 6*(1), 9-23.

Richmond, M. (1917). *Social diagnosis.* New York: Russell Sage.

Rodway, M.R. (1981). Student personal experience on a direct service model of practice: Toward integration of theory and practice. *Canadian Journal of Social Work Education, 7*(3), 45-53.

Rodway, M.R., & Rogers, G. (1993). A comparison of the academic and articulated approaches to field education. *The Clinical Supervisor, 11*(2), 37-54.

Rogers, G. (1992). *Teaching and learning ethnically sensitive, anti-discriminatory practice. Field placement principles for Canadian social work programmes.* Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work, Charlottetown, PEI.

Rogers, G. (1993). *Field instructor training in Canada: What is, what could be.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting and Conference of the Canadian Association of Social Work, Ottawa, ON.

Rogers, G. (1993). *Field instructor training: The British experience.* Paper presented at the Alberta Association of Social Workers' Annual Conference, Calgary, AB.

Rogers, G. (1994). *Preparing culturally competent case managers: Content issues in educational programs.* Paper presented at the Second International Conference on Long Term Care Case Management, Toronto.

Rogers, G. (Ed.) (1995). *Social work field education: Views and visions.* Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Rogers, G., & McDonald, L. (1989a). *Field instruction methods for agency field supervisors*. Paper presented at the Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work Annual Meeting and Conference, Quebec City, PQ.

Rogers, G., & McDonald, L. (1989b). Field supervisors: Is a social work degree necessary? *Canadian Social Work Review, 6*(2), 203-221.

Rogers, G., & McDonald, L. (1992). Thinking critically: An approach to field instructor training. *Journal of Social Work Education, 28*(2), 166-177.

Rogers, G., & Thomlison, B. (1994). *Diversity dilemmas in supervision: Guidelines for the culturally competent supervisor*. Paper presented at the National Association of Social Workers' Annual Conference, Nashville, TN.

Rosenblatt, A., & Mayer, J. (1975). Objectionable supervisory styles: Students' views. *Social Work, 20*(3), 184-189.

Rosenblum, A., & Raphael, F. (1983). The role and function of the faculty field liaison. *Journal of Social Work Education, 19*(1), 68-78.

Rosenfeld, D. (1988). Field instructor turnover. *The Clinical Supervisor, 6*(3/4), 187-218.

Rosenfeld, D. (1989). Field instructor turnover. In M. Raskin (Ed.), *Empirical studies in field instruction* (pp. 187-218). New York: Haworth Press.

Rothman, J. (1977). Development of a profession: Field instruction correlates. *Social Service Review, 51*(2), 289-310.

Rotholz, T., & Werk, A. (1984). Student supervision: An educational process. *The Clinical Supervisor, 2*(1), 14-27.

Rowntree, D. (1987). *Assessing students: How shall we know them?* London: Harper & Row.

Roys, P. (1990). Social services. In A. Bhat, R. Carr-Hill, & S. Ohri (Eds.), *Britain's black population: A new perspective* (pp. 208-234). Aldershot: Gower.

Royse, D., Dhooper, S., & Rompf, E. (1993). *Field instruction: A guide for social work students*. White Plains: Longman.

Rubenstein, G. (1992). Supervision and psychotherapy: Toward redefining the differences. *The Clinical Supervisor, 10*(2), 97-116.

Rubin, A., Johnson, P., & DeWeaver, K. (1986). Direct practice interests of MSW students. *Journal of Social Work Education, 22*(1), 98-108.

Ruckdeschel, R., Earnshaw, P., & Firrek, A. (1994). The qualitative case study and evaluation: Issues, methods, and examples. In E. Sherman, & W. Reid (Eds.), *Qualitative research in social work* (pp. 251-278). New York: Columbia University Press.

Saari, C. (1989). The process of learning in clinical social work. *Smith College Studies in Social Work, 60*(1), 35-49.

Satyamurti, C. (1983). Discomfort and defence in learning to be a helping professional. *Issues in Social Work Education, 3*(1), 27-38.

Sawdon, D. (1986). *Making connections in practice teaching*. London: NISW.

Sawdon, D. (1991). Practice teaching in the 1990s: An exercise in conflict-management. *Issues in Social Work Education, 11*(1), 69-84.

Sawdon, D., & Sawdon, C. (1987). What makes for a good practice learning experience? *Social Work Education, 6*(3), 3-5.

Schneck, D., Grossman, B., & Glassman, U. (Eds.). (1991). *Field education in social work: Contemporary issues and trends*. Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Schneck, D. (1991). Ideal and reality in field education. In D. Schneck, B. Grossman, & U. Glassman (Eds.), *Field education in social work: Contemporary issues and trends* (pp. 17-35). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Schön, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York: Basic Books.

Schön, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: Towards a new design for teaching and learning in the professions*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schubert, M. (1965). Curriculum policy dilemmas in field instruction. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 1*(1), 35-46.

Secker, J. (1991). A phenomenological inquiry into the development of social work students' practice as they progress through training. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Edinburgh.

Secker, J. (1992, July 2). More than tea and sympathy. *Community Care*, pp. 12-13.

Seebohm Report. (1968). *Report of the committee on local authority & allied personal social services*. London: HMSO.

Selby, L. (1968). The fieldwork supervisor as educator. In E. Younghusband (Ed.), *Education for social work* (pp. 152-166). London: Allen & Unwin.

Shapiro, C. (1989). Burnout in social work field instructors. In M. Raskin (Ed.), *Empirical studies in field instruction*, (pp. 237-247). New York: Haworth Press.

Shardlow, S. (1987). Assessing competence to practice social work: The first year of a professional practice advisory panel. *Practice, 1*(1), 81-94.

Shardlow, S. (1988). The economics of student help. *Insight, 3*(23), 24-25.

Shardlow, M., & Doel, M. (1992). Practice teaching and knowledge. *Social Work Education, 11*(2), 45-53.

Shardlow, S., & Doel, M. (1993). Examination by triangulation: A model for practice teaching. *Social Work Education*, *12*(3), 67-79.

Shardlow, S., & Shardlow, P. (1993). *In Europe 4: A wider vision for post-qualifying studies*. London: CCETSW.

Shatz, E. (1989). Preface. In M. Raskin (Ed.), *Empirical studies in field instruction* (pp. xxv-xxvii). New York: Haworth.

Shaw, K. (1978). Understanding the curriculum: The approach through case studies. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *10*(1), 1-17.

Shaw, I., & Walton, R. (1978). Education for practice: Former students' attitudes to a social work course. *Journal of Contemporary Social Work Education*, *2*(1), 15-29.

Sheafor, B., & Jenkins, L. (Ed.). (1982). *Quality field instruction in social work: Program development and maintenance*. New York: Longman.

Sheffield, E., Campbell, D., Holmes, J., Kymlicka, B., & Whitelaw, H. (1978). *Systems of higher education: Canada*. New York: International Council for Educational Development.

Sheldon, B. (1978). Theory and practice in social work: A re-examination of a tenuous relationship. *British Journal of Social Work*, *8*(1), 1-22.

Sherman, E., & Reid, W. (Eds.). (1994). *Qualitative research in social work*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Showers, N., & Cuzzi, L. (1991). What field instructors of social work students need from hospital field work programs. *Social Work in Health Care*, *16*(1), 39-52.

Shubert, M. (1983). *Field instruction in social casework*. Chicago: University of Chicago.

Shulman, L. (1993). *Teaching the helping skills: A field instructors guide*. Itasca, IL: Peacock.

Sibeon, R. (1982). Theory-practice symbolisations: A critical review of the Hardiker/Davies debate. *Issues in Social Work Education*, *2*(2), 119-147.

Sibeon, R. (1989-90). Comments on the structure and forms of social work knowledge. *Social Work & Social Sciences Review*, *1*(1), 29-44.

Siegrist, H. (1994). The professions, state and government in theory and history. In T. Becher (Ed.), *Governments and professional education* (pp. 3-20). Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.

Sikkema, M. (1966). A proposal for an innovation in field learning and teaching. *Field instruction in graduate social work education: Old problems and new proposals*. New York: Council on Social Work Education.

Simon, B. (1966). Design of learning experiences in field instruction. *Social Service Review*, 40, 397-409.

Simosko, S. (1991). *APL accreditation of prior learning: A practical guide for professionals.* London: Kogan Page.

Simpkin, M. (1979). *Trapped within welfare.* London: Macmillan.

Sinclair, I. (1990). Response to David Howe. In P. Marsh & C. Clark (Eds.), *Research issues in social work education and training.* Sheffield: Universities of Edinburgh & Sheffield.

Sinclair, I. (1991). Social work research: Its relevance to social work and social work education. *Issues in Social Work Education, 11*(2), 65-80.

Siporin, M. (1982). The process of field instruction. In B. Sheafor & L. Jenkins (Eds.), *Quality field instruction in social work* (pp. 175-197). New York: Longman.

Skolnick, L. (1989). Field instruction in the 1980s—Realities, issues, and problem-solving strategies. In M. Raskin (Ed.), *Empirical studies in field instruction* (pp. 47-75). New York: Haworth.

Slater, P. (1992). "What's in it for practice agencies?" Joint provision of social work education and training. *The Journal of Training and Development, 2*(3), 41-45.

Smith, H., Faria, G., & Brownstein, C. (1986). Social work faculty in the role of liaison: A field study. *Journal of Social Work Education, 22*(3), 68-78.

Smith, M. (1965). *Professional education for social work in Britain.* London: Allan & Unwin.

Smith, N. (1981). Fieldwork education: Substance or myth. *Contemporary Social Work Education, 4*(1), 21-29.

Smith, S., & Baker, D. (1989). The relationship between educational background of field instructors and the quality of supervision. In M. Raskin (Ed.), *Empirical studies in field instruction* (pp. 257-270). New York: Haworth Press.

Smyth, J. (1991). *Teachers as collaborative learners: Challenging dominant forms of supervision.* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

SPSS, Inc. (1993). *SPSS for Windows, Release 6.0.* [Computer program] Chicago, IL.

St. John, D. (1975). Goal-directed supervision of social work students in field placement. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 11*(3), 89-94.

Stake, R. (1978). The case study method of social inquiry. *Educational Researcher, 7,* 5-8.

Stake, R. (1994). Case studies. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 236-247). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stanfield, J. (1985). *Philanthropy and Jim Crow in American social sciences.* Westport, CT: Greenwood.

Stanfield, J. (1994). Ethnic modelling in qualitative research. In N. Denzin, & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 175-188). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stevenson, O. (1981). *Specialisation in social service teams.* London: Allen & Unwin.

Stevenson, O., & Parsloe, P. (1978). *Social service teams: The practitioner's view.* London: HMSO.

Storan, J. (1991). *Credit accumulation and transfer for the diploma in social work: Guidance notes for programme planners.* London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Strom, K. (1991). Should field instructors be social workers? *Journal of Social Work Education, 27*(2), 187-195.

Stubbs, P. (1985). The employment of black social workers: From 'ethnic sensitivity' to anti-racism?. *Critical Social Policy, 12,* 6-27.

Stubbs, P. (1987). Professionalism and the adoption of black children. *British Journal of Social Work, 17,* 473-492.

Syson, L., & Baginsky, M. (1981). *Learning to practice: A study of practice placements in courses leading to the Certificate of Qualification in Social Work,* (Study 3). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Taylor, I. (1993). Self-directed learning and social work education: A critical analysis. *Issues in Social Work Education, 13*(1), 3-24.

Taylor, I. (1994). From the back seat: Facilitating self-directed learning in a social work course. *Issues in Social Work Education, 14*(1), 18-38.

Taylor, I., Bogo, E., & Vayda, E. (1986). *The practice of field instruction in social work: An annotated bibliography.* Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Taylor, J. (1993). The naturalistic research approach. In R. Grinnell (Ed.), *Social work research and evaluation* (4th ed., pp. 53-78). Itasca, IL: Peacock.

Thomlison, B., & Watt, S. (1980). Trends and issues in the field preparation of social work manpower: A summary report. *Canadian Journal of Social Work Education, 6*(2&3), 137-158.

Thomlison, B., Watt, S., & Kimberley, D. (1980). *Trends and issues in the field preparation of social work manpower.* Ottawa: Canadian Association of Schools of Social Work.

Thompson, N. (1993). *Anti-discriminatory practice.* London: Macmillan.

Thompson, N., Osada, M., & Anderson, B. (1990). *Practice teaching in social work: A handbook.* Birmingham: PEPAR.

Thompson, S., & Marsh, P. (1991). *The management of practice-teaching.* Sheffield: University of Sheffield.

Thyer, B., Sowers-Hoag, K., & Love, J. (1986). The influence of field instructor-student gender combinations on student perceptions of field instruction quality. *Areté, 11*(2), 25-29.

Thyer, B., Williams, M., Love, J., & Sowers-Hoag, K. (1989). The MSW supervisory requirement in field instruction: Does it make a difference? In M. Raskin (Ed.), *Empirical studies in field instruction* (pp. 249-256). New York: Haworth Press.

Timms, N. (1970). *Social work—An outline for the intending student.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Timms, N. (1983). *Social work values: An enquiry.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Timms, N., & Timms, R. (1977). *Perspectives in social work.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Tolson, E., & Kopp, J. (1988). The practicum: Clients, problems, interventions and influences on student practice. *Journal of Social Work Education, 24*(2), 123-134.

Toseland, R. (1994). Commentary: The qualitative/quantitative debate: Moving beyond acrimony to meaningful dialogue. In E. Sherman & W. Reid (Eds.), *Qualitative research in social work* (pp. 452-455). New York: Columbia University Press.

Towle, C. (1954). *The learner in education for the professions as seen in education for social work.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Tucker, B., Hart, G., & Liddle, H. (1976). Supervision in family therapy: A developmental perspective. *Marriage and Family Counselling, 2*(3), 269-276.

Turner, F. (1984). Educating social welfare personnel in Canada. In M. Nair, R. Hain, & J. Draper (Eds.), *Issues in Canadian human services* (pp. 212-217). Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Turner, F. (1986). Social welfare in Canada. In F. Turner & J. Turner, (Eds.), *Canadian social welfare* (2nd ed., pp. 1-6). Toronto: Collier Macmillan Canada.

Turner, F., & Turner, J. (Eds.). (1986). *Canadian social welfare* (2nd ed.). Toronto: Collier Macmillan Canada.

Turner, J. (1986). The historical base. In F. Turner & J. Turner (Eds.), *Canadian social welfare* (2nd ed., pp. 51-59). Toronto: Collier Macmillan Canada.

Urbanowski, M., & Dwyer, M. (1988). *Learning through field instruction: A guide for teachers and students.* Wisconsin: Family Service America.

Vigars, C. (1989). Clustering placements together. *Social Work Education, 8*(2), 20-24.

Walker, J. (1991). Interventions in families. In D. Clark (Ed.), *Marriage, domestic life and social change* (pp. 188-213). London: Routledge.

Walker, J., McCarthy, P., Morgan, W., & Timms, N. (1995). *In pursuit of quality: Improving practice teaching in social work.* Newcastle: Relate Centre for Family Studies.

273

Waterhouse, L. (1987). The relationship between theory and practice in social work training. *Issues in Social Work Education*, 7(1), 3-19.

Watt, S., & Kimberley, D. (1981). Trends and issues in the field preparation of social work manpower: Part II, Policies and recommendations. *Canadian Journal of Social Work Education*, 7(1), 99-108

Watt, S., & Thomlison, B. (1980). Trends and issues in the field preparation of social work manpower: A summary report. *Canadian Journal of Social Work Education*, 6(2&3), 137-150.

Watt, S., & Thomlison, B. (1981). Trends and issues in the field preparation of social work manpower: Secondary analysis of data. *Canadian Journal of Social Work Education*, 7(3), 1-18.

Webb, A., & Wistow, G. (1987). *Social work, social care and social planning: The personal social services since Seebohm*. London: Longman.

Webb, N. (1988). The role of the field instructor in the socialization of students. *Social Casework*, 69(1), 35-40.

Weil, S. & McGill, I. (Eds.). (1990). *Making sense of experiential learning: Diversity in theory and practice*. Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Weinstein, J. (1990). *Report on joint training of practice teachers conference*. York: CCETSW/ENB/COT.

Weinstein, J. (1991a). *Joint training of practice teachers report of the workshop for funded projects: Working towards better collaboration between health and social services professional*. Birmingham: CCETSW/ENB/COT.

Weinstein, J. (1991b, September 19). Exorcise those fears. *Social Work Today*, p. 8.

Weinstein, J. (1992). *Placement survey: A survey of local authority placements and provision in England and Wales 1991/92 and 1992/93*. London: CCETSW.

Weinstein, J. (1994). *Sewing the seams for a seamless service: A review of developments in interprofessional education and training*. London: CCETSW.

Wells, G., Chang, G., & Maher, A. (1990). Creating classroom communities of literate thinkers. In S. Sharan (Ed.), *Co-operative learning: Theory and research* (pp. 95-121). New York: Praeger.

Wharf, B. (Ed.) (1991). *Social work and social change in Canada*. Toronto: McClelland Stewart.

Wharf, B. (1992). *Communities and social policy in Canada*. Toronto: McClelland Stewart.

Whittington, C. (1986). Literature review: Transfer of learning in social work education. *British Journal of Social Work*, 16(6), 571-577.

Whittington, C., & Holland, R. (1985). A framework for theory in social work. *Issues in social work education, 5*(1), 25-49.

Whittington, C., & Lewis, S. (1990). A pair of trainers. *Insight, 5*(9), 30-31.

Wijnberg, M., & Schwartz, M. (1977). Models of student supervision: The apprentice, growth, and role systems models. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 13*(2), 107-113.

Williamson, H., Jefferson, R., Johnson, S., & Shabbaz, A. (1989). *Assessment of practice: A perennial concern?* Cardiff: School of Social and Administrative Studies, University of Wales.

Wilson, S. (1979). Explorations of the usefulness of case study evaluations. *Evaluation Quarterly, 3*, 446-459.

Wilson, S. (1981). *Field instruction: Techniques for supervisors.* New York: The Free Press.

Wood, G., & Middleman, R. (1991). Principles that guide teaching. In R. Middleman & G. Wood (Eds.), *Teaching secrets: The technology in social work education* (pp. 111-118). Binghamton, NY: Haworth Press.

Worthington, E. (1984). Empirical investigation of supervision of counsellors as they gain experience. *Journal of Counselling Psychology, 31*(1), 63-75.

Yelaja, S. (1985). Introduction to the social work profession. In S. Yelaja (Ed.), *An introduction to social work practice in Canada* (pp. 2-23). Scarborough, ON: Prentice-Hall.

Yin, R. (1989). *Case study research: Design and methods* (rev.ed.). London: Sage.

Young, P. (1967). *The student and supervision in social work education.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Young, P. (1984). CSS training in context. In *Certificate in Social Service: The Durham Papers* (Paper 9.7, pp. 80-98). London: Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Younghusband, E. (1964). The evolution of social work. In E. Younghusband (Ed.), *Social work and social change* (pp. 23-26). London: Allen & Unwin.

Younghusband, E. (Ed.) (1968). *Education for social work.* London: Allen & Unwin.

Younghusband, E. (1978). *Social work in Britain 1950-1975. Vol II. A follow-up study.* London: Allen & Unwin.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

UK COURSE DIRECTORS

QUESTIONNAIRE — NATIONAL SURVEY

September 1992

Dear   .

I am an Assistant Professor in the Faculty of Social Work, The University of Calgary,
Canada and I am currently engaged in research in Social Policy at The University of
Newcastle upon Tyne for a Ph.D. I have been interested in the role of practice teachers in
social work education for many years. My present research is an examination and
comparison of practice teacher training in the United Kingdom and Canada.

I am writing to invite you to contribute to this research. I understand that you are involved
in the delivery of an Approved Practice Teacher Training Programme leading to the
Practice Teaching Award. If this is incorrect, it would be most helpful if you could
please forward this letter to the appropriate person in your department or linked to your
programme. Your cooperation and participation in this research will be very much
appreciated and will have an impact upon the significance of the findings.

I trust the attached questionnaire is straightforward and that it will not take much of your
time to complete. I will be very grateful if you could send me materials related to practice
teacher training such as any documentation pertaining to your submission to CCETSW,
course descriptions, course outlines, assessment forms, etc., which you have available.
The information that you share with me will be used for the sole purposes of this project
and will be used in aggregate form only, so that neither you nor your course will be
identified. All research in FCDRC is bound by the Data Protection Act.

In order to get as complete a picture as possible of the extent and scope of practice teacher
training in the United Kingdom I am hoping to hear from as many programmes as
possible. I am collecting similar information from your counterparts in Canada. I have
enclosed a stamped self-addressed envelope for your convenience. I am hopeful you will
take part in this important study and anticipate your response as soon as possible but at the
latest by December 15, 1992.

If you have any questions, you may contact me or my supervisor, Janet Walker, at 091
222 7647, Family and Community Dispute Research Centre, The University of Newcastle
upon Tyne.

Thank you for your participation.

Yours truly,

Gayla Rogers, BA, BSW, MSW

TRAINING PRACTICE TEACHERS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR COURSE DIRECTORS

OF

APPROVED PRACTICE TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMMES

ABOUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is divided into five parts. Part I asks for some specific details about the Practice Teacher course with which you are involved.

Part II enquires about the format, structure and content of the Practice Teacher course you presently offer, while Part III asks you to describe the types of training previously provided to practice teachers by your programme.

Part IV provides a series of statements about practice teacher training and asks for your views on a number of issues. You are asked to circle a number between 1 and 5 that best reflects the extent to which you agree with the statements.

The last part, Part V, asks for some personal information and provides an opportunity for you to express your views about training practice teachers in an open-ended way.

I would appreciate it if you would attach any documentation pertaining to preparing, informing or training the practice teachers associated with your programme.

You will find explanatory notes included with each part of the questionnaire. Once again I would like to emphasise that ALL the information you provide will be treated in the STRICTEST CONFIDENCE.

Thank you very much for your time.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRACTICE TEACHER TRAINING COURSE DIRECTORS

PART I: SPECIFIC DETAILS

I am interested in some specific details about the Approved Practice Teacher Training Programme with which you are involved.

1. In what month and year did you first offer your Approved Practice Teacher Training programme?

    month: year: 19____

2. How many times has the programme been offered since it began and what was the enrollment and completion each time? Please supply the dates of each Practice Teacher Training programme and put number enrolled, the number completed and the number of participants receiving the Practice Teacher award beside it.

DATE OFFERED	NUMBER ENROLLED	NUMBER COMPLETED	NUMBER RECEIVING AWARD

3. How many staff currently teach on the Approved Practice Teachers programme? Please list their affiliation and background, not names.

4. What is the length of your practice teacher training programme?

    There are ___ sessions that meet for ___ hours per day for ___ days per week for ___ weeks.

PART II: PROGRAMME FORMAT, STRUCTURE AND CONTENT

This section asks questions about the format, structure and content of the Practice Teachers Training Programme with which you are invoved.

1. What is the format of your programme? Tick as many as applicable.

    _ lecture
    _ small group discussion
    _ role play
    _ videotaping and playback
    _ independent study
    _ other. Please describe:

2.   (a) Do you have a process for selecting participants into the programme?

          YES ____   NO ____

      (b) If YES, how are participants selected? (Tick as many as applicable)

                    By written application
                    By personal interview
                    By minimum requirements:
                    CQSW
                    New practice teacher
                    Hold a social work position
                    Other (please specify):

3.   Briefly describe the content or topic for each session?

      Session 1:
      Session 2:
      Session 3:
      Session 4:
      Session 5:
      Session 6:
      Session 7:
      Session 8:
      Session 9:
      Session 10:
      (please continue listing session number and topics on back)

4.   How are participants/student practice teachers assessed? Tick as many as applicable.

      written assignments   _____
      oral presentation   _____
      continuous assessment   _____
      examination   _____
      portfolio   _____
      live supervison   _____
      audio/videotape of practice   _____
      behaviour in class   _____
      other (please describe):   _____

      If you ticked assignments, how many assignments are practice teachers expected to complete?

                              _____

      If you ticked assignments, please briefly describe each assignment below.

      If you ticked portfolio, please list what is to be included in the portfolio.

5.   Do participants receive feedback on their progress and performance?

      If YES, how is feedback provided? Tick as many as applicable

      Written comments from course leader
      Verbal comments in private
      Verbal comments in class
      Mark (letter grade/percentage)
      Report from assessment panel
      Other (please specify):

6.   Does your programme have an assessment panel?

            YES ____   NO ____

      If NO, who is involved in the assessment process?

7.   Who has access to the assessment material? Tick as many as applicable.
                  _ student practice teacher
                  _ course tutor
                  _ line manager of student practice teacher
                  _ other (please specify):

8.   Do the participants/student practice teachers assess the programme upon completion?

            YES ____   NO ____

      If YES, how is this done? Tick as many as applicable.

                  _ written form
                  _ verbal feedback
                  _ other (please specify):

PART III: PREVIOUS TRAINING FOR PRACTICE TEACHERS

Prior to offering your approved Practice Teaching programme, please describe the nature and extent of training, if any, that you provided for practice teachers. Please tick as many as applicable.

1.   Training can include any activity designed to assist and enhance the field instructor's ability to work with your students and can include:

      _   a formal course, a full-length course but not an Approved Practice Teacher Training programme (participants earn credits for completion and/or competence, assignments required)

      _   a short course, several sessions over a number of weeks (participants may earn something such as a certificate for completion and/or competence, assignments may be required)

      _   workshops or seminars (offered once or more during the time practice teachers have a student, focused on specific aspects of practice teaching)

_   orientation sessions for practice teachers (held at or near the beginning of term to provide
      general information about requirements and expectations)

_   individual preparation of practice teachers (usually provided by the tutor to give general
      information about practice learning and specific information about students)

_   other (please briefly describe):

PART IV: TRAINING ISSUES

The next section asks for your opinions on training issues. Your opinions do not need to represent
those of your programme but emerge from your experience in preparing and working with practice
teachers. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. The amount of time required for the practice teacher training course is adequate to meet the objectives of the course.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Training for practice teachers should be multi-disciplinary including other related or social care professionals.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The training we provide is multi-disciplinary including other related or social care professionals.	1	2	3	4	5
4. CCETSW's requirements for the accreditation of practice teachers provide necessary guidelines to programmes.	1	2	3	4	5
5. A practice teacher training programme should prepare practice teachers to demonstrate and teach about anti-discriminatory practice.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The programme we provide prepares practice teachers to demonstrate and teach about anti-discriminatory practice.	1	2	3	4	5
7. A practice teacher training programme should help practice teachers incorporate anti-discriminatory practice experiences into their students' learning on placement.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The practice teacher training programme we provide helps practice teachers incorporate anti-discriminatory practice experiences into their students' learning on placement.	1	2	3	4	5

9. A practice teacher training programme should   1   2   3   4   5
   sensitise practice teachers to
   international issues and help practice
   teachers incorporate globally relevant
   practice experiences into their students
   learning on placement.

10. The programme we provide sensitises practice   1   2   3   4   5
    teachers to international issues and helps
    practice teachers incorporate globally relevant
    practice experiences into their students
    learning on placement.

PART V: PERSONAL INFORMATION AND OPINIONS

1.   Year of Birth: 19____

2.   Gender: Female ____   Male ____

3.   Ethnic Origin (Please identify the group to which you consider you belong.)

   _____

4.   Would you describe yourself as disabled?   Yes ____   No____

5.   What is your educational background? (Please list all degrees, diplomas, certificates and
     awards and give the year granted.)

          Degree/Diploma/Certificate/Award   Year

          _____   _____

          _____   _____

6.   Do you regularly read any social work related journals?
     Yes _____   No_____

     If YES, please indicate which ones. _____

   _____

The following are open-ended questions.

29. a) If you could change one thing about the format of your practice teacher training
        programme, what would you change?

29. b) What do you like best about the format of your practice teacher training
        programme?

30. a) If you could, what would you change or add to the <u>content</u> of your practice teacher training programme? (List up to 3 topics in order of importance.)

    1. _____

    2. _____

    3. _____

30. b) In your opinion, what is the most important <u>content</u> in your practice teacher training programme? (List up to 3 topics in order of importance.)

    1. _____

    2. _____

    3. _____

31. a) If you could change any of CCETSW's requirements for practice teacher training, what would you change? (List up to 3 items in order of importance.)

    1. _____

    2. _____

    3. _____

31. b) Which of CCETSW's requirements for Practice Teacher training are most necessary? (List up to 3 items in order of importance.)

    1. _____

    2. _____

    3. _____

32. Please feel free to make any comment about training practice teachers.

_____

_____

33. Could I contact you again for further information?   _____ yes ____ no

    Telephone: _____ Fax: _____

Thank you for your time and cooperation. Please enclose whatever materials you have available about your practice teacher training course such as course outlines, reading lists, assignments, etc.

Course materials enclosed: YES ____   NO ____

Date questionnaire completed: _____

<center>THANK YOU FOR YOUR PROMPT CONSIDERATION</center>

APPENDIX B

CANADIAN FIELD DIRECTORS

QUESTIONNAIRE — NATIONAL SURVEY

September 1992

Dear

I am currently on leave from the Faculty of Social Work, The University of Calgary doing research for a Ph.D. at The University of Newcastle upon Tyne, England. My research involves an examination and comparison of field instructor training in the United Kingdom and Canada.

I am writing to invite you to contribute to this research by completing the attached questionnaire. It asks for your opinions and your programme's practices regarding the preparation and training of field instructors. I understand that you are involved in the coordination of the field education component of your social work programme. If this is incorrect, it would be most helpful if you could please forward this letter to the appropriate person in your programme.

I trust the attached questionnaire is straightforward and that it will not take much of your time to complete. I will be very grateful if you could also send me materials related to the preparation and training of your field instructors such as workshop or course outlines and descriptions, reading lists, evaluation forms, etc., which you may have available.

The information that you share with me will be for the sole purposes of this study and will be used in aggregate form only, so that neither you nor your programme will be identified. In order to get as complete a picture as possible of the extent and scope of field instructor training in Canada I am hoping to hear from all Canadian social work programmes. I am collecting similar information from your counterparts in the United Kingdom. I have enclosed a stamped self-addressed envelope for your convenience. I am hopeful you will take part in this important study and anticipate your response as soon as possible but at the latest by November 15, 1992.

If you have any questions you may contact me at 403 220 4696 in Calgary or my supervisor Janet Walker, Department of Social Policy, The University of Newcastle Upon Tyne, England, NE1 7RU.

Thank you for your participation.

Yours truly

Gayla Rogers, BA, BSW, MSW, RSW

TRAINING FIELD INSTRUCTORS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FIELD COORDINATORS/DIRECTORS

OF

CANADIAN SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK

ABOUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is divided into five parts. Part I describes a range of types of training for field instructors and asks you to indicate which ones are offered by your programme.

Parts II and/or III asks for details about the training and are to be answered depending which type of training is offered by your programme.

Part IV provides a series of statements about field instructor training and asks for your views on a number of issues. You are asked to circle a number between 1 and 5 that best reflects the extent to which you agree with the statements.

The last part, Part V, asks for some personal information and provides an opportunity for you to express your views about training field instructors in an open-ended way.

I would appreciate it if you would attach any documentation pertaining to preparing, informing or training the field instructors associated with your programme. Feel free to consult with anyone else in your programme who is involved with field instructor training.

You will find explanatory notes included with each part of the questionnaire. Once again I would like to emphasize that ALL the information you provide will be treated in the STRICTEST CONFIDENCE.

Thank you very much for your time.

Questionnaire for Field Coordinators/Directors

I am interested in the type of training that is offered and provided by your program for field instructors.

PART I: TYPES OF TRAINING

Training can include any activity designed to assist and enhance the field instructor's ability to work with students.

1. Please describe the type of training that is offered by your program for field instructors by ticking the appropriate description of training. If you offer a range of training options please tick as many as are applicable.

    _____ Formal courses, regularly scheduled during an academic term (participants earn credits for completion and/or competence, assignments required)

    _____ Short courses, several sessions over a number of weeks (participants may earn something such as a certificate for completion and/or competence, assignments may be required)

    _____ Workshops or Seminars (offered once or more during a term, usually focused on specific aspects of field instruction)

    _____ Orientation sessions for field instructors (held at or near the beginning of term to provide general information about requirements and expectations)

    _____ Individual preparation of field instructors (usually provided by the faculty liaison to give general information about the field program and specific information about students)

    _____ Other: please briefly describe:

    _____

    _____

    _____

_____ None: If you have ticked this, please go directly to Part IV on page 8.

PART II: FORMAL OR SHORT COURSES

If you offer FORMAL or SHORT COURSES, please answer the following questions. If you do NOT offer this type of training, go directly to PART III on page 6.

These questions ask for specific details about the Formal or Short courses you provide to train your field instructors.

1. In what year did you <u>first</u> offer the course?

    Formal: _____   Short: _____

2. Do you <u>require</u> your field instructors to take the course?

    Formal: Yes _____   No _____
    Short: Yes _____   No _____

3. How many field instructors completed your course in the 1991-92 academic year?

    Formal: _____   Short: _____

4. How many field instructors do you anticipate will take your course in the 1992-93 academic year?

    Formal: _____   Short: _____

5. What has been the response by field instructors to your courses?

		<u>FORMAL</u>	<u>SHORT</u>
a)	Very positive, courses are over-subscribed with waiting lists	_____	_____
b)	Positive, courses are filled, everyone is accommodated	_____	_____
c)	Some interest, courses have enough to run but could take more	_____	_____
d)	Little interest, courses have few participants, may not offer in the future	_____	_____
e)	Other: please describe _____	_____	_____

6. What is the length of the course?

    Formal   _____ hours per day for _____ days for _____ weeks
    Short: _____ hours per day for _____ days for _____ weeks

7. Who conducts the training of the course? (Tick as many as applicable)

<div style="margin-left: 2em;">

	FORMAL	SHORT
Field coordinator/director	_____	_____
Faculty member	_____	_____
Other: please describe background and	_____	_____
affiliation — NOT names _____		

</div>

_____

8 (a) Do you have a procedure for selecting participants into the course?

<div style="margin-left: 2em;">

Formal: YES ____   NO ____
Short: YES ____   NO ____

</div>

(b) If YES, how are participants selected? (Tick as many as applicable)

<div style="margin-left: 2em;">

	FORMAL	SHORT
By written application	_____	_____
By personal interview	_____	_____
By minimum requirements:		
MSW	_____	_____
BSW	_____	_____
First time field instructor	_____	_____
Worked as social worker for ___ years	_____	_____
Other (please specify): _____	_____	_____

</div>

_____

_____

9. (a) Do participants complete assignments as a part of the course?

<div style="margin-left: 2em;">

Formal: YES _____   how many _____   NO ____
Short: YES _____   how many _____   NO ____

</div>

(b) If YES, please briefly describe each assignment below:

_____

_____

10. (a) Do participants receive feedback on their progress and performance?

<div style="margin-left: 2em;">

Formal: YES _____   NO ____
Short: YES _____   NO ____

</div>

(b) If YES, how is feedback provided? (Tick as many as applicable)

	FORMAL	SHORT
Written comments/report		
Verbal comments in private		
Verbal comments in class		
Mark (letter grade/percentage)		
Other (please specify): _____		

11. (a) Is the competency of participant evaluated?

Formal: yes _____   no _____
Short: yes _____   no _____

(b) If YES, how are participants evaluated? (Tick as many as applicable)

	FORMAL	SHORT
Written assignment		
Oral presentation		
Exam		
Audio/videotape of practice _____		
Behaviour in class		
Continuous evaluation		
Other (please describe): _____		

(c) If YES, who does the evaluation? (Tick as many as applicable)

	FORMAL	SHORT
Course instructor		
Peers _____		
Self		
Other (please describe): _____		

12. (a) Do participants evaluate the course upon completion?

Formal: YES _____   NO _____
Short: YES _____   NO _____

(b) If YES, how is this done? (Tick as many as applicable)

	FORMAL	SHORT
Written evaluation form	_____	_____
Verbal feedback to instructor _____	_____	_____
Other (please describe):_____	_____	_____

_____

13.   What is the format of the course you provide? (Tick as many as applicable)

	FORMAL	SHORT
Lecture	_____	_____
Small group discussion	_____	_____
Role play	_____	_____
Videotaping and playback	_____	_____
Independent study	_____	_____
Other (please describe):	_____	_____

_____

14.   Please list the main topics covered in each session of the course:

	FORMAL	SHORT
Session 1:	_____	
Session 2:	_____	
Session 3:	_____	
Session 4:	_____	
Session 5:	_____	
Session 6:	_____	
Session 7:	_____	
Session 8:	_____	

(If you offer more than 8 sessions, please continue listing session number and topics on back)

PART III: WORKSHOPS/SEMINARS, ORIENTATION AND INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION

If you offer the type of training for field instructors that are Workshops/seminars, Orientation sessions and/or Individual preparation of field instructors, please answer the following questions. If you do NOT offer this type of training, go to PART IV on page 8.

These questions ask for specific details about the Workshops/seminars (wrk/sem), Orientation sessions (orient), and Individual preparation of field instructors (indiv prep) provided by your program for training field instructors.

1. How many field instructors received this type of training in the 1991/92 academic year?

      wrk/sem _____   orient _____   indiv prep _____

2. How many field instructors do you anticipate training in the 1992/93 academic year?

      wrk/sem _____   orient _____   indiv prep _____

3. In this academic year how many hours of training will be provided to field instructors?

      we offer _____ workshops/seminars for _____ hours each

      we offer _____ orientation sessions for _____ hours each

      we offer individual preparation for _____ field instructors for _____ hours per field instructor

4. Do you <u>require</u> your field instructors to take this training?

      Workshop/seminar: Yes _____   No _____

      Orientation session: Yes _____   No _____

      Individual preparation: Yes _____   No _____

5. Do field instructors receive an evaluation or feedback on their progress and performance from this training?

	YES	NO
Workshop/seminar	_____	_____
Orientation session	_____	_____
Individual preparation	_____	_____

6. Is this training evaluated by the field instructors upon completion?

	YES	NO
Workshop/seminar	_____	_____
Orientation session	_____	_____
Individual preparation	_____	_____

7.   Are field instructors given any assignments to complete?

        Workshop/seminar   YES _____ how many _____   NO _____

        Orientation session   YES _____ how many _____   NO _____

        Individual preparation   YES _____ how many _____   NO _____

8.   What is the <u>format</u> of the training you provide? (Tick as many as applicable)

	WRK/SEM	ORIENT	INDIV PREP
Lecture	_____	_____	_____
Small group discussion	_____	_____	_____
Role play	_____	_____	_____
Videotaping and playback	_____	_____	_____
Independent study	_____	_____	_____
Other (please describe): _____	_____	_____	_____

_____

_____

9.   Please list the main topics covered in each training session you offer: (If you require more space than provided please use back)

WORKSHOPS/SEMINARS

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

ORIENTATION SESSIONS

1. _____

2. _____

INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION

_____

_____

_____

PART IV: TRAINING ISSUES

The next section asks for your opinions on training issues. Your opinions do not need to represent those of your programme but emerge from your experience in preparing and working with field instructors.

Please indicate the <u>extent to which you agree</u> with the following statements.

		strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree or agree	agree	strongly agree
1.	Field instructors require specific training for this role.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Training for field instructors should be mandatory.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	The <u>amount</u> of training we provide our field instructors is adequate to meet our expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	The <u>type</u> of training we provide our field instructors is adequate to meet our expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Training for field instructors should be multi-disciplinary including other related professionals.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	The training we provide is multi-disciplinary including other related professionals.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Field instructor training should sensitise field instructors to international issues and help field instructors incorporate globally relevant practice experiences into the field placement.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	The training we provide sensitises field instructors to international issues and helps field instructors incorporate globally relevant practice experiences into the field placement.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Field instructor training should prepare field instructors to demonstrate and teach about ethnically-sensitive and anti-discriminatory practice.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	The training we provide prepares field instructors to demonstrate and teach about ethnically-sensitive and anti-discriminatory practice.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	The training we provide follows the manual sent out by CASSW: Bogo, M. & Vayda, E. (1990). *The practice of field instruction in social work: A teaching guide.*	1	2	3	4	5
12.	CASSW should require schools to provide training for field instructors.	1	2	3	4	5

298

PART V: PERSONAL INFORMATION AND OPINIONS

1. Year of Birth: 19_____

2. Gender: Female _____   Male _____

3. Ethnic Origin (Please identify the group to which you consider you belong.)

_____

4. Would you describe yourself as disabled?   Yes _____   No_____

5. What is your educational background? (Please list all degrees and give year awarded.)

Degree	Year
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

6. Do you regularly read any social work related journals?   Yes _____   No_____

   If YES, please indicate which ones. _____

The following are open-ended questions.

1. If you could change one thing about the type of training you provide for your field instructors, what would you change?

   _____

   _____

2. What do you like best about the type of training you provide for your field instructors?

   _____

   _____

3. If you could, what would you change or add to the content of your field instructor training? (List up to 3 topics in order of importance.)

   1. _____
   2. _____
   3. _____

4. In your opinion, what is the most important <u>content</u> in your field instructor

    training? (List up to 3 topics in order of importance.)

    1. _____

    2. _____

    3. _____

5. Please feel free to make any additional comments about training field instructors.

    _____

    _____

Could I contact you again for further information?

                    YES _____   NO _____

          Telephone: _____   Fax: _____

Thank you for your time and cooperation. Please enclose whatever materials you have

available about your field instructor training such as course outlines, reading lists,

descriptions, etc.

Course/training materials enclosed: YES _____   NO _____

Date questionnaire completed: _____

SEND TO: Gayla Rogers   FAX: (403) 282-7269
           Faculty of Social Work   PHONE: (403) 220-4696
           The University of Calgary
           2500 University Drive N.W.
           Calgary, AB Canada
           T2N 1N4

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PROMPT CONSIDERATION

APPENDIX C

UK PARTICIPANTS QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear

Now that you have completed the group learning days on the programme for practice teaching, I have enclosed a short questionnaire regarding your views of this course. As I mentioned to you during the first week of the programme, I am attempting to examine and compare practice teacher training in the United Kingdom and Canada.

In this phase of my work I am particularly interested in your perceptions of the training you have just received regarding its helpfulness in preparing you to be a competent practice teacher. I am also interested in whether or not you have transferred what you learned on the programme to your work with students. In the follow-up to this questionnaire I will be asking for your opinions about what content and processes comprise quality training for practice teachers in addition to the above.

As you can appreciate, the quality of my findings rests on your willingness to participate in completing the attached questionnaire. I believe this study has much to contribute to practice teaching which is an important aspect of social work education and training. Your honesty and effort in responding will thereby provide a considerable benefit to the social work profession.

Your anonymity will be guaranteed. Your perceptions and opinions will neither be shared with the Newcastle Polytechnic nor will they be used in any format that would reveal your identity in any subsequent write-up of the research. At a later date I will be happy to share my findings with those who participated in the study. The returned questionnaires will be kept in a secure place and destroyed once the research is complete. All research in FCDRC is bound by the Data Protection Act.

If you have any questions or concerns, you may contact me or my supervisor, Janet Walker, at 091 222 7647, Family and Community Dispute Research Centre, The University of Newcastle upon Tyne. I look forward to receiving the completed questionnaire by June 30, 1992 in the enclosed prepaid self-addressed envelope.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Gayla Rogers, BA, BSW, MSW

CONSENT FORM

Please complete the following information if you are interested and willing to further participate in this research project regarding the helpfulness of practice teacher training to being a practice teacher. The information received will be only used for this research, will be kept in a secure place and will be disposed of once the project is complete. The confidentiality of all participants will be ensured as information will be used in aggregate form and no identifying information will be revealed.

I appreciate your contribution to my research.

Gayla Rogers, BSW, MSW
Assistant Professor
University of Calgary

(Please print clearly)

Name: _____   **Tel:** _____

Mailing Address: _____

                    _____

                    _____

                    _____

(Please check)

I am willing to complete a questionnaire when this course
    is finished in June.   ☐ Yes

I am willing to talk with you for approximately ½ hour
    in the fall (late October/early November).   ☐ Yes

_____   _____
Signature   Date

PERCEPTIONS OF PARTICIPANTS

ON A PRACTICE TEACHER'S PROGRAMME

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS ON PROGRAMME FOR PRACTICE TEACHING IN SOCIAL WORK AT NEWCASTLE POLYTECHNIC

AUTUMN PROGRAMME

PERCEPTIONS OF PARTICIPANTS

ON PRACTICE TEACHER TRAINING

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS ON PROGRAMME FOR PRACTICE TEACHING IN SOCIAL WORK

SPRING PROGRAMME

ABOUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is divided into seven sections. Section I asks for details about your employment background. Section II asks for details about your educational background with reference to both social work and non-social work education. Section III asks questions about your experience as a practice teacher. This includes practice teaching prior to taking the Practice Teacher's Programme and while on the Programme.

In Section IV you are asked to reflect on your thoughts prior to taking the Practice Teacher's Programme.

Section V provides a series of statements about the Practice Teacher's Programme and asks for your views on a number of issues such as the content and format of the Programme. You are asked to circle a number between 1 and 5 that best reflects the extent to which to agree with the statements. The second part of this section asks you to evaluate certain components of the programme in terms of how helpful it was to your learning.

In Section VI you are asked for your opinions and ideas about practice teacher training by completing a variety of sentences.

The last section, Section VII, asks for some personal information and provides an opportunity for you to express your views and perceptions of the Practice Teacher's Programme you have recently completed.

I am very keen to hear your views about and experiences of participating in practice teacher training. If you wish to attach any documentation that you feel would be relevant, I will be very pleased to receive it.

You will find explanatory notes included in certain questions. Please read the note carefully before answering the question.

Once again I would like to emphasise that ALL the information you provide will be treated in the STRICTEST CONFIDENCE.

Thank you very much for your help.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS ON PRACTICE TEACHER TRAINING

SECTION I - EMPLOYMENT BACKGROUND

1. Please give the following information about your current job:

    Job title:

    Level/grade:

    Full time: Part time:

    Date of appointment to present post: 19__

2. Please describe your workplace and usual work responsibilities:

    Work setting: (please tick all that apply)

        Fieldwork
        Residential
        Hospital
        Day care
        Intermediate treatment
        Community
        Probation
        Other (please specify)

    Main client/user group: (please tick all that apply)

        Children & families
        Adolescents
        Children in care
        Mentally ill
        Physically disabled
        Learning disabled
        Elderly
        Ethnic minorities
        Offenders
        Other (please specify)

    Main methods of work:

        Social casework
        Group work
        Community work
        Welfare rights work
        Task-centred work
        Crisis intervention
        Counselling
        Family therapy
        Social skills training
        Play therapy
        Social care planning
        Family conciliation/mediation
        Other (please specify)

3. For how many years have you been employed in social work posts?

4. Please provide the year you were first employed in a social work post?

    19___

SECTION II - EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

5. Please describe your educational background. Do you have (please circle):

GCSEs, 'O' Levels or equivalent	YES	NO
'A' Levels or equivalent	YES	NO
Diploma	YES	NO

(if YES, please describe & give year awarded)

    _____   19___

Degree	YES	NO

(if YES, please describe & give year awarded)

    Undergraduate _____   19___

    Postgraduate _____   19___

CQSW	YES	NO

(if YES, please give year awarded)   19___

CSS	YES	NO

(if YES, please give year awarded)   19___

6. Do you have any other academic or professional qualifications? Please include all qualifications including non-social work.

    YES   NO

    If YES, please specify:

    Qualification   Year Awarded

7. Do you have any post qualifying awards or diplomas in social work?

    YES   NO

    If YES, please specify:

    Qualification   Year Awarded

8. Have you attended any in-service training in the past 2 years?

    YES   NO

    If YES, please list type of training & year attended.

    Type of Training   Year Attended

9. Have you received any other training for practice teaching prior to this programme?

    YES   NO

    If YES, please specify the following information:

    Year   Nature of Training

SECTION III - PRACTICE TEACHING EXPERIENCE

10. Did you act as a practice teacher for a student on an assessed placement while taking this programme?

    YES   NO

    If NO, please give reasons:

    If YES, indicate for how many students:

    And type of course: CSS   CQSW
DipSW

11. Have you been a practice teacher for a student on an assessed placement prior to this programme?

YES   NO

If YES, please answer the following questions:

1. In which year did you first supervise a student on an assessed placement?
   19__

2. How many social work students have you supervised previously on assessed placements?

CSS   CQSW   DipSW   Other (specify)

SECTION IV - PRACTICE TEACHER'S PROGRAMME: PRE-PROGRAMME QUESTIONS

12. Looking back to your thoughts before you started this programme, please answer the following questions:

1. What were your main reasons for taking this programme? (Please tick all that apply)

   Asked by training officer in agency
   Asked by line manager
   To increase knowledge about practice teaching
   To obtain Practice Teacher Award
   To improve skills in practice teaching
   Important for career development
   Other (please specify)

2. What factors contributed to the decision to take this course? List as many as were relevant in order of importance.

   1.

   2.

   3.

   4.

   5.

3. Were there any obstacles to taking this course?

YES   NO

If YES, please describe what these were:

SECTION V - PRACTICE TEACHER'S PROGRAMME: ISSUES

13. The following question asks you for your view on a number of issues about the practice teacher's programme. Please circle the number indicating the **extent to which you agree or disagree** with the following statements.

1 = strongly agree 2 = agree 3 = neither agree nor disagree 4 = disagree 5 = strongly disagree
9 = not applicable

1. I was provided with enough information about the
content of the programme before it began.   1   2   3   4   5   9

2. I was provided with enough information about the
requirements of the programme before it began.   1   2   3   4   5   9

3. I was provided with enough information about the
format of the programme before it began.   1   2   3   4   5   9

4. The selection process into the programme was
appropriate for me.   1   2   3   4   5   9

5. My line manager allowed me adequate time from my
normal workload to fulfil the requirements of
this programme.   1   2   3   4   5   9

6. There was enough emphasis on anti-discriminatory
practice teaching in terms of developing learning
opportunities for students.   1   2   3   4   5   9

7. There was enough emphasis on anti-discriminatory
practice teaching in terms of assessing student
competence.   1   2   3   4   5   9

8. The session(s) on anti-discriminatory practice
provided me with new information.   1   2   3   4   5   9

9. I am using the knowedge I gained about anti-
discriminatory practice in my work as a
practice teacher.   1   2   3   4   5   9

10. The teaching methods used by the course
leaders to cover the topic of anti-discriminatory
practice were helpful to my learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

11. There was enough emphasis on teaching strategies
appropriate for social work students.   1   2   3   4   5   9

12. The session(s) on teaching strategies provided
me with new information.   1   2   3   4   5   9

13. I am using the knowledge I gained about teaching
stratgies in my work as a practice teacher.   1   2   3   4   5   9

14. The teaching methods used by the course leaders
to cover the topic of teaching stategies were
helpful to my learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

15. There was enough emphasis on accreditation of
prior learning to help me understand what my student
brought to the placement.   1   2   3   4   5   9

16. The session(s) on accreditation of prior learning
provided me with new information.   1   2   3   4   5   9

17. I am using the knowledge I gained about
accreditation of prior learning in my work as a
practice teacher.   1   2   3   4   5   9

18. The teaching methods used by the course leaders
to cover the topic of accreditation of prior
learning were helpful to my learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

19. There was enough emphasis on learning contracts.   1   2   3   4   5   9

20. The session(s) on learning contracts provided me
with new information.   1   2   3   4   5   9

21. I am using the knowedge I gained about learning
contracts in my work as a practice teacher.   1   2   3   4   5   9

22. The teaching methods used by the course leaders
to cover the topic of learning contracts were
helpful to my learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

23. There was enough emphasis on supervision models.   1   2   3   4   59

24. The session(s) on supervision models provided me
with new information.   1   2   3   4   5   9

25. I am using the knowledge I gained about
supervison models in my work as a practice teacher.   1   2   3   4   5   9

26. The teaching methods used by the course leaders
to cover the topic of supervision models were
helpful to my learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

27. There was enough emphasis on assessment of
student performance and progress.   1   2   3   4   5   9

28. The sessions on student assessment provided
me with new information.   1   2   3   4   5   9

29. I am using the knowledge I gained about student
assessment in my work as a practice teacher.   1   2   3   4   5   9

30. The teaching methods used by the course leaders
to cover the topic of student assessment were
helpful to my learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

31. There was enough emphasis on writing a student's
final report.   1   2   3   4   5   9

32. The session(s) on report writing provided me
with new information.   1   2   3   4   5   9

33. I am using the knowledge I gained about report
writing in my work as a practice teacher.   1   2   3   4   5   9

34. The teaching methods used by the course leaders
to cover report writing were helpful to my learning. 1   2   3   4   5   9

35. There was enough emphasis on dealing with
difficult or problematic student situations.   1   2   3   4   5   9

36. The session(s) on dealing with problematic
situations provided me with new learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

37. I am using the knowledge I gained about dealing
with problematic situations in my work as a
practice teacher.   1   2   3   4   5   9

38. The teaching methods used by the course leaders
to cover the topic of problematic situations were
helpful to my learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

39. I have used the library to further my knowledge
about practice teaching.   1   2   3   4   5   9

40. In general there was enough content on practice
teaching covered in this programme.   1   2   3   4   5   9

41. In general there were enough opportunities
to practice what I was learning during the course.   1   2   3   4   5   9

42. The teaching practice group I was in was
focused and we got a lot accomplished.   1   2   3   4   5   9

43. Having taken this programme I feel able
to prepare a portfolio.   1   2   3   4   5   9

44. Having taken this programme I feel prepared
to be a competent practice teacher.   1   2   3   4   5   9

14. Please evaluate each of the following components of the Practice Teacher's Programme according to their degree of **helpfulness to your learning**.

1= not helpful   2 = somewhat helpful   3 = helpful   4 = very helpful   5 = most helpful   9 = not applicable

1. The <u>block week</u> at the beginning of the programme.   1   2   3   4   5   9

2. The <u>library orientation</u> during the block week.   1   2   3   4   5   9

3. The <u>group learning days</u> each Wednesday.   1   2   3   4   5   9

4. The <u>teaching practice group</u> to which I was assigned.   1   2   3   4   59

5. The <u>independent study times</u> allotted during
the programme.   1   2   3   4   5   9

6. The <u>observation visits</u> made to my workplace.   1   2   3   4   5   9

7. The articles and other reading materials that
were handed out.   1   2   3   4   5   9

8. The assignments that were recommended.   1   2   3   4   5   9

9. The support I received form my line manager
(agency practice organiser).   1   2   3   4   5   9

10. The feedback I received from my course consultant
(tutor) on my progress and development.   1   2   3   4   5   9

11. The teaching methods that were used by the
course leaders.   1   2   3   4   5   9

12. The assistance and direction I received to
prepare my portfolio.   1   2   3   4   5   9

SECTION VI - PRACTICE TEACHER'S PROGRAMME: OPINIONS & IDEAS

15. Please complete the following sentences.

1. The highlight for me during this course was

2. The low point for me during this course was

3. An incident that happened during this course that was significant for me was

4. The part of the course I learned the most from was

5. The part of the course I learned the least from was

6. If I were teaching this course, I would be sure to include (or add) the following aspects/topics:

7. If I were teaching this course, I would NOT include the following aspects/topics:

8. The teaching methods used by the course leaders that were most helpful to my learning were

9. The teaching methods used by the course leaders that were least helpful to my learning were

SECTION VII - PERSONAL INFORMATION AND PERCEPTIONS

16. Year of Birth: 19__

17. Gender: female   male

18. Ethnic Origin: (Please identify the group to which you consider you belong)

19. Would you describe yourself as disabled?   YES   NO

20. Do you regularly read any social work related journals?

    YES   NO

    If YES, please indicate which ones:

21. Please comment on your perceptions of how useful this course has been to you in learning about practice teaching.

22. Please comment on whether or not you feel you are able to <u>transfer what you have learned</u> on the course to your work as a practice teacher and/or to other areas in your life.

Please give the date on which you completed this questionnaire:

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP

PLEASE RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE PRE-PAID ENVELOPE

APPENDIX D

CANADIAN PARTICIPANTS QUESTIONNAIRE

November 20, 1992

Dear :

Now that you have completed the Field Instruction Training Course, I have enclosed a short questionnaire regarding your views of this course. As I mentioned to you during the first session of the course, I am attempting to examine and compare field instructor training in the United Kingdom and Canada.

In this phase of my work, I am particularly interested in your perceptions of the training you have just received regarding its helpfulness in preparing you to be a competent field instructor. I am also interested in whether or not you have transferred what you learned on the course to your work with students. In the follow-up to this questionnaire, I will be asking for your opinions about what content and processes comprise quality training for field instructors in addition to the above.

As you can appreciate, the quality of my findings rests on your willingness to participate in completing the attached questionnaire. I believe this study has much to contribute to field instruction which is an important aspect of social work education and training. Your honesty and effort in responding will thereby provide a considerable benefit to the social work profession.

The information that you share with me will be for the sole purposes of this study and will be used in aggregate form only. Your perceptions and opinions will neither be shared with the School of Social Work nor will they be used in any format that would reveal your identity in any subsequent write up of the research. The returned questionnaires will be kept in a secure place and destroyed once the research is complete.

If you have any questions, you may contact me at (403) 220-4696 in Calgary or my supervisor Janet Walker, Department of Social Policy, The University of Newcastle Upon Tyne, England, NE1 7RU. I am hopeful you will take part in this important study and anticipate your response as soon as possible but at the latest by December 15, 1992. I have enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope for your convenience.

Thank you for your participation and cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Gayla Rogers, BA, BSW, MSW

318

PERCEPTIONS OF PARTICIPANTS

ON FIELD INSTRUCTOR TRAINING

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS IN CANADA

ABOUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is divided into seven sections. Section I asks for details about your employment background. Section II asks for details about your educational background with reference to both social work and non-social work education. Section III asks questions about your experience as a field instructor. This includes field instruction prior to taking the Field Instructor's course and while taking the course.

In Section IV you are asked to reflect on your thoughts prior to taking the Field Instruction Training course.

Section V provides a series of statements about the Field Instruction course and asks for your views on a number of issues such as the content and format of the course. You are asked to circle a number between 1 and 9 that best reflects the extent to which you agree with the statements.

In Section VI you are asked for your opinions and ideas about field instructor training by completing seven different sentences.

The last section, Section VII, asks for some personal information and provides an opportunity for you to express your views and perceptions of the Field Instruction course you have recently completed.

I am very keen to hear your views about and experiences of participating in field instruction training. If you wish to attach any documentation that you feel would be relevant, I will be very pleased to receive it.

You will find explanatory notes included in certain questions. Please read the note carefully before answering the question.

Once again I would like to emphasise that ALL the information you provide will be treated in the STRICTEST CONFIDENCE.

Thank you very much for your help.

CONSENT FORM

Please complete the following information if you willing to participate in this research project regarding the helpfulness of field instructor training to being a field instructor. The information received will be only used for this research, will be kept in a secure place and will be disposed of once the project is complete. The anonymity of all participants will be ensured as information will be used in aggregate form and no identifying information will be revealed. You may withdraw from the study at any time without consequence, and will have an opportunity to be informed about the findings should you so desire.

Gayla Rogers, BSW, MSW
Assistant Professor
The University of Calgary

(Please check)

I am willing to complete a questionnaire when this course   ☐
    is finished in November.

I am willing to talk with you for approximately 1/2 hour in
    in the spring (sometime in April).   ☐

Name: _____   Telephone: _____(work)

Mailing Address: _____   _____(home)

_____   FAX No. _____

_____

_____

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS IN FIELD INSTRUCTION COURSE

SECTION I - EMPLOYMENT BACKGROUND

1. Please give the following information about your job:

   Job title: _____

   Level/grade: _____

   Full time:_____   Part time:_____

   Date of appointment to present position: 19____

2. Please describe your workplace and usual work responsibilities:

   Work setting: broad (please tick all that apply)

        Provincial social services _____
        Municipal social services _____
        Non-governmental organization _____
        Other (please specify): _____

   Work setting: specific (please tick all that apply)

        Residential _____
        Hospital _____
        Day care _____
        Community _____
        Probation/parole _____
        Other (please specify): _____

   Main client/user group: (please tick all that apply)

        Special needs children _____
        Special needs elderly _____
        Families _____
        Adolescents _____
        Mentally/physically handicapped _____
        Offenders _____
        Children in care _____
        Minority groups _____
        Other (please specify): _____

   Main methods of work:

        Social casework _____
        Group work _____
        Community work _____
        Welfare rights work _____
        Task-centred work _____
        Crisis intervention _____
        Counselling _____

Family therapy _____
Social skills training _____
Play therapy _____
Family conciliation/mediation _____
Training/education _____
Case management _____
Other (please specify): _____

3. For how many years have you been employed in social work positions? _____

4. Please provide the year you were first employed in a social work position?

    19___

SECTION II - EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

5. Please describe your educational background. Do you have (please tick):

    High School matriculation or equivalent   YES_____
NO_____
    Diploma (college/technical school)   YES_____
NO_____
    (if YES, please describe & give year awarded)

    _____   19___

    Degree: social work   YES_____
NO_____
    (if YES, please give year awarded)

        BSW ___   19___

        MSW ___   19___

        DSW or Ph.D. ___   19___

    Degree: non-social work   YES_____
NO_____
    (if YES, please describe & give year awarded)

        Undergraduate _____   19___

        Graduate _____   19___

        Postgraduate _____   19___

6. Do you have any other academic or professional qualifications? Please include all
    qualifications including non-social work.

        YES_____   NO_____

        If YES, please specify: Qualification_____   Year Awarded _____

7. Have you attended any in-service staff development or continuing education training in the past 2 years?

      YES_____   NO_____

      If YES, please list type of training & year attended.

Type of Training   _____ Year Attended_____

                  _____   _____

8. Have you received any other training for field instruction prior to this course?

      YES_____   NO_____

      If YES, please specify the following information:

      Year   Nature of Training

      _____   _____

      _____   _____

SECTION III - FIELD INSTRUCTION EXPERIENCE

9. Did you act as a field instructor for a social work student while taking this course?

      YES_____   NO_____

      If NO, please give reasons:

      _____

      _____

      If YES, indicate indicate number of students and type of course:

          BSW   MSW   Community College (specify)   Other (specify)

          ____   ____   _____   _____

10. Have you been a field instructor for a social work student prior to this course?

      YES_____   NO_____

      If YES, please answer the following questions:

      1. In which year did you first supervise a student on field placement?   19___

      2. How many social work students have you supervised previously on field placements?

          BSW   MSW   Community College (specify)   Other (specify)

          ____   ____   _____   _____

SECTION IV - FIELD INSTRUCTOR'S COURSE: PRE-COURSE QUESTIONS

11. Looking back to your thoughts before you started the course, please answer the following questions:

    1. What were your main reasons for taking this course: (Please tick all that apply.)

            Asked by employer   _____

            Asked by supervisor   _____

            To increase knowledge about field instruction   _____

            To obtain credits   _____

            To improve skills in field instruction   _____

            Important for career development   _____

            Other (please specify): _____

    2. What factors contributed to the decision to take this course? List as many as were relevant in order of importance.

        1._____

        2._____

        3._____

        4._____

        5._____

    3. Were there any obstacles to taking this course:

        YES_____   NO_____

        If YES, please describe what these were:

        _____

        _____

        _____

SECTION V - FIELD INSTRUCTOR'S COURSE: ISSUES

13. The following questions ask you for your view on a number of issues about the field
instructor's course. Please circle the number indicating the **extent to which you agree or
disagree** with the following statements.

1 = strongly agree 2 = agree 3 = neither agree nor disagree 4 = disagree 5 = strongly disagree 9 = not applicable

1.	I was provided with enough information about the <u>content</u> of the course before it began.	1	2	3	4	5	9
2.	I was provided with enough information about the <u>requirements</u> of the course before it began.	1	2	3	4	5	9
3.	I was provided with enough information about the <u>format</u> of the course before it began.	1	2	3	4	5	9
4.	The selection process into the course was appropriate for me.	1	2	3	4	5	9
5.	My employer allowed me adequate time from my normal workload to fulfill the requirements of this course.	1	2	3	4	5	9
6.	There was enough emphasis on the beginning phase of field instruction (orientation, identifying needs/learning style).	1	2	3	4	5	9
7.	The session(s) on the beginning phase of field instruction provided me with new information.	1	2	3	4	5	9
8.	I am using the knowledge I gained about the beginning phase of field instruction in my work as a field instructor.	1	2	3	4	5	9
9.	The teaching methods used by the course instructor to cover the beginning phase of field instruction were helpful to my learning.	1	2	3	4	5	9
10.	There was enough emphasis on the contracting phase of field instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	9
11.	The session(s) on the contracting phase of field instruction provided me with new information.	1	2	3	4	5	9
12.	I am using the knowledge I gained about the contracting phase of field instruction in my work as a field instructor.	1	2	3	4	5	9
13.	The teaching methods used by the course instructor to cover the contracting phase of field instruction were helpful to my learning.	1	2	3	4	5	9

14. There was enough emphasis on the work phase of
    field instruction (supervision models, monitoring
    work).   1   2   3   4   5   9

15. The session(s) on the work phase of field
    instruction provided me with new information.   1   2   3   4   5   9

16. I am using the knowledge I gained about the work
    phase of field instruction in my work as a field
    instructor.   1   2   3   4   5   9

17. The teaching methods used by the course instructor
    to cover the work phase of field instruction were
    helpful to my learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

18. There was enough emphasis on the evaluation/
    termination phases of field instruction (evaluating
    progress/performance, mid and final evaluations).   1   2   3   4   5   9

19. The session(s) on the evaluation/termination
    phases of field instruction provided me with new
    information.   1   2   3   4   5   9

20. I am using the knowledge I gained about the
    evaluation/termination phases of field instruction
    in my work as a field instructor.   1   2   3   4   5   9

21. The teaching methods used by the course instructor
    to cover the evaluation/termination phases of field
    instruction were helpful to my learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

22. There was enough emphasis on dealing with difficult
    or problematic student situations.   1   2   3   4   5   9

23. The session(s) on dealing with problematic
    situations provided me with new learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

24. I am using the knowledge I gained about dealing
    with problematic situations in my work as a practice
    teacher.   1   2   3   4   5   9

25. The teaching methods used by the course leaders to
    cover the topic of problematic situations were
    helpful to my learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

26. I have used the library to further my knowledge
    about field instruction.   1   2   3   4   5   9

27. There was enough emphasis on ethnic, cultural
    and other diversity issues relevant to social
    work practice.   1   2   3   4   5   9

28. There was enough emphasis on ethnic, cultural
    and other diversity issues related to working
    with students.   1   2   3   4   .5   9

29. There was enough emphasis on adult learning.   1   2   3   4   5   9

30. There were enough <u>opportunities to practice</u>
    what I was learning during the course.   1   2   3   4   5   9

31. In general there was enough <u>content</u> on field
    instruction.   1   2   3   4   5   9

32. In general the teaching methods used by the course
    instructor suited my learning style.   1   2   3   4   5   9

33. In general the course content was pitched at
    the right level for my learning needs.   1   2   3   4   5   9

34. In general there was enough emphasis on
    the process of field instruction.   1   2   3   4   5   9

35. Having taken this course, I feel prepared to be
    a competent field instructor.   1   2   3   4   5   9

Note to Participants: If you attended the **formal course**, please complete Question 14. If you attended the **short course**, please complete Question 14a.

14. Please evaluate each of the following components of the Field Instructor's Course according to their degree of **helpfulness to the participants' learning**.

1= most helpful 2 = very helpful 3 = helpful 4 = somewhat helpful 5 = not helpful 9 = not applicable

1. The format of meeting every Tuesday morning for
   1½ hours for 13 weeks.   1   2   3   4   5   9

2. The use of lecture presentations by the course
   instructor.   1   2   3   4   5   9

3. Small group exercises/discussions.   1   2   3   4   5   9

4. Large group discussions.   1   2   3   4   5   9

5. Role plays/videotaping and other opportunities to
   practice and develop skills.   1   2   3   4   5   9

6. The articles and other reading materials that were
   handed out.   1   2   3   4   5   9

7. Discussion of articles and other reading materials.   1   2   3   4   5   9

8. The assignments that were recommended:
   a. 2500 word paper.   1   2   3   4   5   9

   b. orientation manual/other materials related to
   students in my setting.   1   2   3   4   5   9

   c. journal of field teaching/learning process.   1   2   3   4   5   9

9. The assistance and direction to complete my
    assignments.   1   2   3   4   5   9

10. The feedback I received from the course instructor
    on my assignments.   1   2   3   4   5   9

11. The feedback I received from the course instructor
    on my progress and development.   1   2   3   4   5   9

12. The support I received from the other participants
    in the course.   1   2   3   4   5   9

14a. Please evaluate each of the following components of the Field Instructor's Course
      according to their degree of **helpfulness to the participants' learning.**

1= most helpful 2 = very helpful 3 = helpful 4 = somewhat helpful 5 = not helpful 9 = not applicable

1. The format of having 5 three-hour sessions.   1   2   3   4   5   9

2. Sessions occurring every two to three weeks.   1   2   3   4   5   9

3. The articles and other reading materials that
    were handed out.   1   2   3   4   5   9

4. Discussion of articles and other reading materials.   1   2   3   4   5   9

5. Small group exercises/discussions.   1   2   3   4   5   9

6. Role plays and other opportunities to practice
    and develop skills.   1   2   3   4   5   9

7. Large group discussions.   1   2   3   4   5   9

8. Presentations/lectures from course instructor.   1   2   3   4   5   9

9. The support I received from the other participants
    in the course.   1   2   3   4   5   9

10. The feedback I received from the course instructor
    on my progress and development.   1   2   3   4   5   9

Participants in both courses, please proceed to Question 15.

SECTION VI - PRACTICE TEACHER'S PROGRAMME: OPINIONS & IDEAS

15. Please complete the following sentences.

    1. The highlight for me during this course was: _____

_____

2. The low point for me during this course was: _____

_____

_____

3. An incident that happened during this course that was significant for me was:

_____

_____

4. The part of the course I learned the most from was:

_____

_____

5. The part of the course I learned the least from was:

_____

_____

6. If I were teaching on this course, I would be sure to include (or add) the following aspects/topics:

_____

_____

7. If I were teaching this course again, I would NOT include the following aspects/topics:

_____

_____

8. The teaching methods used by the course instructor that were most helpful to my learning were:

_____

_____

9. The teaching methods used by the course instructor that were least helpful to my learning were:

_____

_____

_____

_____

SECTION VII - PERSONAL INFORMATION AND PERCEPTIONS

15. Date of Birth: _____

16. Gender: female _____   male _____

17. Ethnic Origin: (Please identify the group to which you consider you belong)

   _____

18. Would you describe yourself as disabled?   YES _____   NO _____

19. Do you regularly read any social work related journals?

   YES   _____   NO   _____

   If YES, please indicate which ones:

   _____

   _____

20. Please comment on your <u>perceptions of how helpful</u> this course has been to you in learning about field instruction.

   _____

   _____

21. Please comment on whether or not you feel you are able to <u>transfer what you have learned</u> on the course to your work as a field instructor and/or to other areas in their lives.

   _____

   _____

Please give the date on which you completed this questionnaire: _____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP

PLEASE RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE PRE-PAID ENVELOPE PROVIDED TO:

Gayla Rogers
Faculty of Social Work
The University of Calgary
2500 University Drive N.W.
Calgary, AB   T2N 1N4