

Does Experiential Training Received by Field Instructors Affect the Supervision Students

Received in Field Settings?

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Does experiential training received by field instructors affect the supervision students receive in field settings?”

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Field education is the signature pedagogy of social work education. Field instructors are well experienced in their area of practice as such are the leading educators of student’s success in field education. As such, field instructors should acquire specialized training that will assist in their transition from being practitioners to becoming educators. Unfortunately, the training that field instructors receive for this vital role takes the form of simply orienting field instructors to curriculum, accreditation policies, and the roles and responsibilities of a social work program as well as critical thinking, Evidence Based Practice, Child Welfare, and cultural competencies amongst others. However, training offered to field instructors does not assist them to transition from practitioner to educator. A quasi-experimental, nonequivalent research design was selected to identify field orientation and training content to enhance field instructors’ knowledge and skills as “educators” in field settings. The specific questions are: 1. Is there a difference between the two groups (experiential and comparison) of field instructors’ and task supervisors’ knowledge of roles/responsibilities related to field education? 2. Is there a difference in perceptions of supervisor competency skills following the completion of the experiential face-to-face training? 3. Is there a difference in the students’ perceptions of field supervision between the field instructors and task supervisors who attended an online-only session vs. those who also

attended the face-to-face experiential training session? 4. Is there a difference in students', field instructors', and task supervisors' perceptions of supervisory competence? The statistical tests results revealed no statistical significance in supervisory competence, with an exception of the role competence.

Keywords: field education, field instructor, task supervisor, CSWE EPAS, social work education

Signature: Bertha Ramona Saldana De Jesus (Signature on file) Date: 5/4/14

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“David also said to Solomon, his son, be strong and courageous, and do the work. Do not be afraid or discouraged, for the LORD God; my God is with you. He will not fail you or forsake you until all the work for the service of the temple of the LORD is finished.”1 Chronicles 28:20.

“But as for you, be strong, and do not give up for your work will be rewarded.”
2 Chronicles 15:7

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Chapter 1: History of Social Work Education

Social work has been challenged to affirm itself as a profession. The social work profession has a history of tension between theoretical and experiential knowledge about which one should be the basis for professional learning. Philanthropic groups with no formal training offered companionship and other services to vulnerable members of society during the colonial period in North America (Segal, 2016), operating under the assumption that anyone without a formal social work education could provide needed services to vulnerable members of society. These philanthropic groups that lacked formal training in conducting investigative assessments of vulnerable individuals in desperate situations, contributed to the decrying of these philanthropic groups (Herrick & Stuart, 2005), raising questions about their effectiveness.

Challenges emerged after the Civil War as economic conditions worsened, producing issues such as: poverty, maltreatment of children, poor labor conditions, overcrowding, poor health, and lack of understanding of the mentally ill among other ills that afflicted society during that time period (Segal, 2016). With the desperate situations of the time, three distinct movements emerged: the Charity Organization Societies (COS), the Settlement Movement, and child welfare reform represented by the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, all of which emerged as a remedy for the issues that affected citizens of society (Lowe & Ried, 1999; Segal, 2016). It is important to note that child welfare reform began with the Children's Aids Society in 1853 for orphan children whose families were poor and unable to care for their children (Segal, 2016) and continued throughout the progressive era and beyond. Each movement mentioned here will be explain below.

The Charity Organization Society (COS)

The Charity Organization Society (COS) Movement had a different approach to meeting the needs of the citizens of society. The movement wanted to “understand and cure poverty and family disorganization” (Lowe & Ried, 1999, p. 11). The desire to understand and cure individual suffering was known as scientific charity. Scientific charity spread rapidly within the United States, breaking ground for social work to become a profession and trained individuals for practice (Herrick & Stuart, 2005), which then became the central focus of the COS movement.

COS was founded by American Protestant ministers and their wealthy congregants who desired to create a charitable enterprise that focused effective assessments reflective of human suffering (Herrick & Stuart, 2005). The movement was organized as an answer to the training needs of charity workers (Herrick & Stuart, 2005). COS charity workers engaged individuals from all social economic class levels within communities, utilizing the concept of a “friendly visitor” or a volunteer. The utilization of a “friendly visitor bridged the gap between the rich and the poor, which won public support by the inescapable logic of its platform” (Richmond, 1930, pp. 33-34). Despite the utilization of the “friendly visitor,” the charity worker required a more rigorous approach to meeting the needs of the vulnerable members of society (Richmond, 1930). The rigorous approach was not found in the utilization of a “friendly visitor”, which brought resolution to the challenges of the time. Instead, training charity workers in the investigative process that would lead them to identify the root of the problem, which in turn would lead to viable solutions, was seen as necessary (Richmond, 1930).

Anna L. Dawes and Mary Richmond asserted that the ineffectiveness of leaders and charity workers was due to the lack of training in scientific charity. They were determined to

stimulate the minds of the administrators and leaders of state institutions, settlement houses, and charity organizations of the fittingness of leadership who manage charity workers who work in large cities and communities (Hand, 1898). Anna L. Dawes delivered a paper in 1893 referencing the need for training schools at the International Congress of Charities and Corrections at the Chicago World's Fair (Hale, 1893). Her paper was precipitated by the presence of unqualified leaders of charitable organizations engaged in philanthropic work. Dawes stated that leaders of these charitable organizations were not knowledgeable about scientific charity, which was the work of the "friendly visitor" (Hale, 1893). She emphasized that the lack of knowledge was due to the lack of training. She alerted leaders and administrators of the International Congress of Charities and Corrections of the need for a training school to enhance the skill of charity workers in scientific charity (Hale, 1893). The need for trained leadership in scientific charity was also paramount. Without trained leaders, charity workers would conform to the practices and norms of the organizational structure, lacking the skills and knowledge to engage with individuals and families in communities.

Shortly after Anna Dawes paper, Mary Richmond became a leader of a COS in New York (Leighninger, 2000). She, like Anna Dawes, realized the lack of training of charity workers, which impeded the growth of the social work profession and as a result, wrote a paper entitled "The Need of a Training School" in 1897 (Feldman & Karmerman, 2001; Richmond, 1930). Mary Richmond trained individual workers on her staff and "prepared a manual of instruction, realizing then the need for professional training for charity workers as paramount" (Richmond, 1930, p. 37). She felt that the field of philanthropy was becoming "specialized" and wanted to place the focus on "discovering a common ground among people involved in the diverse types of charitable endeavors" (Leighninger, 2000, p. 6). There was a need to call

attention to the real commonality of knowledge and skill necessary for engaging with individuals and families in society. These endeavors resulted in the opening of the New York Charity Organization Society Summer School of Applied Philanthropy, which later became the New York School of Social Work (Leighninger, 2000).

The New York School of Social Work offered summer courses and training for charity workers (Feldman & Karmerman, 2001; Leighninger, 2000). Soon after the opening of the training school, Mary Richmond wrote another paper on “The Training of Charity Worker,” which describes the charity worker qualities and needs for training (Richmond, 1930). She outlined that the charity worker had to be “intelligent, and human, and courageous, humorous, and imaginative and sympathetic” (Richmond, 1930, p. 89). Richmond viewed the charity worker attributes as an asset, but stressed the need for education and training in meeting the challenges faced by members of society. She stated added education and training allowed the charity worker to engage in the investigative process and to make informed decisions about constituents while enhancing knowledge and skill acquisition (Richmond, 1930).

Settlement Movement and Child Welfare Reform

The settlement movement began in 1887 with the Neighborhood Guild in New York City with the belief that settlement workers should reside within communities to best serve individuals and families in need (Segal, 2016). This view was based on the concept if workers lived in the neighborhood; the worker was more apt to help their neighbors. These workers were then identified as “resident workers” (Berry, 1986). Lowe and Ried (1999) state that the settlement movement “wanted to be ‘neighbors’ of the poor and to help communities solve self-identified problems such as: daycare, literacy, and citizenship” (p. 10). The child welfare reform movement wanted to protect the children from abuse sustained in the home and from

homelessness produced by the abuse and poverty-stricken families (Lowe & Ried, 1999). Once the children were protected from these abusive and impoverished situations, the job of the social worker was done. The settlement movement did not support the idea of social workers having experience, and the child welfare reform movement thought of itself as an enforcer of the law rather than a social service agency (Lowe & Ried, 1999). It was evident that there was no training for meeting the core needs of what affected the citizens of society during this time period. Social workers appeared to be heroes and heroines, rescuing people from human suffering instead of assisting individuals and families in discovering their core challenges and providing corrective measures.

Social Work Educational Training

Anna Dawes and Mary Richmond brought attention to the need for training workers to meet the needs of vulnerable members of society. In addition to their contributions of the time, African American social workers were also concerned about the “private troubles of individuals and the larger public issues that affected them” (Carlton-LaNey, 1999, p. 311) and the importance of training social workers. These social workers worked directly with individuals, families and the community at large in an effort to help improve the lives of those in desperate situations. Carlton-LaNey (1999) states that African American social workers worked within communities, “personalized problems to alleviate human suffering and concurrently organized and developed private organizations to change the system” (p. 311). The author as well states, “although it was recognized that most individual practicing social workers were not trained professionally, training was nonetheless deemed preferable” (p. 315). African American social workers viewed training as an important aspect of enhancing their ability to meet the needs of individual calamities and organizing for systematic change.

The first professional social work training courses were established in 1911 at Fisk University and later, two schools were established in 1920 for African Americans: The Atlanta School of Social work and the Bishop Tuttle School in Raleigh, North Carolina (Carlton-LaNey, 1999), again marking the importance of professional training in meeting the needs of society. The efforts by Anna Dawes, Mary Richmond, and African American social work pioneers in promoting education and training for social workers established a foundation for educational and training curriculum that is rigorous when preparing future social worker practitioners in meeting societal challenges.

Despite the evolution of social work education and training curriculum, the social work profession appeared to lack professional status compared to other disciplines such as medicine, law, nursing, architecture, and ministry. During a speech given by Abraham Flexner (1915), at the National Conference of Charities and Corrections in Baltimore, Maryland, Flexner questioned if social work was a profession. He stated the “lack of specificity in aim affects the problem of training workers seriously. Professions that can define their objectives precisely can work out educational procedures capable of accomplishing a desired result” (Flexner, 1915, para. 28). Flexner stated that the social work profession did not have a rigorous curriculum to teach students. He continued to state that information taught to students appeared too vague and troublesome to instructors. Flexner shared that one instructor commented, “we don’t know just what to teach them” (Flexner, p. ii) pointing out that the administrators and instructors of the social work schools were individuals with practice experience but not trained social workers (Flexner, 1915), thus bring attention to the need for a rigorous curriculum that prepared students for practice.

Flexner’s critique of the social work educational curriculum lacking rigor brought awareness to the need to develop curriculum that enhances both knowledge and skill. He enlightened leaders that student learning was important and as educators, they had a responsibility to teach students the knowledge and skills of the social work profession with rigor. After Flexner’s speech, the social work profession began to splinter into different areas of practice, which led to the notion of division and specialization within the profession. The chart below was developed to illustrate an updated historical account the diversified areas of specialization in the area of medical social work, school social work, psychiatric social work, group social work, and research (Mizrahi & Davis, 2008; Start & Herrick, 2005) (Table 1).

Table 1

Social work Diversification in Areas of Specialization

Specialization	Founded	Education Background	Practice Focus
American Medical Social Worker (AAMSW)	1918	Two-year graduate degree in social work	Medical Social Work
The Association of Schools of Social Work (ASSW)	1919	Graduate education	School Social work
The American Association of Clinical Social Work (ACSWA)	1926	A one-year course program to a two-year program	Clinical Social Work
The International Association for Social Work with Group Workers (IASWG)	1936		Settlement House
The Association for Community Organization and Social Administration (ACOSA)	1946		Community organizing and social administration
The Social Work Research Group	1949		Research

The American Association of Social Workers (AASW), the only organization not mentioned in this list above, unified the social work professions diversified areas of

specializations. The American Association of Social Workers (AASW), founded in 1921, established professional standards for training and practice commonly found within the mentioned social work groups of practitioners (Stuart & Herrick, 2005) in an effort to create a stronger professional identity throughout the professional community. The creation of the social workers professional identity began with ensuring that field instructors had qualifications to train students in practice settings. The qualifications developed by the American Association of Schools of Social Work (AASW), stipulated that field instructor should have the following:

1. A Master's Degree in Social Work (MSW),
2. two years practice experience,
3. one-year supervisory experience,
4. membership in the American Association of Schools of Social Work or another appropriate professional organization (AASSW, 1943, as cited in Skolnik, 1989, p. 52)

This policy statement outlined the qualifications needed for social work practitioners to become field instructors. As a result of the development of the policy statement and the consolidation of the associative groups, a new organization emerged in 1955, the National Association of Social Workers (Stuart & Herrick, 2005). The National Association of Social Workers (NASW) aimed to unify the professions areas of specialization in an effort to enhance the social workers' professional identity. The organization established goals that included "creating a code of ethics, developing standards, and influencing legislative and federal agency policy" (Stuart & Herrick, 2005, p. 254). These goals created a stronger professional presence in the professional community.

Concurrently, colleges and universities began to regulate their social work curriculums as a result of Flexner's speech (Stuart & Herrick, 2005). The social work educational curriculum continued to evolve, demonstrating rigor and competence in educators and students alike. The combination of the allied groups of the American Association of Schools of Social Work

(AASSW) and the National Association of Schools of Social Administration (NASSA) resulted in the formation, in 1952, of the Council of Social Work Education (Hunter, Moen, & Raskin, 2016). In that same year, CSWE created its first policy statement related to field education. The policy emphasized that field settings and faculty should identify the “professional skills that are common to all social work practice and assist students in developing an awareness of how these common skills are utilized in social work practice” (CSWE, 1953, p. 3. as cited in Skolnik, 1989, p. 53). Field education was linked to classroom curricula as it provided practice labs with individuals and groups. Social work education began to set policies to ensure student competence as they transitioned from being a student to becoming a generalist practitioner.

Although CSWE developed a policy statement that ensured students were obtaining an education comparable to that of a social work practitioner, the National Association of Social Workers (2017) established standards to unify and advance the social work profession. In 1960, the National Association of Social Workers established the first Code of Ethics, “which set the standards of ethical behavior for professional social workers that monitors their compliance on ethical behaviors and level of competence” (Clark, 2013, p. 2). In 2008, the NASW revised the “Code of Ethics” in an effort to meet needs of the professional and organization serving needs of the community. The Code of Ethics continues to outline professional standards that are based on the professions core values: “service, social justice, dignity and worth of a person, importance of human relationships, integrity and competence” (NASW, 2017, p. 1).

Council on Social Work Education

The Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) was established in 1952 as the accrediting agency for social work programs in the United States (Kendall, 2002). CSWE is accountable for the quality of social work education that enhances professional practice

(Kendall, 2002). Since 1952, CSWE progressively worked on educational policy and curriculum to train future social work practitioners for practice. The first education statement associated with field education highlighted the development of generic skills stating, “field and class faculty should be prepared to identify the professional skills that are common to all social work practice and assist students in developing awareness of these common skills of the profession utilized in practice” (CSWE, 1953, p. 2 as cited in Skolnik, 1989, p. 53). Since then, the educational statement has advanced to a more rigorous approach to social work education as it pertains to field education.

In 2008, field education was recognized by CSWE as the signature pedagogy of social work education (CSWE, 2008). This signature pedagogy epitomizes a form of instruction and learning that socializes students to professional practice (CSWE, 2008). The intent of field education is to expose students to real world situations that allow them to integrate classroom learning to practice settings (CSWE, 2008). CSWE established educational policies and accreditation standards that support academic excellence by instituting professional benchmarks.

These professional benchmarks are described as social work competences that are “measurable behaviors comprised of knowledge, values, and skills” (CSWE, 2008, p. 3), which social work students must demonstrate mastery that is comparable to generalist social work practitioners. Social work practitioners are recognized by CSWE as the students’ field instructor. Field instructors are required to undergo field education orientation and ongoing training. The orientation and training requirement is due to field instructors’ own training and education, which may not have been earned under the current CSWE Educational Policy on Accreditation Standards (EPAS). The CSWE EPAS are developed and revised by the Commission on Educational Policy (COEP) every seven years to ensure quality field social work

education (CSWE, 2015), which justifies the importance of providing orientation and training to field instructors.

In 2015, CSWE revised its EPAS with a holistic view to professional competence. The EPAS states, “social work competence is the ability to “integrate and apply social work knowledge and skills to practice situations” (CSWE, 2015, p. 6). These social work competencies describe the “knowledge, values, skills, and cognitive and affective process that comprise the competency at the generalist level of practice” (CSWE, 2015, p. 7). The goals of social work competencies are to ensure that students have the ability to integrate classroom learning [theory] into real world practice experiences as generalist practitioners.

The social work competencies are used to evaluate student mastery within field placement settings. CSWE (2015) EPAS 4:0 describes assessments of students “performance and the knowledge, values, critical thinking, affective reactions and exercise of judgment that inform performance” (p.18). The assessments provide evidence that students have demonstrated the level of competence necessary to enter professional practice. Field instructors use the competence-based assessments to frame students’ capstone experience and assess their learning within placement settings, offering direct experiences across all levels of practice (micro, mezzo, and macro). These levels of practice offer students “elements of instruction and socialization that teach future practitioners fundamental dimensions of professional work in their discipline – to think, to perform, and act ethically and with integrity” (CSWE, 2015, p. 12). Immersing students in learning environments allows them to think and act critically as professionals within field settings. CSWE outlines specific learning requirements for a Bachelor of Social Work (BSW) and a Master of Social Work (MSW) student that encompass the social work competencies and performance indicators. Both the BSW and MSW programs prepare students

for generalist practice. In addition to MSW programs preparing students for generalist practice, the MSW program also prepares students for specialized practice. These programs are discussed below.

BSW Program

The BSW program curriculum is rooted in the liberal arts and the human behavior in their social environment perspective, which promotes human and social well being (CSWE, 2015). Students learn a wide range of “prevention and intervention methods in their practice with diverse individuals, families, groups, organizations, and communities based on scientific inquiry and best practices” (CSWE, 2015, p. 11). The BSW curriculum prepares students to apply ethical principles and critical thinking to all levels of practice (micro, mezzo, macro), utilizing their knowledge and skill of research to inform their practice.

MSW Program

The MSW program has two curriculums: the generalist practice and specialized practice, which include classroom and field learning. Students at the generalist practice referred to as the foundation curriculum, mirror that of the BSW curriculum where they are taught a wide range of preventative methods in their practice with diverse populations. It also prepares them to apply ethical principles and critical thinking to all levels of practice (micro, mezzo and macro). The specialized practice curriculum “builds on generalist practice and extends the social work competencies with a particular population, problem area, method of intervention, perspective or approach for practice” (CSWE, 2015, p. 12). These MSW students use a broad range of interventions, incorporating research to inform their practice as they advocate on a client’s behalf. Students’ skills and knowledge in generalist practice or in specialized practice are evaluated utilizing the social work competencies to determine their ability to integrate theory

into practice settings as social work practitioners. These social work competencies will be explained later in this chapter.

Students at the BSW and MSW program levels are given opportunities to practice skills learned in the classroom in diverse field settings. These learning environments provide students with “real world” opportunities with client systems while they are under the supervision of a qualified social work practitioner (Zuchowski & Cook, 2015). The purpose of educating students in practice settings is to determine students’ ability to integrate classroom learning (theory) into practice settings. Skolnik (1989) states classroom learning and practice learning offers students an opportunity to utilize theory to inform their practice at all levels of practice (micro, mezzo, macro). With this said, field education integrates theoretical constructs of the classroom with the practical world (CSWE, 2015). The author explains field education even further, stating, “field education provides an arena for skill development, knowledge integration, and learning; as such, it is a pivotal core component in the professional education process” (Skolnik, 1989, p. 47). With this said, field education allow students to develop mastery as they integrate theory into practice. Unfortunately, students’ ability to integrate theory into practice is often concluded and not manifested in practice due to a lack of qualified field instructors and a dearth of field placement settings (Gurasansky & Lee Sueur, 2012; Raskin, Skolnik, & Wayne, 1991; Skolnik, Wayne, & Raskin, 1999; Sunirose, 2013). Nonetheless, finding qualified field instructors to fulfill this critical role continues to challenge social work programs. Despite, it is important to note that field instructors “place significant importance on students’ ability to conceptualize their practice and identify values and principles that underline their judgments and actions” (Bogo, 2010, p. 69) as generalist practitioners. Field instructors are considered educators in practice

settings. It is essential for social work programs to provide field orientation and training to field instructors in preparation for this vital role of educator.

Field orientation and training is required by CSWE. Social work programs must offer orientation, field instruction training, and continuing dialog with placement settings (CSWE, 2015). To better understand the requirements imposed by CSWE, a definition for orientation and training are offered. Orientation is defined as “the act or process of orienting or being oriented” (Merriam-Webster.com, 2017). Training is defined as the skill, knowledge, or experience acquired by one that trains” (Merriam-Webster.com, 2017). With these definitions in mind, field instructors programmatically receive field orientation in the form of social work program mission and goals statements; social program policy; a review of CSWE EPAS; roles and expectations of the student, field instructors, task supervisor, field liaison and field coordinator; an overview on educational supervision; a review of the students’ learning contracts; and students’ performance evaluations. Research indicates that this form of orientation is the framework used to orient field instructors to their role as educators within field settings (Lacerte, Ray, & Irwin 1989).

Field instructors are educators within field settings. As educators, it is important to consider what are the learning needs of field instructors. Abramson and Fortune (1990) state that there are social work programs that have offered supervision training to new field instructors to ensure that they were prepared to provide adequate field instruction to students. The authors contend that there is existing training curriculum, such as field instructor engagement and orientation to students, social work program and field liaisons; learning contracts; field learning assignments; pedagogical theories; utilization of the generalist intervention model; usage of

process recordings and supervision to enhance student learning. These studies suggest the need to develop a specialized training curriculum for field instructors.

In addition to field instructors, there are non-social work professionals who play an important part in students learning and professional development as social work practitioners. These non-social work professionals are identified as “task supervisors” or “preceptors.” The task supervisor offers orientation and guidance to students as to the day-to-day practices in an agency or organizational setting. Pawlak, Webster, and Fryer (1980) affirm that the task supervisor is the “agency administrator or planner who provides substantial direction to students placed within the agency yet is not responsible for the design and educational direction” (pp. 88-89) of the student’s educational experience. Like field instructors, task supervisors need orientation and training to understand social work field education and offer students equitable learning experience as they shift from being social work students to become generalist practitioners. However, CSWE does not require the orientation and field instruction training of task supervisors as the focus is to provide students with field instructors whom have a social work degree and experience necessary to socialize students to the social work profession (CSWE, 2015).

Nevertheless, orientation and training for both field instructors and task supervisors is crucial as they offer students learning opportunities as they identify themselves as social work practitioners. Despite the field instructors’ role in students learning, research unqualified field instructors as on factor contributing to challenges preparing future social work practitioners for practice (Dedman 2008; Dettlaff, 2003; Kanno & Koesko, 2010; & Wayne, Bogo, & Raskin 2010) . CSWE (2015) does not offer a definition of what qualifies a field instructor to educate students in field settings, except that they must have a degree in social work and two years post

graduate social work experience to supervise students in practice settings. CSWE does require social work programs to offer orientation and field instruction training to support field instructors in fostering the development of social work students. However, CSWE does not offer social work programs a specific model or framework to orient or train new and current field instructors.

Field instructors are social work practitioners who are ethically responsible for the educational instruction of others. The National Association of Social Workers Code of Ethics (2017) requires social workers be knowledgeable in their area of expertise, which requires ongoing training. The Code of Ethics further requires that “social workers who provide supervision (whether in-person or remotely) should have the necessary knowledge and skill to supervise or consult appropriately and should do so only within their areas of knowledge” (p. 21) Without proper orientation and training to support social work field instructors’, students will be ill-prepared for practice susceptible to adopt organizational culture (Gursansky & Lee Sueur, 2012) neglecting the profession’s mission in meeting the challenges faced by members of society.

Despite the lack of a specific framework provided by CSWE for orientation and field instruction training, Bogo (2010) suggests different formats for training field instructors to their role as educators such as holding regular field instructor seminars and bimonthly workshops concurrently as they provide field instruction to their students. This author elaborates citing other resources such as textbooks written by Bogo and Vayda (1994) and Hendricks, Finch, and Franks (2005), as well as a seven-seminar modular training program by Dettlaff (2003).

Researchers agree that field instructor training is needed to support field instructors in their role as educators (Abramson & Fortune, 1990; Bogo, 2010; Dettlaff, 2008; Dettlaff & Dietz, 2004;

Hendricks, Finch, & Franks 2005; Knight, 2001). However, there appears to be a gap in the literature as to empirically tested training modalities.

This gap in the literature creates a challenge for social work programs to orient and train field instructors as they shift from being practitioners to becoming educators (Abramson & Fortune, 1990; Rogers & McDonald, 1995). Social work programs are diverse in their interpretation of standards to orient and train field instructors to fulfill their role as educators. As stated, CSWE does not offer a framework to orient and train new or current field instructors. However, research shows an array of diverse field instructor training needs such as child welfare, cultural competency, diversity, groups, substance abuse, Evidence Based Practice, and critical thinking that assesses supervisory and practice competence in these areas (Amour, Bain, & Rubio, 2004; Dettlaff, 2008; LaPorte & Sweifach, 2011; Rogers & McDonald, 1992; SteenRod & Bael, 2010; Wiechelt & Ting, 2012). There are other trainings that teach field instructors how to enhance their pedagogical methods practice educators (Deal, Bennett, Mohr & Hwang, 2011). Nevertheless, no research has been conducted on field instructors' training needs (Dedman & Palmer, 2011). Field instructors play a vital role in field education. Due to this critical role, field instructors must be capable gatekeepers of both the quality and successfulness of the field placement (Dettlaff, 2008) and most importantly, of student learning. The vital role of field instructors as educators validates the need for a training curriculum that enhances their competence and skill as field supervisors and educators.

Field instructor training is vital to enhance competence and skill in field instruction. The Code of Ethics (NASW, 2017) requires continuing education and training of all social work practitioners. Specifically, social work practitioners who function as field instructors the Code of Ethics states that,

Social workers who function as educator, field instructors for students, or trainers should provide instruction only within their area of knowledge and competence and should provide instruction based on current information and knowledge available in the profession. (p. 21)

It is also essential for field instructors to be knowledgeable in social work program policies and requirements to fulfill this vital role of educator.

Field instructors are experts in their particular area of social work practice. Schools of social work select these field instructors because they have exemplified social work competences, e.g., professional ethics and practice experiences in their area of social work practice (Abramson & Fortune, 1990). Field instructors offer students a learning environment that provides constructive feedback, which fosters learning as students develop their professional identity as social workers (Caspi & Ried, 2002). However, the role of a field instructor involves much more than the ability to communicate knowledge and skill in a clinical sense. The field instructor role requires a set of skills. These skills comprise of pedagogical methods in field settings, such as development of experiential innovated learning opportunities, modeling professional and ethical behavioral, and ability to evaluate student performance in field settings (Feline, 1982, as cited in Abramson & Fortune, 1990). It is important to recognize that field instruction training curriculum is needed for field instructors in support of this vital role.

There is a dearth of studies that examine the implications of having unprepared field instructors, which leads to students conforming to agency culture (Gurasansky & Lee Sueur, 2012; Sunirose 2013). The lack of preparedness by the field instructors is due to the lack of empirically tested training and resources to prepare them to instruct students in field settings. Maynard, Metz, and Fortune (2015) add another challenge in that placement settings employ non-social work practitioners who "are proactive in trying to empower their constituents, who

are often oppressed or marginalized" (p. 520); however, students are unable to obtain the social work perspective from non-social work professionals.

Non-social work professionals lack a social work degree and a familiarity with the social work ethical practices that students need to mirror as they transition from students to generalist practitioners. Without this social work framework, students will adopt the culture of the organization in which they are placed (Domakin, 2014; Gursansky & Lee Sueur, 2012). By students adopting the culture of the organization, students will perform mechanical tasks, therefore, lacking critical thinking and ability to advocate for human rights, social justice economic and environmental needs of the constituents within their communities. Students will become vulnerable to adopting behaviors comparable with those of practitioners' whose practice devalues the social work professions' core values. With this said, it is crucial to provide rigorous training to social work and non-social work practitioners, so they can prepare students for their role as generalist practitioners. However, finding qualified social work practitioners and placement settings is a challenge for social work programs.

Social work programs are challenged when having to find placement settings for BSW and MSW students, as competing universities compound the process of identifying appropriate placements for students. Field directors and field coordinators have become creative in finding non-traditional practice settings for social work students. For example, non-traditional practice settings are settings that would not typically employ social workers in meeting the needs of the holistic needs of participants to whom they offer services, such as at police departments, attorneys' offices, emergency management facilities, public libraries, and university departments that address student life issues. Clients in these settings tend to suffer from psychosocial matters those social work students and off-site field instructors could address by offering resources as

well as preventative measures in collaboration with workers within these agencies and organizations. However, it would still be essential for the social work students' immediate task supervisor within these settings to be trained and oriented to social work field education to foster students' attainment of the social work educational competencies.

Social work professional competence is identified by CSWE in nine areas of professional practice to ensure students mastery in field settings. The nine social work competencies students must demonstrate mastery in are: ethics and professional behavior; diversity; advancing human rights; research; policy; and intervention processes with individuals, families, groups, organizations, and communities (CSWE, 2015). Students are placed in field settings to enhance their learning under experienced social work practitioners known as the field instructors. CSWE requires that field instructors have a social work degree and two years' experience in the field of social work (CSWE, 2015). Field instructors offer students experiential learning opportunities within placement settings and evaluate students' utilization of social work competencies as generalist practitioners. However, field instructors are challenged when offering student learning opportunities that meet students learning needs due to the lack of knowledge on how to operationalize the social work competencies within field settings. The lack of knowledge by field instructors compromises the students' ability to apply classroom knowledge and skill in practice. Training in this area is paramount to the success of the students as they transition from being students to becoming generalist practitioners.

Field Education

CSWE (2015) identifies field education as the signature pedagogy for social work education and describes signature pedagogies as having components of instruction that familiarize future practitioners with the principals of professional practice. These principles allow future practitioners to demonstrate behavior equivalent to that of experienced social work practitioners. CSWE (2015) declared field education as its signature pedagogy in 2008. It further illustrates that field education is the classroom in field settings that allow students to integrate theoretical concepts to real-world situations. Lee Shulman (2005) explains signature pedagogy as, “the novices are instructed in critical aspects of the three fundamental dimensions of professional work-to think, to perform, and to act with integrity” (p. 52). He further explains,

Professional education is not education for understanding alone; it is preparation for a accomplished and responsible practice in the service of another. It is preparation for “good work.” Professionals must learn the abundant amount of theory and vast bodies of knowledge. They must come to understand . . . to act, and they must act . . . to serve. (Shulman, 2005, p. 53)

The author shares that in the Carnegie Foundation’s studies, signature pedagogies are defined as “time has been spent observing, analyzing and documenting how teaching and learning occur in many types of settings” (p. 53) such as law, and medicine. Along with these two fields of instruction (law, medicine), there are also education, nursing, clergy, and social work. Social work and nursing signature pedagogies are similar in socializing students to the principles of their respective professions. Examples of how each profession socializes students in practice will be discussed, below.

Signature Pedagogy - Law

Sullivan, Colby, Wegner, Bond, and Shulman (2007) state the Socratic method of instruction emphasizes the case-dialogue, which results in students learning to think and behave

as lawyers. This method of instruction challenges students' knowledge of the law as a matter of thought, different from the world. In comparison to social work education, students are placed in "real life experiences" within placement settings that allow them to think and behave like lawyers. During weekly supervision with the field instructors, students can reflect on engagement with clients and present presumptive outcomes or "next steps" with the field instructor, which allows critical thinking, especially when ambiguous situations arise.

Signature Pedagogy - Medicine

Wienberger (2009) state that the "medical educator in the clinical setting provides a critical role modeling for the learner" (p. 240). The authors further explain that the teaching and learning occur in the same setting. The student observes how the medical educator "puts words into action" (Wienberger, 2009, p. 240). Essentially, the learner observes not only what the instructors say but also what he or she does regarding patient assessments, interactions with clients, decision-making, and coordination across systems. Additionally, the author points out "a critical component of educating in a medical setting is direct supervision, evaluation, and feedback" (p. 240). Educational supervision is essential in social work education as this is where students learn how to integrate theory into practice and reflect on their cognitive process in collaboration with their field instructors and through written assignments such as journals and process recordings.

Signature Pedagogy - Clergy

The clergy supervisor acts as a mentor to the clergy student. Floyd, Floyd, and Gerwig-Moore (2012) state that supervision is centered on professional and personal identity while integrating theory into practice. The Association of Clinical Education Programs seek to "ensure that the students gain knowledge and skills necessary to fulfill the roles of spiritual care as clergy

and lay leaders as well as to develop professional skills for chaplaincy” (para. 8). Wayne, et al. (2010) state these “intentions referred to as signature pedagogical frameworks, are interpretation of text, situation, and relationship; spiritual and vocational formation; work to heighten consciousness of historical and contemporary contexts; and the cultivation of performance and ways of thinking in clerical roles” (p. 329). The clergy signature pedagogy framework mirrors that of the nine social work competencies. CSWE (2015) EPAS states that social work students must holistically demonstrate competence utilizing the social work principle of “knowledge, skill, value, and cognitive and affective process in practice” (p. 6) settings. Social work students must demonstrate the ability to integrate theories learned in practice, comparable to that of a social work practitioner.

Signature Pedagogy - Nursing

Papastavrou, Dimitriadou, Tsangari, and Andreou (2016) state that within nursing, “the supervisory role in the clinical settings is undertaken mainly by named mentors who oversee student learning. The mentors’ work is considered very important in supporting the professional development of the nursing students and the assessment of their “competencies” (p.7). The supervision that nursing students receive includes "coaching, simulation, role-modeling, post conferences, preclinical preparation, post clinical conferences, and articulation of experiential learning” (Benner & Sutphen, 2009, as cited in Wayne et al., 2010, p. 330). Moreover, students’ supervision has been considered to be the most noteworthy element for the effectiveness of the nursing students’ learning and professional development (Papastavrou et al., 2016, p. 2). Mainly, the nursing students’ mentors evaluate the nursing students’ ability to integrate theory into practice, which aligns with social work field education. Moreover, the field of nursing utilizes

competencies to evaluate nursing students as well as methods of supervision that align with the social work field education.

Signature Pedagogy – Social Work

The Council on Social Work Education has identified field education as the signature pedagogy of social work education (CSWE, 2015). Field education socializes students to the duties of generalist practitioners as they connect theory into practice (CSWE, 2015). The signature pedagogy serves the “purpose of preparing students in the profession’s fundamental ways of thinking, performing and acting with integrity” (Wayne, Bogo, & Raskin, 2010, p. 327).

CSWE (2015) has adopted this style of preparation, The EPAS 2.2 states:

The intent of field education is to integrate the theoretical and conceptual contribution of the classroom with the practical world of the practice setting. It is a basic precept of social work education that the two interrelated components of the curriculum—classroom and field—are of equal importance within the curriculum, and each contributes to the development of the requisite competencies of professional practice. Field education is systematically designed, supervised, coordinated, and evaluated based on criteria by which students demonstrate the social work competencies. (p. 12)

This policy provides social work programs with a framework for evaluating students’ ability to integrate theory into practice utilizing nine social work competencies (see Table 2). Furthermore, field education uses an experienced social work practitioner known as the “field instructor” to train students in their role as generalist practitioners. The utilization of a qualified practitioner is similar to the nursing profession with preceptors who teach and prepare students for practice.

Table 2.

Council on Social Work Education Social Work Competencies

Competency 1:	Demonstrate Ethical and Professional Behavior
Competency 2:	Engage Diversity and Difference in Practice
Competency 3:	Advance Human Rights and Social, Economic, and Environmental Justice
Competency 4:	Engage in Practice-informed Research and Research-informed Practice
Competency 5:	Engage in Policy Practice
Competency 6:	Engage with Individuals, Families, Groups, Organizations, and Communities
Competency 7:	Assess Individuals, Families, Groups, Organizations, and Communities
Competency 8:	Intervene with Individuals, Families, Groups, Organizations, and Communities
Competency 9:	Evaluate Practice with Individuals, Families, Groups, Organizations, and Communities.

(CSWE, 2015, pp. 7-9)

Field instructors must have a social work degree and two years' post-graduate social work practice experience to supervise social work students (CSWE, 2015). Additionally, field instructors must be orientated and obtain field instructor training to ensure they are able to instruct and evaluate student progress. Contrary to nursing preceptors, field instructors must receive ongoing training as they instruct students in field settings (CSWE, 2015). Furthermore, preceptors are licensed in their area of specialty as opposed to most social work practitioners, who are not required have a licensed to practice.

CSWE (2015) EPAS only requires that field instructors have a social work degree and two years' post graduate social work practice experience. It also states that if field instructors do not have the required credentials and experience, the social work program "assumes responsibility for reinforcing a social work perspective and describes how this is accomplished" (CSWE, 2015, p. 13). Similarly, field instructors at the master's level must have a two years post

master's degree social work practice and two years' experience to supervise master's students (CSWE, 2015). Along with the field instructor, there are other stakeholders (e.g., field liaison, task supervisor, field coordinators) who are involved in student learning, which will be clarified, below.

The Council on Social Work Education (2015) Educational Policy on Accreditation states that social work education at all degree levels (e.g., baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral) shape the future of the profession through professional knowledge, scholarship, and leadership within the social work profession. Field education is the classroom within the professional community where students perform as generalist practitioners under the supervision of social work practitioners. Zuchowski and Cook (2014) state that field education is a fundamental component of social work education, "facilitating the advancement of practice skills, professional individuality, and a professional practice framework" (p. 2). This community classroom also offers educational support of a set of professionals such as field instructors, task supervisors, liaisons, and coordinators, who support students' professional learning and growth as generalist practitioners.

Field instructors socialize social work students to the profession by exposing them to "real life" situations and by modeling professional behavior and skills in practice (Abram, Hartung, & Werenet, 2000; Bogo & Vayda, 1998). Social work programs are required to recruit field instructors who meet the attributes outlined in the CSWE (2015) EPAS, which include a social work degree and practice experience. Field instructors are responsible for designing field learning opportunities for students and for assessing the students' competence as future social work practitioners. They place great emphasis on "students' ability to conceptualize their practice and identify the values, principles, and ideas that underline their judgment and actions"

(Bogo, 2010, p. 69). Bogo (2005) states that field instructor's model social work practice for students. She states that field instructors have a responsibility to help students connect classroom learning to practice setting. Bogo (2005) adds that field instructors use methods of "teaching, coordinating, and evaluating student's learning in practice settings; while ensuring that the agency's service standards are met (Bogo, 2005, p. 164). This approach helps students understand how social work competencies fit in practice, which also enhances their ability to integrate theoretical concepts into practice. However, not all social workers are skilled in performing supervisory duties that efficiently instruct and mentor social work students. Wilson (1981) and Short (2001) state that field instructors' expertise in practice has little to do with their ability to teach and supervise students. For this reason, it is critical that field instructors understand and receive training as educators.

Next, the task supervisor is the individual who represents the agency. Pawlak, Webster, Fryer (1980) describes this role as the person who provides direction but is not responsible for developing or facilitating students field education. The task supervisor observes students' day-to-day activities and socializes them to organizational policy and culture. The authors add that the "task supervisor is a source of legitimation for the students' activities and certifies that the student is working on behalf of the agency's operation" (p. 89). Additionally, task supervisors structure "direct and vicarious learning experiences making agency resources available to the students and engage in agency evaluation of the student's performance" (Pawlak et al., 1980, p. 89). The task supervisors are essential to the team of field educators who support students' learning in practice settings.

Field liaisons (university faculty) qualifications include a master's in social work (MSW), practice experience, and the ability to create a learning environment, which enhances students'

social work attributes as generalist practitioners. They are “the university representative who serves as an intermediary among the agency, social work program, and student” (Hunter, Moen, & Raskin, 2015, p. 140). Field liaisons support field instructors in assisting students to integrate theory into practice, understand social work competencies as applied to practice, make evaluation more manageable, and engage in gatekeeping (Homonoff, 2008). Hunter, Moen, and Raskin (2015) describe a reported liaison’s responsibilities as follows:

- Facilitating field conferences
- Monitoring student hours, progress, and educational opportunities
- Leading field seminars
- Fostering dialog and building rapport between school and practice settings
- Evaluating students’ performance and gatekeeping
- Evaluating the effectiveness of field instructors and practice settings. (p. 141)

Essentially, field liaisons are responsible for the continuity of student learning as well as for supporting field instructors in their role as educators.

Finally, the field director has a crucial role in social work field education. The EPAS 3.3.5 a, b, c, and d describe the overall administrative structure and the necessary qualifications for the position of field education director, such as a master’s or a doctorate degree in social work and practice experience (CSWE, 2015). Additionally, the policy standards outline the field directors' ability to provide leadership duties in the field education program (Lyter, 2012). The field director also has a responsibility to ensure that faculty, students, field instructors, and task supervisors receive the training necessary for a successful field experience. More importantly, field directors are responsible for matching students with practicum settings as well as evaluating these settings in meeting field educational goals and standards (CSWE, 2015). Lastly, the field director collaborates with personnel and identifies alternative and traditional field placements where students learn and apply the nine core social work competencies.

Problem Statement

CSWE governs social work programs across the United States. These standards guide curriculum and program practice to ensure that students are competent to practice as generalist practitioners. Students are evaluated in the classroom and field settings utilizing the nine social work competencies, which are guided by holistic principles of “knowledge, skill, value, and cognitive and affective process” (CSWE, 2015, p. 7). Students must demonstrate their ability to integrate theory into the field placement setting and beyond. To ensure that students can incorporate theoretical methods into practice, they are supervised by experienced professionals who have a social work degree. In addition to students being provided by seasoned social work practitioners, there are circumstances where students have task supervisors within either traditional or nontraditional placement settings.

Despite the added instructor identified as the task supervisor, the key person within the student/teacher relationship is the field instructor. Gitterman (1998) states field instructors not only are responsible for teaching students social work skills but also providing them field settings to practice such skills. For this reason, social work programs must ensure that field instructors have the experience and credentials to support social work students’ learning experience in the field. Minimally, field instructors must have a degree equivalent to the student’s course of study and two-year social work practice experience (CSWE, 2015), which ensure social work programs seek qualified field instructors and placement settings to educate students in practice.

Dettlaff and Dietz (2004) aver, “practitioners must be taught specific skills to facilitate students’ ability to integrate theory in practice, think critically, adhere to ethical standards and communicate openly and effectually” (p. 17). Maidment and Woodward (2002) contend,

“supervision in field education is aiming to prepare students for practice as a social worker; assisting, assessing and facilitating student’s development of a social work identity” (p. 8).

There is an assumption that experienced social work practitioners will be effective field instructors; however, studies contend that experienced social work practitioners do not naturally possess the aptitude to instruct students (Dettlaff & Dietz, 2004). It is important to provide orientation to field instructors regarding their role and function as it relates to student learning.

Davys and Beddoe (2009) explicitly describe the role of field instructors within placements as providing students with a “structured, interactive and collaborative process, which takes place within a purposeful professional relationship. The supervision relationship may involve some or all of these [other] components: observation, monitoring, teaching, coaching and supporting and providing reflective supervision for students during their placement” (p. 197). However, supervision also involves teaching and assessment [which] are not always present in the supervision of mature practitioners” (Beddoe, Ackroyd, Chinnery & Appleton, 2011, p. 512). Fortune, et al. (1985) state that “supervision and the competence of the field instructor are crucial mediators between agency climate, clear goals and structure and the students’ . . . experience in the practicum” (p. 93). Essentially, field instructors must be not only competent practitioners but skilled educators in field settings. The role of field instructors is to help students grow as practitioners. Their ability to effectively supervise is vital in field education as the source of knowledge, skill, and values lie within them. If field instructors are not skilled in the process of supervision, students learning will be compromised.

The role of a field instructor is not merely to supervise students based on one’s own practice experience (Moorhouse, Hay, & O’Donoghue, 2014), but rather to foster learning. Agency supervisors’ role is centered on administrative needs (agency needs), rather than the

educational needs of the student (Rogers & McDonald, 1995). It is essential to understand that field instructors offer students an educational experience as they prepare to become social work practitioners. The supervision provided is of an educational nature. Educational supervision is a form of guided training those students receive from their field instructors in practice settings (Jahanian, Karaj, & Ebrahimi, 2013). Without providing field instructors with specialized training that fosters learning, social work students will be less prepared for practice as generalist practitioners.

Theoretical Framework

Field instructors are “experts” and the most influential educators in students’ success in field education (Kanno & Koesko, 2010). As such, they should acquire specialized training that will assist in their transition from being practitioners to becoming educators. Unfortunately, the training that field instructors receive for this vital role takes the form of simply orienting field instructors to curriculum, accreditation policies, and the roles and responsibilities of a social work program (Deal & Clements, 2006; Kanno & Koesko, 2010, Lacerta, et al., 1989). As a result, this training overwhelms field instructors with information, and does not offer an informed approach to teaching them how to teach. CSWE (2015) does not provide a framework on how to prepare field instructors to perform duties as educators. Therefore, social work programs’ orientation and ongoing training vary in content, expectations, and policies. The content, expectations, and policies of orientation and ongoing training are often shared among social work programs.

Field education expectations and policies alone will not assist field instructors to make the transition from being practitioners to becoming educators. Social work research does consider adult learning theories to develop orientation and training for field instructors.

Abramson and Fortune (1990) allude to the use of andragogy to assist practitioners' shift to educators. Adult learners learn by processing knowledge and practicing their learning by doing (Fox, 2013). Field instructor orientation and training should be developed using an underpinning of pedagogical approaches tailored to adult education. The gap noted involves the lack of adult learning theories (andragogy, experiential, and transformational) in the development, delivery, and instruction of field instructor orientation and training. These learning theories will support field instructors in developing teaching methods that foster learning.

It is essential for field instructors to understand how pedagogical theories are used to enhance their supervisory skills as they educate students in practice. As field instructors learn pedagogical theories, they will be able to shift from being practitioners to becoming educators as they will be able to think and act as educators. Similar to students, field instructors will be integrating theories they learned in training into practice with students within field settings. It is important to note that these pedagogical theories of andragogy, experiential, and transformational build upon knowledge that field instructors currently have, allowing them to expand on skills learned in practice as they transition to educators. Rogers and McDonald (1995) state that field instructors "need knowledge about effective methods . . . and understand the relevant concepts, themes, and approaches in educating adults and preparing practitioners for this multi-dimensional, challenging profession" (p. 61). Dettlaff (2008) states that field instructor training based on andrological principles often incorporates innovative activities that focus on the application of the materials, thus affirming the relevance of the curriculum. Essentially, if field instructors are oriented and trained utilizing pedagogical theories as educators, it will help them educate students within field settings.

Despite the various types of training amongst social work programs, the literature does make a note of a few training modules for new field instructors that have been empirically tested (Deal & Clements, 2006). One of the training models found was by Abramson & Fortune (1990) who examined a training seminar for new field instructors over a period of two years, comparing data of students whose field instructors received training to those who did not. The results differed significantly depending on whether those field instructors received training or not. Field instructors who received training were perceived to be more communicative, utilizing constructive feedback as a teaching tool linking theory into practice (Abramson & Fortune, 1990). These field instructors were better prepared and engaged students in their learning process as practice educators.

Traditionally, the method of field instructor training has been to impart fundamental information that addresses the areas of the learning contract, supervision, evaluations, and the school's curriculum and policy (Deal & Clements, 2006; Kanno & Koesko, 2010, Lacerta et al., 1989). Abramson and Fortune (1990) state that there are "five elements that must exist in [training] programs for the expected learning to occur:

1. a common body of social work knowledge shared by field instructors;
2. the capacity of field instructors to conceptualize this knowledge to communicate it effectively;
3. the creation of an appropriate climate for learning;
4. clarity regarding the standards for student performance; and
5. the ability to evaluate student performance in light of these standards" (p. 273).

Although dated, these five elements align with adult learning theories of andragogy, experiential and transformational and what current literature identifies as theoretical approaches to utilize with fostering field instructors knowledge and skill as educators (Bogo, 2010; Dettlaff, 2008; Hendricks & Franks, 2013; Hunter, Moen, & Raskin, 2015; Papouli 2014). However, there is a

dearth of empirical evidence that utilizes a theoretical framework to explain delivery and content used for field instructor training (Bogo, 1981; Dettlaff, 2008).

This research will explore three pedagogical methods (i.e., andragogy theory, experiential theory, and transformational theory) to explicate the need to incorporate adult learning theory into the development and delivery of field instructor orientation and training to enhance knowledge and skill acquisition. These teaching methods build upon each other with the adult learner in mind. Andragogy utilizes the field instructors' experience and expertise as they engage other field instructors and task supervisors an experimental method setting as of transforming their view of field education (see Figure 1). Below, these adult learning theories (andragogy, experiential and transformational) will be explained.

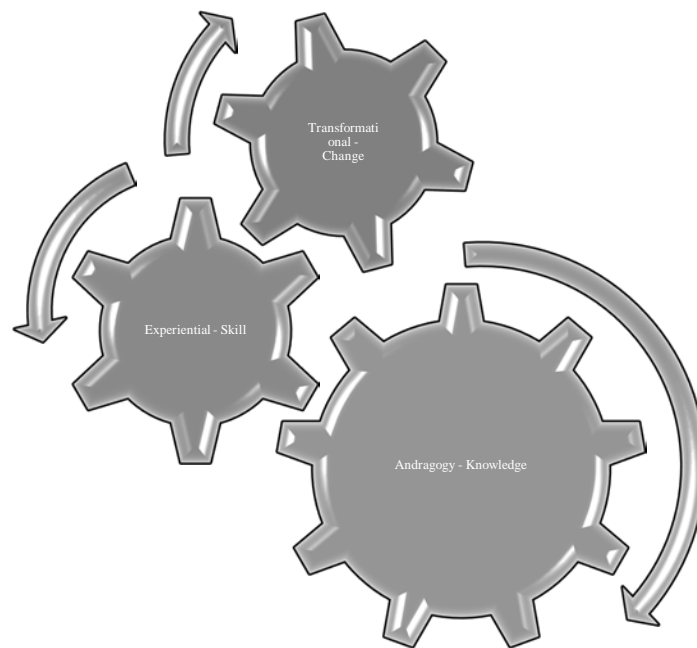


Figure 1. *Learning Theories*

Andragogy Theory

Andragogy is the process by which adults acquire knowledge (See Figure 2). Malcolm Knowles (1971) describes andragogy as the “art and science of adult learning” (Knowles, 1971).

Knowles (1984) argues that adults are ambitious individuals, problem-solving learners who utilize life experiences as a guide in ambiguous situations. Fox (2013) suggests that adults learn best when they are actively involved in the pedagogic process, specifically, when questions that are important to them serve as the basis for their learning. In short, adults must be engaged with the instruction and have a purpose in learning. Fox (2013) states that when adults “can relate new material to their lived experience and when newly gained knowledge and skills can be immediately tried out for use, [then] true command of knowledge and its application occurs” (p. 15). The impetus for learning comes from the view that the information is useful as it can be immediately applied to practice (Knowles, 1971). Field instructors must demonstrate an interest in becoming qualified supervisors. They must be engaged with others as they connect new concepts to their lived experiences. Andragogy theory allows field instructors and task supervisors to engage with others as they experiment with new concepts as they learn to put new information into practice. In the same token, field instructors learn the theory of andragogy as educators, which will allow them to integrate this theory into practice with their students.

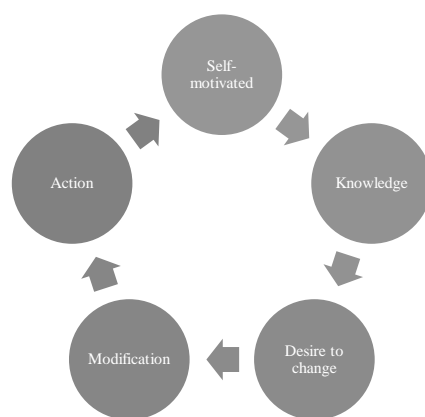


Figure 2. *Andragogy Theory*

Experiential Learning Theory

Experiential learning is the process by which adults retain knowledge and skill (see Figure 3). David Kolb's (1984) describes the need for self-discovery and self-awareness. Fox (2013) explained, "education must be grounded in experience, and that experience with reflection will result in knowledge acquisition" (p.16). Dewy (1938) states, "experience is always what it is because of the transaction taking place between the individual and ... his environment" (p. 43). Brookfield (1985) affirms this stating "that adult teaching should be grounded in adults' experience, and that these experiences represent a valuable resource, is currently cited as crucial by adult education of every conceivable ideological hue" (para. 1). With this said, the interaction that takes place in a professional development setting, specifically field education orientation and training, enhances the field instructors' knowledge as they share stories, participate in role play and in group vignette discussions.

As field instructors engage in conversation about their shared experiences with students in their specific practice experiences, it helps other field instructors understand how to better work with students in their setting. Merriam, Calfarella, and Baumgartner (2007) state "experiences that provide learning are never just isolated events in time. Rather, learners must connect what they have learned from current experiences to those in the past as well as see probable future implication" (p. 162). Field instructor training should be about shared experiences, allowing field instructors to connect past experiences with students to present learning so that they can see possible implications for future relationships with students. Field instructors find meaning in practice as they participate in "real world" situations, sharing their experiences with others. Likewise, field instructors are able to integrate theory into practice with social work students within field settings as they develop experiential activities for students.

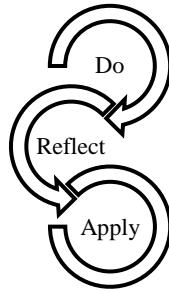


Figure 3. *Experiential Theory*

Transformational Learning Theory

Mezirow (2002) refers to transformative learning that “involves participation in constructive discourse to use the experiences of others to assess reasons justifying these assumptions, and making an action decision based on the resulting insight (p. 8).

Transformational theory can be defined as the cognitive and affective process of learning (Figure 4). Students mature as generalist practitioners under the supervision of their field instructor as well as their task supervisor. The same transformation process occurs for the field instructors, and task supervisors as they mature as educators. There are five phases that students, field instructors and task supervisors go through in the process of learning: "(1) non-determining start; (2) experimental and undirected inquiry; (3) social testing and mirroring; (4) shifting of relevance; and (5) social consolidation and interpretative experiences" (Nohl, 2014, p. 39).

These phases align with how learning is transferred from a classroom environment to a practice setting. Equally, a practitioner’s transformation mirrors that of students’ knowledge and skill acquisition as field instructors transfer training as an educator to practice. A practitioner’s transformation from a caseworker/manager to a field instructor is not in the realm of professional advancement but requires specialized training (Abramson & Fortune, 1990; Bogo, 1981; Dettlaff & Dietz, 2004; Dwyer & Urbandwski, 1981; Dettlaff, 2003; Knight, 2001; Moorehouse, Hay &

O'Donoghue, 2014; Roger & McDonald, 1992).

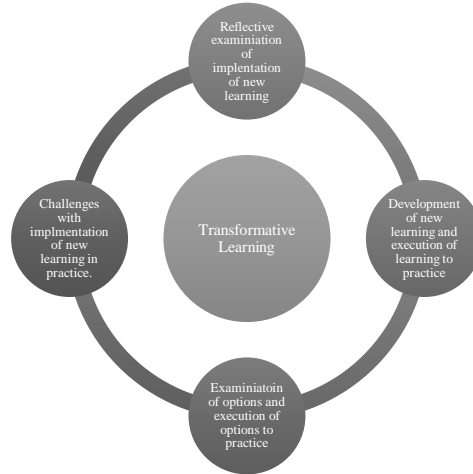


Figure 4. *Transformational Theory*

Field education is the “heart” of social work education. It relies on field instructors’ experience and expertise to socialize students to the social work profession. Social work students gain competence and professional identity for social work practice (Rogers & McDonald, 1992) from their field instructors and other professionals within practice settings. However, field instructors use teaching methods that are expedient to getting the agency mandates accomplished without considering the effects on student training (Rogers & McDonald, 1995). With this method of training, students will not have the opportunity to learn the generalist intervention model (GIM) process nor to understand how policy impacts practice. As a result, students conform to an organizational culture of “getting the job done” (Roger & McDonald, 1995, p. 42) rather than the practice of the profession, which enhances competence.

Professional competence is vital in social work. It is guided by the profession’s code of ethics. The NASW (2008) core values are “service, social justice, dignity and worth of the person, the importance of human relationships, integrity, and competence” (p. 1). Specifically, competence is a critical social work value as it evaluates student knowledge and skill as future social work generalist practitioners. As for field instructors, the NASW (2008) Code of Ethic

standard 3.01 states, “social workers who provide supervision or consultation should have necessary knowledge and skill to supervise or consult appropriately and should do so only within their area of knowledge and competence” (p.19). The Code of Ethics further states in standard 3.02 a. that “social workers who function as educators, field instructors for students or trainers should provide instruction only within their areas of knowledge and competence and should provide instruction based on the most current information and knowledge available in the profession” (p. 19). CSWE 2015 EPAS explains, "social work competence is the ability to integrate and apply social work knowledge, values, and skills to practice situations” (p. 6). Social work students should not be viewed as workers who gain knowledge as they gain experience but as active participants in the process of learning from expert practitioners whom they wish to emulate (Barretti, 2007). With this said, it is essential that field instructors receive the training necessary in support of their role of educators. Without giving field instructors the pedagogical tools to teach, they will be ill prepared to fulfill their role as educators. We must teach field instructors how to educate students, as they become social work practitioners.

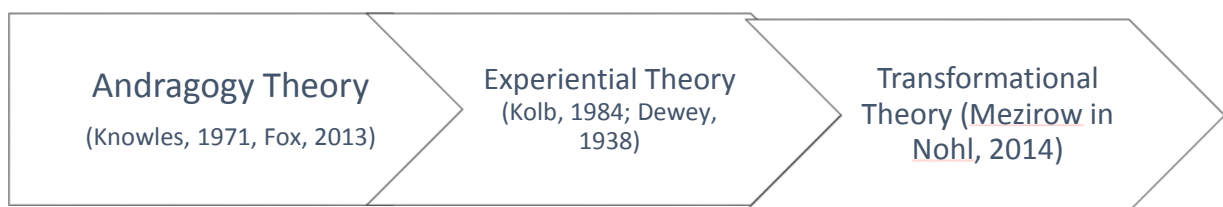


Figure 5. *Theoretical Framework*

Relevance to Social Work

Social work has struggled to affirm itself as a profession. Philanthropic groups with no formal training offered companionship and other services to the vulnerable members of communities during the colonial period in North America (Segal, 2015), with the notion that

anyone without an education could provide companionship and other services to individuals. Practitioners in the field such as Anna Dawes and Mary Richmond spoke about the need for training and raised awareness about the ineffectiveness of untrained volunteers that worked with individuals and families in communities (Leighminger, 2000). Training schools were created to meet the training needs of students and practitioners. Students were placed in practice settings under the supervision of an experienced practitioner to be trained for practice. However, the curriculum that was utilized to teach and train students was criticized by Flexner for the lack of a foundational curriculum and a lack of teaching methods.

The lack of a foundational curriculum and teaching methods pushed the social work profession to become rigorous in training and educating students and practitioners. The Council of Social Work Education was created as the accrediting entity responsible for ensuring “quality on social work education for a professional practice that promotes individual, family and community well-being, and social and economic justice” (CSWE, 2015). Additionally, CSWE required social work programs to orient and train field instructors to fulfill their role as educators. However, this requirement is not explicit nor is it standardized. Field instructors are not being trained as a teacher, which does not assist them in shifting from being practitioners to becoming educators. Without trained field instructors, social work students will conform to practices of the organizational structure and norms, lacking skills and knowledge to engage with individuals and families in society.

Today, the field of social work is experiencing the need to train field instructors. Rodgers and McDonald (1992) state field education depends on the expertise of the practitioners who offers learning opportunities to students as they enhance their knowledge, skills, and professional identity for professional social work practice. Preparing field instructors for this role has been

minuscule taking the form of simply orienting field instructors to the CSWE EPAS, roles and expectations, supervision, safety, and the field manual (Deal & Clements, 2006; Kanno & Koesko, 2010, Lacerta & Ray 1998). Deal and Clements (2006) share the same sentiment by stating that although “field instructors provide students with arguably the most sustained individualized educational experience of their social work education, yet they often receive little training for this vital role” (p. 291). Dwyer and Urbanowski (1981) state that “a skilled professional practitioner is not necessarily a skilled educator nor is it an easy task to adjust to the academic world, especially if one’s primary commitment is practice” (p.10). Bogo and Vayda (1998) explain that,

Practitioners, to become educators, must be able to examine their . . . practice and articulate the thoughts, attitudes, values, and feelings that affect the actions they take. Practitioners feel that many of these actions have become second nature, so that plans and behaviors may appear to the observer, to evolve naturally. In fact, professional behavior is based on implicit ideas and beliefs that social workers have develop[ed] through their own educational and [practical] experience. (p. 3)

Field instructors are expected to shift from being practitioners to becoming educators without the necessary training opportunities that would enable them to gain knowledge and skill in their new role as educators. This research will add to the body of literature as to the need to have training content that meets the needs of practitioners, as they become educators.

Aim and Research Questions

This research study aims to identify field orientation and training content to enhance field instructors’ knowledge and skills as “educators” in field settings. The specific questions are:

1. Is there a difference between the two groups (experiential and comparison) of field instructors’ and task supervisors’ knowledge of roles/responsibilities related to field education?

2. Is there a difference in perceptions of supervisor competency skills following the completion of the experiential face-to-face training?
3. Is there a difference in the students' perceptions of field supervision between the field instructors and task supervisors who attended an online-only session vs. those who also attended the face-to-face experiential training session?
4. Is there a difference in students', and field instructors'/task supervisors' perceptions of supervisory competence?

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The explicated history of field education and the importance of training for field instructors within the social work profession in the previous chapter provided the framework for the literature review. A comprehensive search was conducted utilizing SocIndex database, which provided full text, peer reviewed journals and dissertations that contained key terms of “field education and training,” “field instructor training,” “signature pedagogy,” “field education and social work,” “preceptor and field education,” “task supervisor and social work education,” “field instructor and social work,” “field work training and field education,” “student perceptions on field experience,” and “field perceptions on field education and training.” The search yielded more than 10, 000 studies since 1899. Next, the key term combination of “field education, training, and social work” was searched in Ebscohost, yielding approximately 2, 079 full text and peer reviewed journals since 1980s. Of those 2, 079 articles reviewed approximately 66 articles emerged in support of the need for specialized training for field education, which also included historical studies.

Field Instructor Training

It is clear that training and orientation for field instructors to social work field education programs is essential to the success of students’ practical experience, as they become generalist practitioners. Field instructor’s orientation and training refresh their theoretical background through workshops and training (Ghitu, & Mago-Maghiar, 2011). Similarly, task supervisors need foundational knowledge about social work education to support student learning in field settings. Henderson’s (2010) research reported task supervisors lacked knowledge about social work, which lessens their confidence in their role in support of students learning.

Social work researchers agree that field instructors as educators play a vital role in the

education of students and that training is needed (Abramson & Fortune 1990, Raskin 1993, 1994, Dwyer & Urbandwski, 1981). This notion prevails as researchers continue to conduct empirical studies on training field instructors to be competent supervisors (Deal, Bennett, Mohr, & Hwang, 2011). There have been a variety of training models targeting specialized area supervisory competence (e.g., child welfare, diversity, groups, substance abuse, Evidenced Based Practice (EBP), and critical thinking) (Amour, Bain, & Rubio, 2004; Dettlaff, 2008; LaPorte & Sweifach, 2011; Rogers & McDonald, 1992; SteenRod & Bael, 2010; Wiechelt & Ting, 2012). Other field instructor training teaches a combination of skills, such as students' developmental behavior, learning contracts, conduct supervisory conference and utilizing process recordings (Abramson & Fortune, 1990; Deal & Clement, 2006). Bogo (2010) adds that there is "a variety of formats for training field instructors which include regular seminars to workshops or modular sessions" (p. 30). CSWE (2015) requires social work programs to orient, train, and have ongoing collaborative discussions with field instructors about their role as educators. This requirement is essential as the CSWE EPAS are revised every seven years (CSWE, 2015), and the curriculum that social work practitioners may have obtained their degree may not be the same as students' current social work education.

It is also important to note that field education is the signature pedagogy of social work education (CSWE, 2015). As the signature pedagogy, social work programs must provide current curriculum information to field instructors to maintain continuity of the education within field settings. CSWE (2015) requires that social work programs continue to collaborate with field placements and field instructors to ensure that all stakeholders' training needs are met. This requires orientation to program and field instructor training as educators. Domakin (2014), Homonoff (2008), and Sunirose (2013) research found that collaboration between the field

instructor and the University provides a seamless education from the classroom to the field setting. If curriculum information is not shared with field instructors, field education will become a “compromised pedagogy in social work education” (Domakin, 2014, p. 720). Unfortunately, CSWE does not mandate the use pedagogical frameworks when providing orientation or training modules to ensure that field instructors are trained as educators within field settings. Social work programs are left to interpret CSWE requirements and develop training as deemed appropriate.

Field instructors have a vital role in field education, which requires training that prepares them as educators. Ketner, Bolinsky, and VanCleave (2017) state that “supervision has played an important role in social work field education” (p. 1) as it offers an opportunity to develop leadership and management skills. To understand the role of a supervisor to that of an educator a definition is provided. A supervisor is defined as, “a person in the first line management who monitors and regulates employees in their performance as assigned or delegated task” (businessdictionary.com, 2017). An educator is skilled in teaching a student of the theory and practice of education (Merriam-Webster, 2017). Research has indicated that field instructor training often focuses on administrative matters rather than teaching topics that link theory to practice (Boitel and Fromm 2014). Ignoring relevant topics weakens field instructors’ ability to educate students adequately.

There have been studies conducted on training in areas of specialization such as EBP, Child Welfare, group work, substance abuse, and critical thinking (Amour, Bain, & Rubio, 2004; Dettlaff, 2008; LaPorte & Sweifach, 2011; Rogers & McDonald, 1992; SteenRod & Bael, 2010; Wiechelt & Ting, 2012). However, no research has been conducted on how to train field instructors to be educators (Dedman and Palmer, 2011; Dettlaff & Dietz, 2004). Field instructors’ methods of teaching are not often addressed in literature (Short, 2001). Dettlaff

(2008) states that field instructors need to develop the “knowledge and skill concerning effective method of instruction” (p. 333). Clerk and Smith (2012) state the different learning styles that exist within the student population, and it is important for field instructors to be skilled in a range of “teaching and learning strategies” (p. 246). Social work programs must have an ongoing dialogue with field instructor and provide training that utilize and teach the use of pedagogical theories (Gibitiu & Manago-Maghiar, 2011). Dettlaff and Dietz (2004) state that the “principles of adult learning indicate that field instructor training will be more relevant to participants when they have an active role in determining both content and structure of the training” (p. 15). For this reason, it is essential that social work programs to utilize pedagogical theories to develop and facilitate field instructor training and have an ongoing collaboration with field instructors about training needs (Dettlaff and Dietz, 2004). Ongoing collaboration with field instructors and affiliated agencies as required by CSWE EPAS will enhance field instructor’s knowledge and skills as well as foster student learning.

There is a shortage of research that examines field instructors’ training needs and preferred delivery of training. Dettlaff and Dietz (2004) conducted a study to explore field instructors’ perceptions of their training needs. The authors led two focus groups; one for new field instructor and the other for seasoned field instructors. The authors found that new and experienced field instructors expressed a need for advanced training to help students make connections between classroom and field, understand the role of social work in the agency, and identify the social work knowledge, values, and skills used in practice” (p. 28). Essentially, field instructors were seeking training about their role and function as field instructors that would develop the method of teaching students within their practice.

Domakin (2014) conducted research exploring practice educator's perspectives regarding curriculum collaboration. The study involved 89 practice educators who were employed at different agencies in the area. The University collaborated with practice educators who shared concerns for students' ability to integrate academic learning to practice. The program was designed around student's placement, which was utilized as a learning platform to link classroom learning to practice settings. In this study, field instructors were included in the academic process and were given access to the curriculum. The research resulted in findings of the need of linking theory and practice; perceptions of difference between academic and placement learning; access to the educational curriculum; and developing the role of the practice educator. The development of the role of the practice educator was significant in this study. This research suggested that providing opportunities for field instructors to be better informed about academic curriculum was useful (Domakin, 2014, p. 728). Furthermore, the research outcomes gave insight that universities need to work more with field instructors as "insufficient attention is paid to them as educators (Domakin, 2014).

Aside from field instructors being educators, they are also gatekeepers of both the quality and successfulness of the field placement, most importantly student learning (Dettlaff, 2008). Without proper training that addresses field instructor's role as educators, they will be apt to continue to act as supervisors whose primary purpose is to adhere to completing agency needs instead of teaching students. However, it is essential to acknowledge that field instructors' first responsibility is to their practice and then students. Their workload impedes them from effectively developing their role as educators" (Domakin, 2014, p. 727) as their workload goes unchanged despite the added responsibility to supervise students.

Despite their unchanged workload, field instructors who attend orientation and training are given little time to convert learned principles into practices as educators (Maidment, 2000). Maidment (2000) states that “while field instructors may be acquainted with some knowledge about effective [teaching] methods, the degree to which the knowledge then is integrated into their [practice] with students may be limited, due to insufficient in-depth training” (p. 150). Specifically, field instructors are instructed without being given instruction on effective ways to teach students in field settings. Rogers and McDonald (1995) state,

Field curriculum is communicated to students and field instructors by the academic institution in [the] form of objectives and competencies and outcomes. It is then up to field instructors to implement this curriculum within the context of the agency setting, according to school policy and adapted to the individual needs of students. (p. 42)

Training is a critical component to the success of field instructors and students in field settings.

Nevertheless, it is important to understand the context under which training is offered to field instructor. Field instructors are training under the framework of continuing education credits or professional development. Professional development is a “process of improving and increasing capabilities ... through access to education and training opportunities, through outside organization, or through watching others perform the job” (businessdictionary.com, 2017).

Webster-Wright (2009) states that is important to know how professionals learn to know how they would develop professionally. Social work programs must adhere to a training curriculum that includes content that is relevant to participants’ needs, which will allow them to actively participate in the training (Desimore, 2009, as cited in Smith 2010). More specifically, training should focus on the practitioners' ability to apply knowledge to practice. Webster-Wright (2009) state that “the key features of professional learning include learning from experiences; learning from a reflective action and learning mediated by context. (p. 68). This type of framework will

enhance field instructor knowledge and skill acquisition, which will, in turn, increase students' competence, as they become generalist practitioners.

With this said, field instructor training has been interpreted in various ways among social work programs. Research shows that social work programs develop their interpretation of field orientation and train them in different areas of social work practice (Dettlaff, 2008; Knight, 2001, Steenrod & Bael, 2011; Wiechelt & Ting, 2012) (see Figure 6). CSWE requires social work programs to orient and train field instructors (CSWE, 2015). There is no training framework offered by CSWE in developing such orientation and training. Undoubtedly, there is a need for an orientation and training framework in support of field instructors practice with students. There are field instructional texts for field instructors to guide their practice that utilize pedagogical theories of andragogy, experiential theory, and transformational theory when engaging students in their learning experience (Anastas, 2010; Bogo 2010; Hendricks, Finch & Franks, 2013). However, the responsibility of training social work practitioners rest upon social work programs on how to utilize and apply pedagogical theories into their practice with students as educators. Field instructor training should be tailored using pedagogical methods that foster adult learning. With this said, there is a need to develop training for field instructors that enhances their pedagogy as they transition from being practitioners to being educators.

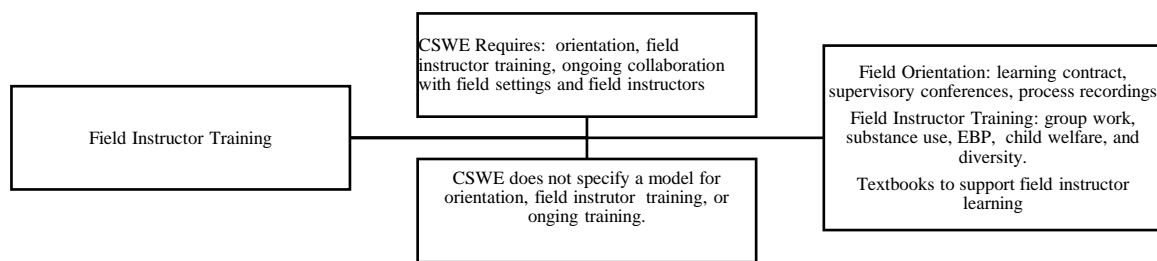


Figure 6. *Field Instructor Training Flow Chart*

In consideration of the foregoing, field instructors would benefit from specialized training as educators (Abramson & Fortune, 1990; Bogo, 1981; Dettlaff & Dietz, 2002; Dwyer & Urbandwski, 1981; Detlaff, 2003; Knight, 2001; Moorehouse, Hay & O'Donoghue, 2014; Roger & McDonald, 1992) using pedagogical principles of learning. Research studies found that when structured, congruent training is offered to field instructors, the success of field instructors as educators, as well as student satisfaction, is higher. More specifically, when adult learning theories are used in training, field instructors have shown improvement in supervising and instructing students in field settings (Abramsom & Fortune, 1990; Delfflet, 2008; Bogo, 1981; Raskin, Skolnik, & Wayne, 1991; Roger & McDonald 1985, 1992). In addition to this, social work programs around the United States and abroad are held accountable by CSWE and NASW to providing quality training (Bogo, 1981) to social work practitioners. Field instructors are considered to be important educators for students. Without adequate supervision and guidance in field settings, students, therefore, will become dissatisfied will thus be ill prepared for practice (Bogo, 2006; Kanno & Koseko, 2010; Moorhouse, Hay, & O'Donoghue, 2014).

Student Perceptions of Field Supervision and Instruction

Field education is considered the primary location for students to integrate theory into practice, to develop a professional identity, and to deepen their disciplinary socialization skills (Davys & Beddoe, 2010). Expert practitioners who serve as field instructors supervise students. As such, field instructors are considered the group of professionals who support and educate students in practice settings (Bogo & Vayda, 1998; Abram, Hartung, & Werenet, 2000). Without experienced field instructors to socialize students to the profession, students will lack mastery in the social work competencies set by CSWE.

Social work programs are required to recruit field instructors who meet the requirements set by CSWE (2015) EPAS. Field instructors are responsible for designing field learning opportunities for students and for assessing the students' competence as future social work practitioners. As a part of their responsibility, field instructors must offer students one-hour educational reflective learning sessions while providing the social work perspective. Davys and Beddoe (2010) describe the role of field instructors within placements as providing students with structured, interactive learning opportunities as they build relationship with consumers and other professionals. The structured learning environment may "involve some or all of these [other] components: observation, monitoring, teaching, coaching, supporting, and providing reflective supervision for students during their placement" (p. 197). Additionally, the supervision that students receive in this structured environment also involves elements of teaching and evaluation of student learning, which is not always present in the supervision of seasoned practitioners (Beddoe, et al., 2011). Fortune and other colleagues (1985) state that field instructors' supervisory competence is important as it sets the tone for students learning experience within the agency. Essentially, field instructors must not only be competent supervisors but skilled educators in field settings.

While there is research to support the vital role that field instructors play in teaching students the role of generalist practitioner, as well as, to support the need for field instructors to receive continued training, conversely, students' perceptions of field placements have not been taken into consideration (Rosenblatt & Mayer 1975). Research on students' perceptions of field supervision is limited (Moorhouse, Hay, & O'Donoghue, 2014). However, students have rated the quality of supervision and the relevance of learning as the most important features determining their satisfaction regarding their placement experience (Fortune, et al., 1985).

Students achieving satisfaction is an important element for field education in its goal to educate and train students to become competent social work practitioners.

Fortune and colleagues' (1985) study focused on five areas related to "satisfactory" field placement and learning experience for social work students: "student characteristics, agency characteristics and climate of learning, learning goals and structures for learning, supervisors, and supervision, and the school-agency link" (p. 92). The study found that students' field experience was poor due to field instructors' inability to provide instruction that fostered learning. Field instructor should have experience in offering students learning experiences that foster learning. The agency climate and structure for learning rest on the field instructors to develop, one that fosters student learning.

The field practicum is an important component of social work student's experience. Fortune and Abramson (1993) state that "student satisfaction with field education is associated with many aspects of the field practicum" (p. 106), specifically, with of the quality of field instruction and explanations by the field instructor. The authors conducted a study of the satisfaction of master level social work students who were specializing in direct practice and found that "quality of field instruction were themselves predicted by the presence of regular supervision, in-depth discussions of students' learning needs, and making the connection to theory" (p. 106). More specifically, the authors' findings indicate that in order to provide students with quality instruction, field instructors need knowledge and skills to develop methods to teach students (Fortune and Abramson, 1993). With this said, field instructors need specialized training as it takes time to develop the skills necessary to instruct another. Without specialized training as educators who also provide students supervision within field settings,

students will become dissatisfied with their educational experience, thus becoming ill-prepared for practice.

Research shows that inadequate supervision of students in field settings leads to students to be dissatisfied and lack the competence to practice as generalist practitioners (Bogo, 2005; Kanno & Koesko, 2010; Moorhouse, Hay & O'Donoghue, 2014). Kanno and Koesko's (2010) research found that poor direct and indirect [communication with students] effect of quality of supervision in field setting field" (p. 31) resulting in student's feeling dissatisfied with the field experience. Students must be provided with adequate supervision and concrete instruction in field settings to foster critical thinking and competence. Student dissatisfaction becomes prevalent when there is inadequate supervision by the field instructor (Kanno & Koesko, 2010). The authors state "supervision quality was a critical factor in the process by which student satisfaction was determined, sharing that there has long been an awareness that field education would be enhanced by high-quality supervision in the field" (p. 31). Social work programs must continue to evaluate the supervisory skills of field instructors' skills and provide training in support of their critical role as educators.

Supervision is an essential tool for teaching students how to be social work practitioners. Moorhouse, Hay, and O'Donoghue (2014) argue that there are factors which reinforce the need for "preparation of both supervisee and supervisor, and the importance of experientially based learning about supervision," (p. 43). One student in this study questioned her supervisor's training as it impacted her supervision experience, believing the supervisor simply did not have the tools to guide her learning (Moorhouse, Hay & O'Donoghue, 2014). Preparation of both field instructors and students is critical. More specifically, the training that field instructors receive must be theoretically driven to enhance their knowledge and their approach as educators.

It is important that social work programs take a didactic approach to meeting the learning needs of students and field instructors by providing resources. Also, social work programs need to take time to guide field instructors to embed learning time and avoid frustrations for them. When assuming the position of an educator, field instructors are ultimately responsible for seeing that students are instructed as developing professionals (NASW, 2015). Ethically, field instructors are bound to provide quality supervision to those they oversee to avoid unethical encounters that place constituents at risk.

Educational supervision is a form of guided training those students receives from their field instructors in practice settings (Jahanian, Karaj, & Ebrahimi, 2013). Carpi and Reid (2002) define supervision as the “overseeing of another’s work with sanctioned authority to monitor direct performance, to ensure satisfactory performance” (p. 2), which includes client safety. The authors further define educational supervision as “the focus of the encounter of supervisee learning. Knowledge and skill development takes priority over administrative and supportive tasks” (p. 3). Without having field instructors with specialized training that fosters learning, social work students will be less prepared for practice as generalist practitioners.

To conclude, the literature reviewed reflects the need for specialized field instruction training that is structured to support the learning needs of field instructors. However, the literature does not define what specialized training means nor does it show what types of training are needed. Research does allude to the use of the pedagogical theory of andragogy in the training of field instructors to enhance their knowledge and practice skills; however, there has been inconsistency in its use in delivering content and in the development of training. The content tends to separate supervision and teaching students in field placements.

Field supervision and education, should be viewed together in support of the educational supervision that students receive from their field instructors. However, field instructors undergo field education orientation with no allowance for time to integrate the content that was learned. Field instructors report one significant barrier to engaging in training, which is "time" (Mattieu, Carter, Casner, & Edmond, 2016) "both to attend training and supervise students" (Dedman, 2008, p. 32). Time appears to be a factor in field instructors' ability to grasp what the significance of their role is and in actually learning pedagogical theories, which will assist in their method of instructing students.

Social work students appreciate the learning that they receive from field instructors in supporting their growth and identity as generalist practitioners. However, it is notable that supervision and teaching go hand in hand in field settings. These attributes are not considered separate entities of instruction within field settings. Kanno and Koesko (2010) argue, "supervision quality was a critical factor in the process by which student satisfaction was determined, sharing that there has long been an awareness that field education would be enhanced by high-quality supervision in the field" (p. 31). Students gain more knowledge and skills when they receive constructive feedback, are observed in the field and are assisted when reflecting on real-world events that occur with individuals, families, groups, communities, and organizations.

It is clear from this review of the literature that the role that field instructor's play is vital for students as they become practitioners; however, field instructors are not given tools to become effective educators. As students are trained to become generalist practitioners, field instructors should be trained to become educators.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Research Design

A quantitative quasi-experimental nonequivalent comparison group pretest and posttest design was used to estimate the impact of the experimental intervention used in this study without random assignment of groups (see Figure 7). Intervention research also uses experiential and quasi-experiential research designs in pilot and efficacy testing to measure the impact of an intervention (Fraser, Richman, Galinsky, & Day, 2009). The selected design allowed for an already existing group like the experimental group to be compared to the group that did not receive the intervention (Rubin & Babbie, 2016). Fraser, Richman, Galinsky, and Day (2009) state that “quasi-experimental group design . . . are assigned by nonrandom means which include self-selection” (p. 112). The participants who volunteered to attend the face-to-face training was compared to participants who did not volunteer. Thus, naturally creating the experimental and comparison group from a pilot BSW orientation and field instructor training held at a public institution of higher education within the school of social work program.

Although the groups were naturally created, the design was not exempted from exposure to a variety of possible validity threats, which included selection bias (Fraser, et. al, 2009). Fraser, et al. (2009) state that selection bias occurs because of participant self-selection what they want to be a part of when participating in professional development activities. Self-selection has “characteristics that create plausible rival explanations” (p. 113) for observed differences between the experimental and the comparison groups. For example, field instructors and task supervisors who voluntarily participated in the face to face training were more willing to change their approach to field instruction with students than those who did not participate in the face to face training (Fraser, et. al, 2009).

Despite the possible biases, the research design allows for an idea of utilizing pedagogical theories when developing and delivering training to field instructors and task supervisors. Fraser, et. al (2009) state that this type of research design “attempts to answer the fundamental question of whether an innovative approach is effective in producing a desired outcome” (p. 26). The authors explain that interventions are “often designed to change knowledge [and] skill ...” (p. 31), which was the desired outcome of this study. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) (Reference No. 355583271) approved this research study.

O₁ X O₂

Figure 7. Quasi-experimental nonequivalent comparison group pretest and posttest design

The pilot orientation and field instructor training in this study evaluated the usefulness of pedagogical theories (e.g., andragogy, experiential, and transformational theories) when designing BSW orientation and field instructor training. The aim of the study was to assess to what degree the field orientation and training enhanced field instructors’ and task supervisors’ knowledge and skills as “educators” in field settings. The main question of this study is “Does experiential training received by field instructors affect the supervision that students receive in field settings?” To answer this question, the following research questions were explored:

5. Is there a difference between the two groups (experiential and comparison) of field instructors’ and task supervisors’ knowledge of roles/responsibilities related to field education?
6. Is there a difference in perceptions of supervisor competency skills following the completion of the experiential face-to-face training?
7. Is there a difference in the students’ perceptions of field supervision between the field instructors and task supervisors who attended an online-only session vs. those who also attended the face-to-face experiential training session?
8. Is there a difference in students’, and field instructors’/task supervisors’ perceptions of supervisory competence?

Participants

All participants for this study were field instructors or task supervisors assigned to supervise at least one undergraduate (BSW) social work student during the Fall 2017 semester within a school of social work program located within in a public institution of higher education in Southcentral PA. The BSW field instructors are social work professionals with degrees in social work (e.g., BSW, MSW). Other professionals involved in students learning in field settings are agency and/or organizational supervisors. These professionals have degrees in other areas of professional practice. The public institution of higher education identifies these professionals as task supervisors. The field instructors/task supervisors were invited to attend a mandatory orientation and training, however they were given a choice to attend an additional a three-hour face-to-face experiential training.

The BSW field instructors and task supervisors who took part in the orientation and field instructor training were matched with senior BSW student interns who entered their field placement in the Fall of 2017. The students served as interns within their respective agencies. The Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) requires the orientation and field instructor training. CSWE requires that social work programs provide orientation and training to field instructors (CSWE, 2015). Task supervisors are also invited to attend the training in order for them to understand their role and responsibility when instructing students in field settings. Field instructors must have a degree in social work and two years post graduate social work practice experience to supervise social work students (CSWE, 2015).

The participants comprised of field instructors, task supervisors, and senior BSW students who were entering their field practicum. Seventeen (17) BSW field instructors and task supervisors who were employed by their respective agencies and organizations were sent the e-

letter to complete an online knowledge-based orientation and a one-day face-to-face experiential training session. Of the 17 field instructors and task supervisors ($n = 17$) invited only 70 % responded, yielding 12 participants who completed the online knowledge-based orientation training. Of the 12 participants who completed this online knowledge-based orientation training, only six participated in the face-to-face experiential training. These participants naturally formed the experimental group. The remaining six field instructors and task supervisor were the comparison group.

In addition to the 12 field instructors and task supervisors, there were 23 students entering field placements who were matched with field instructors and task supervisors within their respective field settings. Of the 23 students, only 14 students were considered as participants as they were being supervised by one of the 12 field instructors or task supervisors within either the experimental or comparison group, yielding 60% of student participation. These fourteen students were divided naturally into two equal groups according to their field instructors' and task supervisors' groups (experimental, comparison). However, only 13 students were counted as participants in this study due to one student who did not complete the survey at the end of the Fall 2017 semester (see Figure 8).

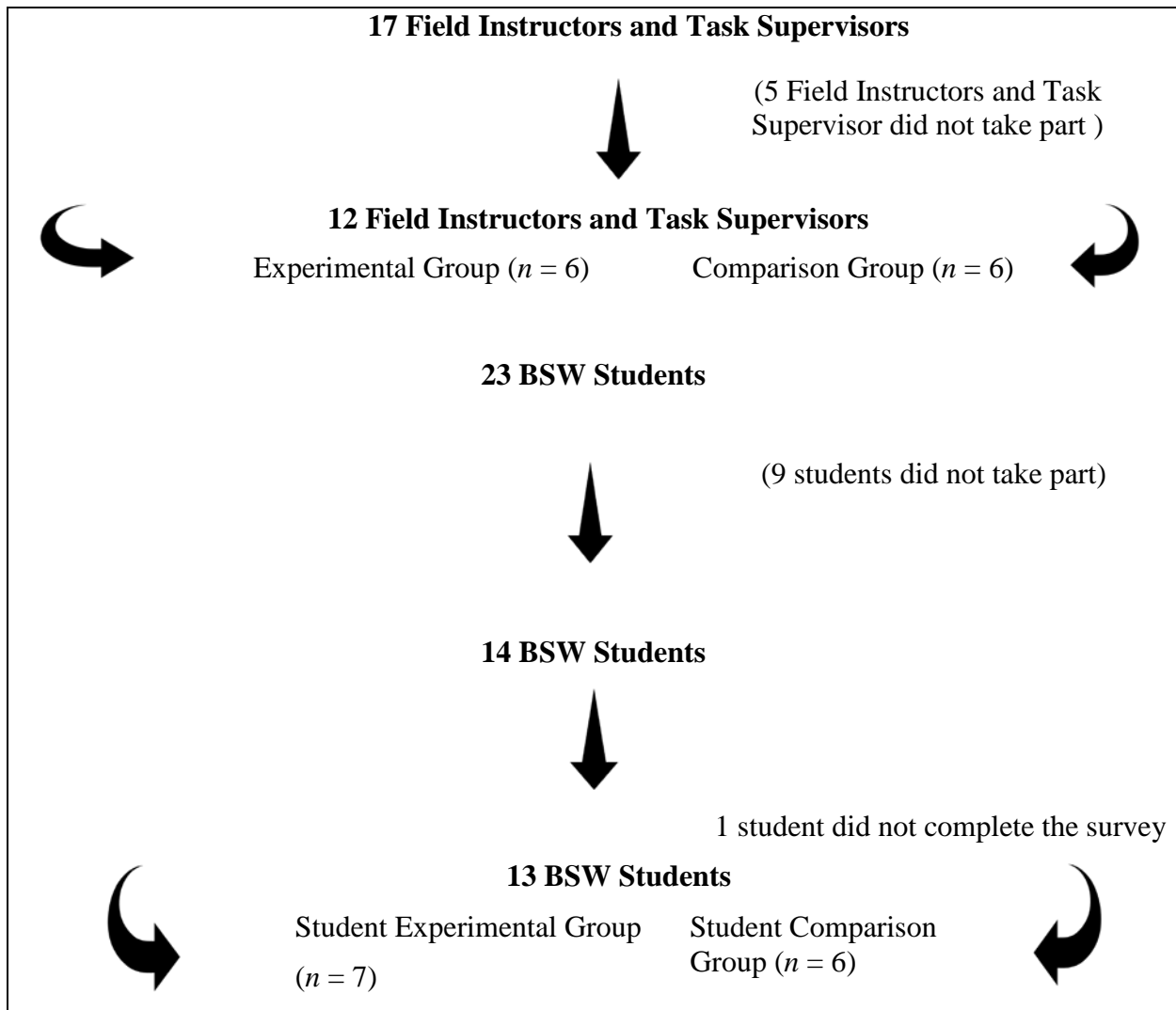


Figure 8. Participant flow chart.

Table 3 gives a summary of the demographics for the experimental and the comparison groups. The majority field instructors and task supervisors in the experimental group were female (n = 3, 75%), and had an MSW degree (n = 2, 50 %). The average age for these participants were 50.6 (SD = 13.9) and they had an average of 20.4 years (SD = 19.4) of social work practice experience. The years of professional practice experience for task supervisors were not reported. The participants had an average of 23 years (SD= 18.7) of field instructor experience.

Within the comparison group, most the field instructors and task supervisors were female ($n = 5, 83\%$) and had an MSW degree ($n = 3, 50\%$). The two task supervisors were females who had degrees in other professions. The BSW field instructors' average years of practice experience was 18.5 ($SD=7.8$). The comparison group had on record reported having experience supervising social work students; however, they did not offer a numerical value that showed years of experience. Two task supervisors had not recorded a numerical expression that described practice or supervisory experience of social work students.

Table 3. *BSW Field Instructors/Task Supervisors Demographics*

		<i>Experiential Group (n = 6)</i>		<i>Comparison Group (n = 6)</i>	
		<i>n%</i>		<i>n%</i>	
<i>Gender</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>16% (n=1)</i>		<i>16% (n = 1)</i>	
	<i>Female</i>	<i>83.33% (n=5)</i>		<i>83.33% (n=5)</i>	
<i>Highest degree</i>	<i>BSW</i>	<i>33.33% (n=2)</i>		<i>0%</i>	
	<i>MSW</i>	<i>33.33% (n=2)</i>		<i>66.67% (n=4)</i>	
	<i>Other</i>	<i>33.33% (n=2)</i>		<i>33.33% (n=2)</i>	
		<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Years of practice experience</i>		<i>20.4</i>	<i>19.4</i>	<i>18.5</i>	<i>7.8</i>
<i>Years of Field Instructor Experience</i>		<i>23</i>	<i>18.7</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>16.2</i>

Table 4 provides a summary of students' demographics. The experimental student group was mostly female ($n = 5, 71.43\%$) and four traditional aged students ($n = 4, 57.14\%$). The average age was 33.1 ($SD=17.1$) years. The comparison group of students was all females. The student's average age was 26.5 ($SD 7.46$). Five students ($n = 5, 75\%$) were traditional aged students

Table 4.*Demographics of Statics: BSW Students*

		Experiential Group (n = 6) %	Comparison Group (n = 6) n%		
Gender	Male	16% (n=1)	16% (n =1)		
	Female	83.33% (n=5)	83.33% (n=5)		
Highest degree	BSW	33.33% (n=2)	0%		
	MSW	33.33% (n=2)	66.67% (n=4)		
	Other	33.33% (n=2)	33.33% (n=2)		
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Years of practice experience		20.4	19.4	18.5	7.8
Years of Field Instructor Experience		23	18.7	20	16.2

Data Collection

Table 7 provides a visual summary of the data collection process. The data were collected as part of the pilot orientation and training offered by a public institution of higher education in Southcentral, PA. The BSW field instructors and task supervisors were required to participate in an orientation and field instructor training at the beginning of the Fall semester of 2017. Seventeen participants were invited via e-letter (Appendix A). The e-letter informed the field instructors and task supervisors of a new innovative online orientation and the date, time, and location of the one-day face-to-face experiential training offered at a public institution of higher education in South-central, PA. A Survey Monkey link was provided in the e-letter to complete

the knowledge-based quiz. A second invitation was sent via e-letter; encouraged participants to respond.

All 12 field instructors and task supervisors completed a 45-minute online knowledge-based audio video orientation presentation and a 20-question knowledge-based quiz. The audio video presentation covered information related to the mission of the public institution's social work program, roles and responsibilities of field staff, learning tools, student assessments, and the CSWE 2015 EPAS. The information contained in the audio video presentation was provided to the field instructors and task supervisors along with a link to the CSWE EPAS to ensure understanding related to the social work program, roles and responsibilities and the EPAS. This online knowledge-based PowerPoint audio presentation took about 45 minutes to complete. Field instructors/task supervisors then completed 20 knowledge based question quiz, which related to roles and responsibilities on social work education (see Appendix B). Field instructors and Task supervisors had to score 80% or higher to receive a certificate of completion. The results of the quiz were stored in the Survey Monkey program under the public institutions' passcode account.

Of the 12 field instructors and task supervisors, six participated in the face-to-face one-day experiential training session. These participants completed a pretest and posttest. The pretest and posttest were assigned a number to match each test with the same participant.

These groups then naturally formed the two groups of students (experiential and comparison groups). These students were students whom the participants supervised during the duration of the Fall semester of 2017. There were 14 students identified. These students were given a survey related to their perceptions of their field instructors' and task supervisors' competence. The survey was distributed to students and collected at the end of the Social Work Statistics course, a course taken by seniors during the last semester of their senior year.

Intervention

The intervention in this study was one day, three hour the face-to-face experiential training. Upon arrival, the field instructors and task supervisors were given a folder that contained a pretest and posttest and writing materials for the face-to-face training session. The field instructors and task supervisors then selected a table sitting with other field instructor and task supervisors. The facilitator began the session by giving an overview of the content of the folders given to each field instructors and task supervisors. The facilitator informed the field instructors and task supervisors that the training was a pilot training. The field instructors and task supervisors were asked to complete the pretest and posttest field instructor survey, which would help evaluate the training (See Appendix C). The facilitator informed that field instructors and task supervisors that the pretest field instructor's surveys were voluntary and encouraged them to read the informed consent located on the top of the pretest, which allowed the facilitator to use their information to evaluate the training. This survey was a self-reporting tool on the field instructor's and task supervisor's perceptions of their supervisory competence. The facilitator then collected the pretests from the field instructors and task supervisors.

The face-to-face training session began with a review of the location of the restrooms as well as exits. The facilitator continued with an review of the sessions agenda followed by introductions by the participants. The participants had to share the following:

1. Name
2. Agency name
3. How many years have you served as a field instructor?
4. Something unique about yourself?
5. Their name, name of agency, how many years they have served as a field instructor/task supervisor?

After the field instructor and task supervisors, introduced themselves the facilitator introduced herself and position. The facilitator proceeded by stating the purpose for the training, sharing relevant research studies and requirements by CSWE standard 2.2.10 as well as NASW Code of Ethics discussing the importance of trainings for field instructors and task supervisors as they transition from practitioner to practice educator. The facilitator then reviewed the learning objectives as follows:

1. Become familiar with nine social work competencies as it pertains to students competences in practice settings
2. Understanding how the nine social work competences apply to practice settings
3. Understand how to utilize of adult learning theories in practice with students:
 - a. Andragogy Theory
 - b. Experiential Theory
 - c. Transformational Theory

The session comprised research-based information regarding specialized training for field instructors, the use of pedagogical theories during supervision and group discussions. The facilitator facilitated discussions related to the use of educational methods during supervision, the nine social work competencies. The field instructors and task supervisors shared their experiences supervising social work students as well as ideas of how to handle certain professional behaviors within agency settings. The facilitator asked the field instructors and task supervisors to form two groups. The groups were given vignettes to read and discuss as a group. After the field instructors and task supervisors discussed their assigned vignettes then the facilitator asked them to present their vignette and share who they would foster learning and support the student who demonstrate unethical behavior.

Next, the pedagogical theories of andragogy, experiential, and transformational theories were explicitly explained, using day-to-day examples of administrative work with other workers

and professionals within their place of practice. Examples of the pedagogical theories used in field settings were:

1. Andragogy theory is used when workers learn from each other's experiences as they interact with clients and other professionals in the field.
2. Experiential theory is used when workers try out what they have learned from others in our practice with clients and in our interactions with other professionals.
3. Transformational theory is manifested throughout the time when workers place what they have learned into practice.

During the discussion, the participants were able to relate and talk about their own experiences with students during supervisory conferences, sharing the techniques they used to teach students within field settings. Before the experimental face to face training session ended, the field instructors and task supervisors were instructed to complete the Field Instructor posttest survey located in their folders. The Field Instructor posttest survey mirrored that of the Field Instructor pretest, however, added ten demographic questions. The Field Instructor posttest survey were collected and placed in lock draw in the social work department office of Field Education.

Measures

The measures used in this study were as follows: a knowledge-based field Education quiz and a Field Instructor pretest and a Field Instructor posttest survey and a student survey. The purpose and description of these measurements are discussed.

Knowledge-Based Quiz. The knowledge-based quiz comprised 20 knowledge-based questions related to field instructors' and task supervisors' role and expectations in social work education. The researcher of this study developed the 20-question quiz. Field instructors and task supervisors had to score 80% or higher to receive a certificate of completion. The quiz

results from the field instructors and the task supervisors were analyzed to compare any difference in knowledge between the experimental group and the comparison group.

Field Instructors Pretest and Posttest Survey. The Field Instructor Survey pretest comprised 57 supervisory competence questions, which were based on a categorization used by Murdock, Ligon, Ward, and Choi (2002), which identifies field instructor competencies (see Appendix B). The questions were categorized by subscales as follows: (1) Teaching Competence, (2) Evaluation competence, (3) Relationship-building competence, (4) Structural competence, (5) and Role competence. Each supervisory competence category had a five-point Likert scale with one (1) indicating where the participants felt weakest in the identified area of supervisory competence and five (5) indicating where they felt strongest in this area. Each of the subscales had six to seven questions. The last question was labeled other to allow field instructors and task supervisors an opportunity to offer methods used in their practice with student interns. During the analysis stage of the research process none of the questions analyzed needed reversed coding.

The Field Instructor Survey posttest mirrored the Field Instructor pretest; however, demographic information was collected from the participants on the posttest. The demographic data collected included age, gender, highest degree earned, major of highest degree, years spent to obtain the highest degree, field placement role, years of social work practice experience, years of experience as a task supervisor, and level of the degree (BSW or MSW) of the social work students supervised. The pretest and posttest field instructor survey results from the face to face experiential training were analyzed to detect if there was an increased knowledge as a result of the face to face experiential training.

Students Survey. The students of those participants received a survey similar to the supervisory competencies in the Field Instructor Survey pretest and posttest (see Appendix D). The same five-point Likert scale (from 1= weak to 5 = strong) was used to evaluate student's field instructors' and task supervisors' supervisory performance. The students were given the survey during the Social Work Statistics course, which was collected upon completion. All the surveys were scored using a five-point Likert scale (from 1=weak to 5=strong), in each of the areas of supervisory competence (teaching competence, evaluation competence, relationship-building competence, structural competence, and role competence). Each of the subscales had six to seven questions. The last question was labeled other to allow students to offer a method employed during supervision. During the analysis stage of the research process none of the questions analyzed needed reversed coding.

Data Analysis

Due to the limitation of the sample size, nonparametric tests were used to analyze the data. The Mann-Whitney and Wilcoxon signed-rank non-parametric statistical tests were utilized to analyze the data. The Mann-Whitney test analyzed difference between two unrelated tests and used in lieu of independent sample t-test (Field, 2016). The Wilcoxon rank signed test analyzes difference between two related samples and used in lieu of paired samples t-test (Fields, 2016). Outlined below and depicted in Table 6, are the specific analyses used to answer each of the research questions.

Research Question One

Is there a difference between the two groups (experiential and comparison) of field instructors' and task supervisors' knowledge of roles/responsibilities related to field education? The Mann-Whitney tests analyzed the difference in knowledge of field education roles and

responsibilities between the experimental and the comparison groups. The hypothesis was that there is no difference as it relates to knowledge related to their roles and responsibilities in social work education between the two groups

Research Question Two

Is there a difference in perceptions of supervisors' competency skills following the completion of the experiential face-to-face training? The Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to compare BSW field instructors' and task supervisors' pretest and posttest field survey results. The statistical test analyzed if there was a difference in perception of supervisory competency skills following the experiential training. The hypothesis is that there will be a difference in field instructors and task supervisors perceptions of the supervisory competency skills.

Research Question Three

Is there a difference in the students' perceptions of field supervision between the field instructors and task supervisors who attended an online-only session vs. those who also attended the face-to-face experiential training session?

The Mann-Whitney test was used to analyze the differences between the experimental and the comparison groups related to students' perceptions of field supervision received. The hypothesis was that there a difference in perceptions of supervisory competence received of field instructors/task supervisors between the two groups.

Research Question Four

Is there a difference in students and field instructors'/task supervisors' perceptions of supervisory competence skills? The Mann-Whitney test was used to analyze if there is a difference between the students and field instructors'/task supervisors' perceptions. The hypothesis was that there was no difference between the groups and that with the experiential

group, both students and field instructors'/task supervisors' perceived same level of supervisory competence skills.

This study will add to the social work profession's body of knowledge of field instruction and training modalities, which will assist programs in preparing and supporting field instructors as they shift from being practitioners to becoming educators. It will also support task supervisors in providing information that will enhance their roles and what is expected of them as it relates to social work field education.

Table 5.

Research Design

Research Question	Variables	Nonparametric Statistical Test
1. Is there a difference between the two groups (experiential and comparison) of field instructors' and task supervisors' knowledge of roles/responsibilities related to field education?	<p>Online Knowledge Based Training (<i>Andragogy Theory</i>)</p> <p>Intervention Group (Quiz) n = 6</p> <p>Comparison Group (Quiz) n = 6</p>	Mann-Whitney test
2. Is there a difference in perceptions of supervisors' competency skills following the completion of the experiential face-to-face training?	<p>Face to Face Training (<i>Experiential Theory</i>)</p> <p>Field Instructor Survey Pretest n = 6</p> <p>Field Instructor Survey Posttest n = 6</p>	Wilcoxon signed-rank test
3. Is there a difference in the students' perceptions of field supervision between the field instructors and task supervisors who attended an online-only session vs. those who also attended the face-to-face experiential training session?	<p>Students' Field Instructors Survey Perceptions (<i>Transformational Theory</i>)</p> <p>Experiential Group (Online / F 2 F) n = 7</p> <p>Comparison Group (Online) n = 7</p>	Mann-Whitney test
4. Is there a difference in students and field instructors'/task supervisors' perceptions of supervisory competence skills?	<p>Experiential Group Field Instructor Survey Posttests Perceptions (<i>Transformational</i>) n = 6</p> <p>Students Survey Perceptions (Transformational) n=7</p>	Mann-Whitney test

Chapter 4: Results

As mentioned in the earlier chapter, data used for this study was secondary data from a pilot BSW orientation and field instructor training held at public institution of higher education in Southcentral Pennsylvania. The pilot session required BSW field instructors and task supervisors to participate in an orientation and field instructor training for senior BSW students who were interning at their receptive practice settings. The participants in the pilot study were field instructors, task supervisors, and students. The instruments used to collect the data were an online knowledge-based quiz, a pretest/posttest, and a student perception of supervisory competence survey.

Prior to performing the nonparametric statistical analysis, it was necessary to first check for missing data. Across the four field instructors and task supervisors who completed the 57-question survey, there was 3.51 % missing data. Of the seven students who completed the 36-question survey, there was 2.7% missing data. Saunders, et al., (2006) and Fields (2016) state that missing data occurs when participants accidentally or deliberately choice to answer a question. Participants would be excluded from a study due to the missing data (Field, 2016; Saunders et. al., 2006; Schafer & Graham, 2006). However, due to the limitation of the sample size, it was important to retain all participants in the final analyses. To avoid excluding participants from the sample due to missing data, it was necessary to replace the missing data with a value. According to Little and Rubin (2002), when less than 20% of data on a specific scale is missing from individual responses, ipsative mean imputation should be used, which was done in this study, thus allowing for all participants to be included in further analyses to answer the specific research questions.

A previously stated, the nonparametric tests used to analyze the data and answer the research questions were the Mann-Whitney and the Wilcoxon signed rank statistical tests. The Mann-Whitney test was used to answer research questions 1, 3, and 4 and the Wilcoxon signed rank test was used to answer research questions 2.

Research Question One

Is there a difference between the two groups (experiential and comparison) of field instructors’ and task supervisors’ knowledge of roles/responsibilities related to field education?

The Mann-Whitney test was used to compare the difference in scores between the experimental and comparison groups’ quiz results. The test results showed no significant difference between the two groups’ knowledge of roles and expectations related to social work field education ($p = .118$). The experiential group had a mean score of 80.83 and the comparison group had a mean score of 86.60 (see Table 6. The experiential group had a mean score of 80.83 and the comparison group had a mean score of 86.60.

Table 6.

<i>Difference in Field Instructor and Task Supervisor Knowledge</i>			
Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experiential Group	6	80.83	7.82
Comparison Group	6	86.60	.52
Mann-Whitney U	8.50		
<i>p</i> value	.118		

Research Question Two

Is there a difference in perceptions of supervisors’ competency skills following the completion of the experiential face-to-face training?

The Wilcoxon signed rank nonparametric statistical test was utilized to compare field instructors' and task supervisors' pretest and posttest as it relates to their perceptions of supervisory competencies as result of participating in the experiential face-to-face training session. The results showed no change in field instructors' and task supervisors' perceptions of their supervisory competency for all categorical subscales ($p > 0.05$). The *M* and *SD* results from the pretest and posttest field instructor survey are listed in Table 7.

Table 7.

Field Instructors/Task Supervisors Change In Perception Of Supervisory Competence (n = 6)

Supervisory Subscales	Mean	SD	Wilcoxon	p value
Pretest FI Teaching Competencies	3.98	.41		
Posttest FI Teaching Competencies	4.36	.42	1.60	.109
Pretest FI Evaluation Competencies	4.02	.53		
Posttest FI Evaluation Competencies	4.20	.50	1.34	.180
Pretest FI Relationship Building Competencies	3.97	.27		
Post FI Relationship Building Competencies	4.35	.47	1.81	.066
Pretest FI Structural Competencies	4.08	.49		
Posttest FI Structural Competencies	4.05	.58	1.84	.66
Pretest Role Competencies	4.08	.34		
Posttest Role Competencies	3.78	.43	1.83	.68

Research Question Three

Is there a difference in the students' perceptions of field supervision between the field instructors and task supervisors who attended an online-only session vs. those who also attended the face-to-face experiential training session?

The Mann-Whitney statistical test was used to analyze the data and answer this research question. The results showed no difference between the two groups of students in regard to their perceptions of field supervision received from their assigned field instructors and task supervisors ($p > 0.05$) on all subscales except role competency ($p = .024$). The students who were supervised by Field Instructors/Task Supervisors, who received the online orientation only, reported higher perception of role competency than did the students who were supervised by the Field Instructors/Task Supervisors who also received the experiential face-to-face training. (See Table 8)

Table 8.

Students' perceptions of supervisory competence between two groups (experiential and comparison group) of Field Instructors/Task Supervisors

Supervisory Subscale	N	Mean	SD	Mann-Whitney	<i>p</i> value
Student FI Teaching Competencies	13	4.45	.53	10	.098
Student FI Evaluation Competencies	13	4.50	.57	18	.66
Student FI Relationship Building Competencies	13	4.52	.58	19	.77
Student FI Structural Competencies	13	4.31	.66	15	.43
Student Role Competencies	13	4.50	.47	5.5	.024

Research Question Four

Is there a difference in students and field instructors'/task supervisors' perceptions of supervisory competence skills?

The Mann-Whitney statistical test showed no difference in the students', field instructors', and task supervisors' perceptions on supervisory competencies ($p > 0.05$), as shown in Table 9.

Table 9.

Difference In Perception Of Supervisory Competency Between Students and Field Instructors/Task Supervisors

	Student Experiential Group		FI Experiential Group		Mann-Whitney	P value
	Mean (n = 7)	SD	Mean (n = 6)	SD		
Student-Teaching Comp	4.29	.53	4.10	.49	14	1.00
Student-Evaluation Comp	4.50	.70	4.07	.50	10	.527
Student-Relationship Building Comp	4.34	.73	4.17	.17	13.5	.927
Student Structural Comp	4.14	.78	4.15	.49	9.	.412
Student Role Comp	4.22	.45	4.22	.44	6.0	.164

In summary, the results of this study showed that, despite participating in additional experiential field orientation and training, the field instructors and task supervisors did not report change in their perception of their supervisory competencies and students who were supervised by these field instructors and task supervisors also did not report difference in perception of supervision received, except on role competency subscale with students who were supervised by field instructors and task supervisors who received online orientation only reported higher perceptions on this subscale.

Chapter Five: Discussion

The primary purpose of this study was to answer this question “Does the experiential training received by field instructors affect the supervision student receive in field settings?” This chapter will examine considerations of findings, identifying study strengths and limitation, and discuss implications for social work education and future research.

Considerations of Findings

Field instructors and task supervisors in both groups (experimental and comparison groups) showed no difference in knowledge after completing the online knowledge-based orientation presentation and quiz. Field orientation’s primary purpose is to acquaint field instructors and task supervisors to the schools’ program and policies and CSWE mandates to support field education in placement settings (Deal & Clements, 2006; Kanno & Koesko, 2010, Lacerte, Ray, & Irwin, 1989). The results show that the two groups acquired knowledge acquisition necessary to acquaint field instructors and task supervisors to the roles, responsibilities, and social work competencies as outlined in CSWE 2015 EPAS.

These findings align with the theory of andragogy as it allowed field instructors and task supervisors to self-direct their learning as they acquired an orientation related to their roles and responsibilities (Fox, 2016). The use of this theory is supported by literature (Abramson & Fortune, 1990, Bogo & Power, 1994; Bogo 2010; Dettlaff, 2008, Hendricks, Finch, & Franks, 2013). Specifically, andragogy theory allowed the participants to pause and relate these competencies to activities in their agencies or organization. Field instructors and task supervisors who scored 80% or higher on the knowledge-based exam reinforcing the benefit of this approach to learning to acquire knowledge as it relates to field education roles and responsibilities.

Field instructors who completed the face-to-face experiential session showed no change in their perceptions of their supervisory competence following completion of the face to care training. The literature does endorse and recommends the use of experiential learning theories in training (Abramson & Fortune, 1990, Bogo & Power, 1994; Bogo 2010; Dettlaff, 2008, Hendricks, Finch, & Franks, 2013), however, within this study; the training did not contribute to a change in field instructors and task supervisors perception of their supervisory competency. Research has evaluated supervisory competence in different service areas of social work such as child welfare, diversity, groups, substance abuse, EBP, and critical thinking (Dettlaff, 2008; LaPorte & Sweifach, 2011; Rogers & McDonald, 1992; SteenRod & Bael, 2010; Wiechelt & Ting, 2012). The findings from these studies report that field instructors' perceptions on competence around learning depends on their overall knowledge of the subject areas trained (Dettlaff, 2008; LaPorte & Sweifach, 2011; Rogers & McDonald, 1992; Steenrod & Bael, 2011; Wiechelt & Ting, 2012). Field instructors and task supervisors with no experience would have reported weakness in various areas of supervisory competence.

The field instructors and task supervisors in this study reported years of experience supervising social work students, which could explain the lack of difference in supervisory perception following completion of the face-to-face experiential training. The participants may already have the necessary competency to supervise student's interns. This conclusion seems to be supported by the finding as the field instructors and task supervisions report high levels of perceptions of their supervisory competence at the field instructor pretest. Means across subscales range from 3.98 to 4.08 on a scale 1 to 5.

When comparing the difference in student perceptions of their field instructors and task supervisor supervisory competence the only statistically significant difference between groups

was on the role competency subscale. The students who received supervision from field instructors and task supervisors who did not receive experiential training reported high scores in role competency subscales. Research literature states that the role of the field instructor is vital in the education of students (Dettlaff, 2008; LaPorte & Sweifach, 2011; Rogers & McDonald, 1992; SteenRod & Bael, 2010; Wiechelt & Ting, 2012).

The experiential group of field instructors and task supervisors' results from the posttest was compared to the experimental group of students. The results showed no statistical significance between the two groups perception of supervisory competence, no statistically significant change in supervisory competence. This would indicate that the students and their assigned field instructors and task supervisor perceived the supervision received and delivered in the same way, which was favorable considering the mean scores across the subscales ranged from 4.10 to 4.22 on a scale from 1 to 5.

Strengths and Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, the sample size was small preventing the use of parametric statistical tests to answer the research questions. Fields (2016) states that the size of the sample is reflective of the population studied. If the sample size is small, then the ability to generalize the findings to the population is not possible. The statistical power of a sample size is the ability of the statistical test to find an effect that genuinely exists (Fields, 2016). Further, the larger the sample the more likely it would be representative of the population studied.

The second limitation noted was the training being one-day. The one-day training limited the field instructors and task supervisors from trying out new learning in practice with students and coming back into a session to discuss their experiences. It also limited the researcher ability to see transformation of the field instructors and task supervisors throughout time. The use of

transformational theory in the one-day training was in a sense nonexistent. Despite using the students' surveys at the end of the semester as a proxy to measure transformation, transformation of field instructors and task supervisors subjected to self-reports from the students which may not have been reliable measure of change,

Finally, testing validity threats possibly occurred as field instructors and task supervisors were asked to assess whether there was perceived change and supervisory competence following a three-hour training session. The field instructors pretest offered a baseline supervisory competence rating and the posttest attempted to measure supervisory competence after the training to assess if their skills improved as a result. Fraser et. al (2009) states that pretest and posttest help to gauge change over time, and three hours may not have been sufficient amount of time to witness change.

Implication for Social Work Education

The study served as a foundation in which to build upon. The fact that there was no difference found in each of the research questions except the third question does not mean that this type of framework is not useful to social work education as it relates to field education. The study had offered an opportunity to re-examine how orientation and trainings are developed and delivered to field instructors and task supervisors. Field instructors who attend a three hour field instruction orientation and training are given little time to convert learned principles into practices as educators (Maidment, 2000). Although, some field instructors may have some knowledge of effective pedagogical methods of instruction, the integration of such knowledge in practice is limited due to lack of comprehensive instruction of such methods (Maidment, 2000). It is important to allow field instructor time to process, practice and share experiences during their training. In earlier research studies, field instruction orientation and training had a duration

of 6-12 weeks. (Abramson & Fortune, 1990; Amour, Bain, & Rubio, 2004; Dettlaff, 2008; LaPorte & Sweifach, 2011; Rogers & McDonald, 1992; SteenRod & Bael, 2010; Wiechelt & Ting, 2012).

Despite the small sample size, this study added to practice of research on field education orientation for field instructors and task supervisors. Specifically, developing training to teach pedagogical theories that offer instructors practical ways to apply these theories to practice. Furthermore, this study offered insight on the importance the audience is when training. Field instructors that are familiar with the material in training may not gain added knowledge or skill. Facilitators must offer the participants an opportunity to take part in the development of such training that will meet their professional development needs. New field instructors should undergo orientation and training on field instruction, which offers theories of pedagogy that will enhance their practice with students. Training tailored to their learning needs should follow these types of trainings. There should be a good mixture of field instructors and task supervisors who are new field instructors and veterans. In this study, many of the participants were veterans who have had years of practice as field educators. Although, the participants enjoyed the dialogue surrounding their experiences supervising students, the information shared was not new information. There were no questions that emerged for the training, which may have contributed to lack of difference in perceived supervisory competence.

Implication for Future Research

It is proposed that this study be replicated using a larger sample size with a mixture of new and seasoned field instructors and task supervisors. The field instructor orientation should be offered to only new field instructors and task supervisor before they supervise students. The orientation should be followed by online asynchronous and synchronous sessions of field

instruction training, which will allow the participants to practice skills learned and discussed experiences through discussion boards and web enhanced sessions where the field instructors and task supervisors can log on during scheduled sessions and at their leisure. The length of this part of the competency building training should be extended over time as suggested by prior researchers (Abramson & Fortune, 1990; Amour, Bain, & Rubio, 2004; Dettlaff, 2008; LaPorte & Sweifach, 2011; Rogers & McDonald, 1992; SteenRod & Bael, 2010; Wiechelt & Ting, 2012).

This type of training will allow field instructors and task supervisors to apply learning to practice as they educate students within their respective field settings. Dedman and Palmer (2011) reported that an online forum would support field instructors with professional development, as they are often unable to attend trainings due to barriers of “time” and unchanging workload. Having an online platform may also help increase sample size, which was a limitation experienced in this study.

Research shows that field instructors report one significant barrier to engaging in training, which is "time" (Mattieu, Carter, Casner, & Edmond, 2016) "both to attend training and supervise students" (Dedman, 2008, p. 32). Time appears to be a factor in field instructors' ability to grasp what the significance of their role is and in actually learning pedagogical theories that will assist in their method of instructing students. In addition to offering field instruction training online, field instructors should be surveyed as to their educational needs. In addition, training should be tailored to the individual needs of the learner. Dedman and Palmer (2011) confirms that field instructors are not surveyed as to their learning needs, yet they are offered trainings that may not enhance knowledge and skill. Within this study, field instructors and task supervisors already perceived their supervisory competencies skills favorable and therefore, this specific training may not have met their specific needs. Further, tailoring training to needs of the

field instructors and task supervisors also address and help explain why student comparison group reported higher perception of role competency amongst their field instructors and task supervisors. This is due to the fact student's field instructors and task supervisors had more years of experience in field instruction.

Conclusion

Field education is the signature pedagogy of social work education; therefore, field instructor's role in field education is an important aspect to student learning (CSWE, 2015). Due to the importance of the field instructor's role social work education, field instructors need to receive training to support their role as educators (Abramson & Fortune, 1990; Deal & Palmer 2011; Detlaff, 2003, Dettlaff & Dietz 2004; Moorehouse, Hay, & O'Donoghue, 2014; Dwyer & Urbandwski, 1981). It is important that field instructors and task supervisors learn supervisory competency skills so they are able to transform from practitioner to educators. This research study suggest that may be necessary to have two training modules one for new field instructors and task supervisors and one for experienced field instructors and task supervisors but both, trainings should be offered over period of time to allow transformation of knowledge into practice.

Appendix A

Dear Field Instructor/Task Supervisor:

The School of Social Work at [REDACTED] is excited to announce improvements to our Field Education Training. Since the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) released the 2015 Education Policy on Accreditation Standard (EPAS), our program has been working on developing orientation and training to prepare field instructors to supervise and educate our social work students within placement settings that align with the changes outlined within the EPAS. Further, the School of Social Work is preparing to launch an online BSW degree completion program and, as a result, are developing a two-step field instructor/task supervisor training.

All of our field instructors/task supervisors must complete the initial training to be eligible to supervise our students. This initial training ensures understanding of the requires of field education as outlined by our accrediting body, CSWE, and will be made available to you, online, so you can complete the training at your leisure. Upon completion of the online field education module, you will be asked to complete a survey to assess your understanding of the field, including roles and expectations. Upon successfully completing this survey, you will receive a Certificate of Completion recognizing you as a Certified Field Instructor/Task Supervisor and eligible to supervise social work student interns. You will also receive free CEUs for completion of this online training.

During the Field Retreat, you will learn ways to apply what you learned within the online field education module. The retreat will be experiential as the goal is to have you engage, process, and experience what it means to be a field instructor/task supervisor. Our goal is to make this a valuable learning experience for you and help support you as you support us in delivering this signature part of our social work curriculum.

As we roll out this new field education training, we are beginning with field instructors and task supervisors assigned to BSW students. The face-to-face Field Retreat will be held on September 1, 2017. We will begin at 12:30, providing lunch and opportunity for networking, then moving onto training sessions that will last until 4 p.m. The location of the training is in [REDACTED]

To prepare for the orientation and training, and, as previously stated, you are required to complete the online field training module before the September 1st Field Retreat. The link to the online field training module and survey you will complete afterward, are located, below.

The video is 45 mins. in length. Please feel free to stop and play the video.

Link to Video:



Link to Survey:



We thank you for your ongoing support of our programs and collaborating with us as we prepare our students for social work practice. If you have any questions, do not hesitate to contact us by email or phone. Thank you!

APPENDIX B

1. CSWE defines field education as:
 - a. The signature pedagogy
 - b. An insignificant part of the social work curriculum
 - c. Less important than classroom learning
 - d. None of the above
2. BSW student must complete how many practice hours:
 - a. 500
 - b. 400
 - c. 450
 - d. None of the above.
3. CSWE recognizes a holistic view of social work competencies described as knowledge, skills, values, cognitive and affective process, which include student ability to critically think, with affective reaction and to exercise judgment as a generalist practitioner.
True or False
4. Field Supervisor conferences help students connect theory to practice?
True or False
5. Field experiences:
 - a. Are intended to complement project in the classroom
 - b. Are an integral part of the social work program
 - c. Are an opportunity for students to apply knowledge of theories and principles presented in the classroom to problems and challenges in field settings.
 - d. All of the above
6. How often are student required to submit signed hour logs?
 - a. Biweekly
 - b. Monthly
 - c. Bimonthly
 - d. Whenever they complete at least 40 hours
7. This faculty member is assigned to work with students, teach the field seminar class, visits agencies, and assigns the final grade:
 - a. Field instructor
 - b. Field liaison
 - c. Field coordinator
 - d. All of the above
8. This is the person who has the responsibility of providing opportunities and other activities to beginning social workers so they can implement the learning contract activities.
 - a. Field Coordinator
 - b. Field Instructors
 - c. Field Liaison
 - d. All of the above
9. Social work programs are not required by CSWE to provide field orientation and training:
True or False
10. This person does not have a BSW or MSW degree, however assigns the student task and activities and provides input towards students evaluations?

- a. Field Instructors
 - b. Task Supervisor
 - c. Field Liaison
 - d. None of the above
11. Structured weekly supervision with the field instructors is optional and on an “as needed basis”.
12. Which of the following represents what the students are expected to learn in the field?
- a. Practice Indicator
 - b. Activities
 - c. CSWE 9 Social work Competencies, as operationalized through the associated performance indicator.
 - d. Only Agency Policy
13. Students in practice settings are unpaid workers?
True or False
14. Agency Orientation should include the following:
- a. An introduction of the agency’s mission/services
 - b. An introduction of the staff
 - c. An introduction to the physical layout of the agency structure
 - d. An explanation of important agency polices/procedures, including safety plans
 - e. All of the above.
15. If you have an issue with my student, I need to wait until a scheduled visit to contact the field liaison?
True or False
16. If issues with the student arise in field, who can be part of the solution?
- a. Field instructor
 - b. Field Liaison
 - c. Student
 - d. Task Supervisor
 - e. All of the above
17. Field Liaison serves to support the field instructor/task supervisor with student issues?
True or False
18. The learning contract is developed by the field instructor, task supervisor (if applicable) and the student in the beginning of the semester.
True or False
19. The nine competencies describe knowledge, skills, values, and cognitive and affective processes that a student must demonstrate in practice settings
True or False
20. Educational supervision is driven by which of the following functions:
- a. Administrative
 - b. Educational
 - c. Supportive
 - d. Collaborative

Appendix C Prettest

FIELD INSTRUCTOR SURVEY

Informed Consent Form

You are invited to take part in a survey on Field Instructor Supervision competencies. Your participation will require approximately 10-15 minutes. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this survey. The information collected will help improve Field Education orientation and training for field instructors at ██████████ School of Social Work, ██████████ Pennsylvania. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential, and digital data will be stored in secure computer files after it is entered. If you have questions or want a copy or summary of this survey results, you can contact the ██████████. By completing this survey indicates that you are 18 years of age or older and indicates your consent to participate in the Field Training Program evaluation.

Directions: Please circle a response to the right of each competency that describes your performance as a whole on that competency. 1=weak; 2=somewhat weak; 3+acceptable; 4 – somewhat strong 5=strong	Scale				
	W				S
					T
					R
					O
					N
					G
Teaching Competencies:					
1. Provides a variety of appropriate learning opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Focuses on the learning objectives of the student.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Integrates field and classroom learning.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Provides resources relevant to setting.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Teachers from an active learning model.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Incorporates human diversity issues into learning opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Provides experiences to meet generalist social work objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Incorporates current issues in social work	1	2	3	4	5
9. Understand and applies the Code of Ethics to field practice dilemmas.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Matches teaching styles to student learning styles.	1	2	3	4	5

11. Addresses the issue of social work vs. social control.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Facilitates critical thinking skills.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Guides student in development of problem solving skills.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Teaches self-awareness skills.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Other:	1	2	3	4	5
Directions: Please circle a response to the right of each competency that describes your performance as a whole on that competency. 1=week; 2=somewhat weak; 3=acceptable; 4 – somewhat strong 5=strong					
Evaluation Competencies:	W E A K				S T R O N G
16. Conducts an initial educational appraisal.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Provides regular feedback to students in various forms.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Evaluates progress informally and formally.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Monitor both task and affective learning.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Evaluates fairly.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Is able to address strengths and weaknesses of student.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Can address strengths and weaknesses of the student.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Considers student's self-evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Engages with student in mutual evaluation of teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Provides behavior specific feedback.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Identifies students with psychosocial problems.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Other:	1	2	3	4	5
Relationship-Building Competencies"					
28. Creates and maintains a positive working relationship with the student.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Remembers how it feels to be new in the field.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Supports without become therapeutic.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Displays healthy boundaries with students and others.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Accepts the position of authority in relation to the student.	1	2	3	4	5

33. Other:	1	2	3	4	5
Structural Competencies:					
34. Provides thorough orientation to agency.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Offers adequate supervision time.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Provides guidance with the learning contract.	1	2	3	4	5
Directions: Please circle a response to the right of each competency that describes your performance as a whole on that competency. 1=week; 2=somewhat weak; 3=acceptable; 4 – somewhat strong 5=strong	W E A K				S T R O N G
37. Documents student time, progress, and supervision issues.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Confers with school of social work representatives.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Provides opportunities for both supervised activity (i.e. shadowing and independent work).	1	2	3	4	5
40. Responds flexibly to the unexpected.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Uses a conceptual model of supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Other:	1	2	3	4	5
Role competencies:					
43. Models ethical behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Differentiates teacher role from agency role.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Exhibits a clear theoretical orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Motivates and encourages student growth.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Models self-awareness.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Differentiate supervisor role from therapist role.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Models social work ethics and values in practice.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Provides opportunity for interdisciplinary practice.	1	2	3	4	5
51. Supports student identification with profession.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Other:	1	2	3	4	5

Looking back across the entire competencies list in all domains, which three (3) do you consider the most important of all (use the number designations).

1. (Most important) _____, 2. _____
3. _____

Murdock, V., Ligon, J., & Choi, G. (2002). Identifying, assessing and evaluating field instructors competencies. Paper presented at Baccalaureate Program Directors Annual Meeting, Pittsburg. PA.

Posttest
FIELD INSTRUCTOR SURVEY

Informed Consent Form

You are invited to take part in a survey on Field Instructor Supervision competencies. Your participation will require approximately 10-15 minutes. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this survey. The information collected will help improve Field Education orientation and training for field instructors at [REDACTED] School of Social Work, [REDACTED], Pennsylvania. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential, and digital data will be stored in secure computer files after it is entered. If you have questions or want a copy or summary of this survey results, you can contact the [REDACTED]. By completing this survey indicates that you are 18 years of age or older and indicates your consent to participate in the Field Training Program evaluation.

Directions: Please circle a response to the right of each competency that describes your performance as a whole on that competency. 1=week; 2=somewhat weak; 3+acceptable; 4 – somewhat strong 5=strong	Scale				
	w				S
	W				T
	E				R
	A				O
	K				N
					G
Teaching Competencies:					
2. Provides a variety of appropriate learning opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Focuses on the learning objectives of the student.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Integrates field and classroom learning.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Provides resources relevant to setting.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Teachers from an active learning model.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Incorporates human diversity issues into learning opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Provides experiences to meet generalist social work objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Incorporates current issues in social work	1	2	3	4	5
10. Understand and applies the Code of Ethics to field practice dilemmas.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Matches teaching styles to student learning styles.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Addresses the issue of social work vs. social control.	1	2	3	4	5

13. Facilitates critical thinking skills.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Guides student in development of problem solving skills.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Teaches self-awareness skills.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Other:	1	2	3	4	5
Directions: Please circle a response to the right of each competency that describes your performance as a whole on that competency. 1=week; 2=somewhat weak; 3+acceptable; 4 – somewhat strong 5=strong	W E A K				S T R O N G
Evaluation Competencies:					
17. Conducts an initial educational appraisal.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Provides regular feedback to students in various forms.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Evaluates progress informally and formally.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Monitor both task and affective learning.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Evaluates fairly.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Is able to address strengths and weaknesses of student.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Can address strengths and weaknesses of the student.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Considers student’s self-evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Engages with student in mutual evaluation of teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Provides behavior specific feedback.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Identifies students with psychosocial problems.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Other:	1	2	3	4	5
Relationship-Building Competencies”					
29. Creates and maintains a positive working relationship with the student.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Remembers how it feels to be new in the field.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Supports without become therapeutic.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Displays healthy boundaries with students and others.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Accepts the position of authority in relation to the student.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Other:	1	2	3	4	5

Structural Competencies:					
35. Provides thorough orientation to agency.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Offers adequate supervision time.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Provides guidance with the learning contract.	1	2	3	4	5
Directions: Please circle a response to the right of each competency that describes your performance as a whole on that competency. 1=week; 2=somewhat weak; 3+acceptable; 4 – somewhat strong 5=strong	W E A K				S T R O N G
38. Documents student time, progress, and supervision issues.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Confers with school of social work representatives.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Provides opportunities for both supervised activity (i.e. shadowing and independent work).	1	2	3	4	5
41. Responds flexibly to the unexpected.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Uses a conceptual model of supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Other:	1	2	3	4	5
Role competencies:					
44. Models ethical behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Differentiates teacher role from agency role.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Exhibits a clear theoretical orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Motivates and encourages student growth.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Models self-awareness.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Differentiate supervisor role from therapist role.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Models social work ethics and values in practice.	1	2	3	4	5
51. Provides opportunity for interdisciplinary practice.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Supports student identification with profession.	1	2	3	4	5
53. Other:	1	2	3	4	5

Looking back across the entire competencies list in all domains, which three (3) do you consider the most important of all (use the number designations).

54. (Most important) _____, 2. _____

3. _____

Demographic information

What is your age? _____

What is your gender: Male: _____ Female: _____ Transgender: _____

Other: _____

What is your highest degree earned?

What is your major of highest degree?

When did you graduate from the program in which you earned your highest degree?

What is your field placement role?

Field Instructor: _____

Task Supervisor: _____

Other: _____

What are the total number years of social work practice experience? _____

How many years have you served as a Field Instructor? _____

How many years have you served as a Task Supervisor? _____

Have you supervised social work students? Yes ___ or No ___

If yes, at which degree level:

BSW: _____ MSW

Appendix D

BSW Student Survey

Informed Consent					
<p>You are invited to take part in a survey on Field Instructor / Task Supervisor Supervision competencies. Your participation will require approximately 10-15 minutes. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this survey. The information collected will help improve Field Education orientation and training for field instructors/ task supervisors at ██████████ School of Social Work, ██████████, Pennsylvania. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential, and digital data will be stored in secure computer files after it is entered. If you have questions or want a copy or summary of this survey results, you can contact ██████████. By completing this survey indicates that you are 18 years of age or older and indicates your consent to participate in the Field Training Program evaluation.</p>					
<p>Directions: Please circle a response to the right of each competency that describes your [field instructor's/task supervisor's] performance as a whole on that competency. [Please circle if you are describing your field instructor or task supervisor above]</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1=weak; 2=somewhat weak; 3=acceptable; 4=somewhat strong; 5=strong</p>					
Teaching Competencies:					
.	Provides a variety of appropriate learning opportunities.				
.	Focuses on the learning objectives of the student.				
.	Integrates field and classroom learning.				
.	Provides resources relevant to setting.				
.	Teaches from an active learning model.				
.	Incorporates human diversity issues into learning				
.	Other:				
Evaluation Competencies:					
.	Conducts an initial educational appraisal.				
.	Provides regular feedback to student in various forms.				
.	Evaluates progress informally and formally.				
.	Monitors both task and affective learning.				
.	Evaluates Fairly.				
.	Is able to address strength and weaknesses of student.				

.	Considers student's self-evaluation.						
.	Engages with students in mutual evaluation of teaching.						
.	Other:						
Relationship-building Competencies:							
.	Creates and maintain a positive working relationship with student.						
.	Remembers how it feels to be new in the field.						
.	Supports without becoming "therapeutic".						
.	Displays healthy boundaries with student and other.						
.	Accepts the position of authority in relation to the student.						
.	Other:						
Structural Competencies:							
.	Provides thorough orientation to agency.						
.	Offers adequate supervision time.						
.	Provides guidance with the learning contract.						
.	Documents students time, progress and supervision issues.						
.	Confers with school of social work representative. [Field Liaison]						
.	Provides opportunity for both supervised activities (i.e., shadowing) and independent work.						
.	Responds flexibly to the unexpected.						
.	Other:						
<p>Directions: Please circle a response to the right of each competency that describes your [field instructor's/task supervisor's] performance as a whole on that competency. [Please circle if you are describing your field instructor or task supervisor above]</p> <p>1=weak; 2=somewhat weak; 3=acceptable; 4=somewhat strong; 5=strong</p>							
Role Competencies:							
.	Models ethical behavior.						
.	Differentiates teacher role from agency role.						

.	Exhibits a clear theoretical orientation.					
.	Motivates and encourages student growth.					
.	Models self-awareness.					
.	Other:					

Looking back across of all the competencies listed in all domains, which [three] 3 do you consider most important of all. 1 (most important)

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Your demographic information:

Gender: Female: _____ Male: _____ Transgender: _____

Other: _____

Age: _____ Traditional Student: _____ Non-Traditional

Student: _____

Murdock, V., Ligon, J., & Choi, G. (2002). Identifying, assessing and evaluating field instructor's competencies. Paper presented at Baccalaureate Program Directors Annual Meeting, Pittsburg. PA

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