

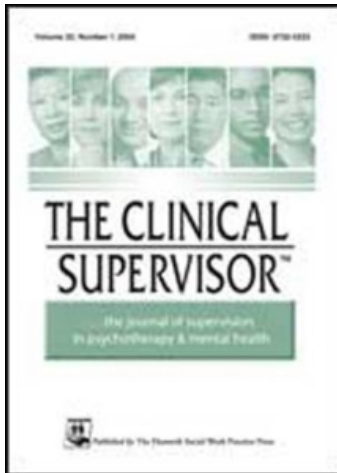
This article was downloaded by: [University of Minnesota Libraries]

On: 10 September 2009

Access details: Access Details: [subscription number 907778267]

Publisher Routledge

Informa Ltd Registered in England and Wales Registered Number: 1072954 Registered office: Mortimer House, 37-41 Mortimer Street, London W1T 3JH, UK



The Clinical Supervisor

Publication details, including instructions for authors and subscription information:

<http://www.informaworld.com/smpp/title~content=t792303991>

The Heart of Social Work: Best Practitioners Rise to Challenges in Field Instruction

Emeline Homonoff

Online Publication Date: 21 November 2008

To cite this Article Homonoff, Emeline(2008)'The Heart of Social Work: Best Practitioners Rise to Challenges in Field Instruction',The Clinical Supervisor,27:2,135 — 169

To link to this Article: DOI: 10.1080/07325220802490828

URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07325220802490828>

PLEASE SCROLL DOWN FOR ARTICLE

Full terms and conditions of use: <http://www.informaworld.com/terms-and-conditions-of-access.pdf>

This article may be used for research, teaching and private study purposes. Any substantial or systematic reproduction, re-distribution, re-selling, loan or sub-licensing, systematic supply or distribution in any form to anyone is expressly forbidden.

The publisher does not give any warranty express or implied or make any representation that the contents will be complete or accurate or up to date. The accuracy of any instructions, formulae and drug doses should be independently verified with primary sources. The publisher shall not be liable for any loss, actions, claims, proceedings, demand or costs or damages whatsoever or howsoever caused arising directly or indirectly in connection with or arising out of the use of this material.

The Heart of Social Work: Best Practitioners Rise to Challenges in Field Instruction

Emeline Homonoff

ABSTRACT. Field, as the “signature pedagogy,” is the heart of social work education. However, field education has encountered challenges both in academia and in agencies that serve as field placements. This study explores the ways in which best practitioners in field instruction—10 field instructors who won the Heart of Social Work Award through the Council on Social Work Education—are rising to the challenges of supervising social work interns. These include (a) teaching a wide variety of skills of assessment and intervention, (b) balancing the teaching of these skills with the encouragement of reflection, (c) teaching interns to connect theory and practice, (d) developing an integrative model of supervision, (e) applying research to practice, (f) showing appropriate support to interns, and (g) upholding the mission of field education in the face of fiscal retrenchment and pressures for accountability. Findings of the study show that field instructors are responding with impressive energy and creativity to these challenges and also suggest the need for greater collaboration between field instructors and schools of social work.

KEYWORDS. Agency–school collaboration, field education, field institution, gatekeeping, social work supervision

Address correspondence to Emeline Homonoff, PhD, Associate Professor, Simmons College, School of Social Work, 300 The Fenway, Boston, MA 02115. E-mail: emeline.homonoff@simmons.edu

Field, as the “signature pedagogy,” is the heart of social work education. Patricia Lager and Virginia Robbins (2004) summarized its instructional mission:

In the field, students have the opportunity to test what they learn in the classroom; integrate theory with practice; evaluate the effectiveness of interventions; contend with the realities of social, political and economic injustice; strive for cultural sensitivity and competence; deliberate on the choices posed by ethical dilemmas; develop a sense of self in practice; and build a connection to and identity with the profession. (p. 3)

Nevertheless, the value of field education has repeatedly been questioned. Field education has had to struggle for acceptance within academia: Rhodes, Ward, Ligon, and Priddy (1999) listed seven threats to field education, including the “academization” of schools of social work, devaluation of field directors, and lack of faculty commitment to field education. Various authors have proposed that field education be relieved of its teaching mission and relegated to the status of apprenticeship where agencies simply “certify a minimum level of competence” of social work interns (Blostein, 1988, p. 103). Of even greater concern is the attenuation of the commitment of agencies to support training of social work interns (Donner, 1996; Frumkin, 1980; Globerman & Bogo, 2003), increased over the years by fiscal retrenchment and concerns about liability (Bocage, Homonoff, & Riley, 1994; Gibelman & Schervish, 1997; Jarman-Rohde, McFall, Kolar, & Strom, 1997; Reisch & Jarman-Rohde, 2000).

This study explores the ways in which “best practitioners” in field instruction are rising to the challenges of supervising social work interns. Best practices inquiry is “the process by which an investigator...ascertains the current state-of-the-art approaches, models, and interventions for a given problem and target population” (Petr & Walter, 2005, p. 251). Petr and Walter suggest that evidence-based practice should include qualitative research to access the wisdom of experienced professionals who “‘put it all together’; that is, they integrate the multitude of contextual and individual factors that produce knowledge about best practices” (p. 257). Accordingly, in this study, 10 field instructors who won the Heart of Social Work Award as best practitioners in field instruction were interviewed about how they balance teaching skills and reflection, integrate

theory and research with practice, and maintain quality field instruction in the face of fiscal cutbacks and demands for accountability.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature on field education has identified seven current critical challenges to field education. The first five involve the teaching of assessment and intervention skills, reflection and theory (and the development of a model to integrate them), and incorporation of research into practice. Two other challenges are posed by current environmental constraints that field instructors face in their supervision of interns: the accommodation of students with special needs and heavy responsibilities and the erosion of field agencies' commitment to training because of fiscal retrenchment and demands for accountability.

First, social work field instructors are asked to teach interns a wide variety of skills of assessment and intervention. Lawrence Shulman (1999) lists at least nine skills involved in individual work with clients: tuning in, contracting, elaborating, empathizing, sharing feelings, making a demand for work, connecting process, helping clients see life in new ways, and managing transitions and endings. He also describes several skills in work with larger systems: mediating, confrontation/advocacy, effecting organizational change, using a milieu as a community, and community organizing. Social work interns are expected to learn many of these skills, with greater emphasis on the individual skills in direct practice settings and on systems skills in "macro" settings.

A second challenge is balancing teaching of skills of assessment and intervention with encouragement of reflection. Social work is not simply the rote application of prescribed skills; social work at every level is practiced within relationships and requires the worker to be reflective. Workers are expected to understand their own assumptions as well as their clients' (Goldstein, 1993; Papell & Skolnick, 1992; Schon, 1987), to adhere to the social work code of ethics but be prepared to suspend their own judgments of others, and to be open to new perspectives and demonstrate multi-cultural competency (Hendricks, 2003).

A third challenge for field instructors is how to teach interns to connect theory and practice. The number of theoretical perspectives

available to social workers is daunting. Derezotes (2000) chooses seven “paradigms” of advanced generalist practice: psychodynamic, cognitive/behavioral, humanistic/existential, transpersonal, case management, biopsychosocial, and local and global community. These paradigms have been challenged by other perspectives like social constructionism (Laird, 1993) and pedagogy of the oppressed (Friere, 1970). Social work authors have proposed a number of overarching metatheories like the ecological model (Germain, 1991) or interactional model (Shulman, 1999). However, a study by Rogers and McDonald (1995) suggested that most field instructors were pragmatic and “chose content focused on getting the job done, rather than . . . for educative purposes” (p. 41).

A fourth, related challenge is the development of a model of supervision to help field instructors integrate the teaching of assessment and intervention skills, reflection, and theory. The study by Rogers and McDonald (1995) also found that most field instructors did not follow any teaching model in particular but “used teaching methods for expedience” (p. 41). Overarching theories can be a guide to educators; for example, the concept of andragogy (Knowles, 1989) encourages educators to establish a collegial relationship in which students are able to direct their own learning (Kearney, 2003). More specific models, like the “task-centered” model of field instruction, help to move interns in a structured way toward specific learning objectives (Caspi & Reid, 1998, 2003). Shulman’s (1993, 1999) interactive model illustrates how the skills he describes can be taught in field instruction. One model that is particularly effective in integrating teaching of skills, reflection, and theory is Bogo and Vayda’s (1998) “ITP Loop” (pp. 11–13).

A fifth challenge for field education is the application of research to practice. The hallmark of excellence in clinical practice is currently evidence-based practice, which involves integrating clinical expertise and values with the best available evidence from systematic research and with clients’ values and agency and legislative mandates (McNeill, 2006). Accordingly, social work field educators need to understand the current research in their fields of practice and know how to teach interns how to apply this research to their practice. They also need to help interns integrate the information they are learning in research classes with their field work and may be called upon to help interns mount a research project. In many cases, field educators have the opportunity to do research within their agencies and can use interns’ assistance. However, a recent study at the George Warren

Brown School of Social Work of field instructors found that, while 87% viewed evidence-based practice as a good idea, most did not use scientific evidence in their practice (Edmond, Megivern, Williams, Rochman, & Howard, 2006).

External constraints have eroded the commitment of agencies to field education. The sixth challenge is how to show appropriate support to interns. Schools of social work have been under increasing pressure to take more students and to accommodate students with special needs or with heavy job or family responsibilities (Gillis & Lewis, 2004; C. Regehr, Stalker, Jacobs, & Pelech, 2001). Schools of social work must identify those students who may have cognitive, physical, and/or psychiatric disabilities (Alperin, 1988; Cole & Cain, 1996; Reeser, 1992); refer them to a disabilities specialist who can suggest reasonable accommodations (in field as well as class) in a confidential manner; and then formulate a plan to address the problem and monitor and evaluate the process (Gillis & Lewis, 2004, pp. 398–399). In addition, nowadays all students consider themselves consumers and have high expectations in the face of a steep financial investment with modest financial rewards (Lager & Robbins, 2004; Lilley, 2002).

The final challenge is how to support the mission of field education in the face of fiscal retrenchment and pressures for accountability within agencies. Interns are placed at agencies where state and national fiscal constraints have forced cutbacks of time and funds for training and where managed care and productivity requirements are the order of the day (Allen-Meares, 2000; Bocage, Homonoff, & Riley, 1995; Brooks & Riley, 1996; Gibelman & Schervish, 1997; Globerman & Bogo, 2003; Jarman-Rohde et al., 1997; Raskin & Blome, 1998; Reisch & Jarman-Rohde, 2000; Strom-Gottfried & Corcoran, 1998). They serve clients and communities with increasing problems and decreasing resources; as Reisch and Jarman-Rohde (2000) say,

Future students will work with clients whose economic plight will be increasingly desperate. . . . As racial and class divisions become wider and more difficult to overcome, they will affect the daily interactions of workers and clients, students and instructors. . . . Supervisors and administrators. . . will be forced to expect more of students. (p. 202)

Working with these clients, interns may even be exposed to violence in the workplace (Mama, 2001; Tully, Kropf, & Price, 1993).

Despite these pressures, interns and field instructors alike are held accountable for negative outcomes of interventions (Gelman, Pollock, & Auerbach, 1996; Gelman & Wardell, 1988; Reamer, 1994). Students are liable for their performance in the field; this includes not only provision of appropriate treatment for clients but also proper assessment and intervention in situations of risk, as well as full and accurate record keeping (Gelman & Wardell, 1988; Reamer, 1994; Zakutansky & Sirles, 1993). In addition, the doctrine of *respondeat superior* holds educators—field instructors and social work faculty—responsible for the practice of interns in the field (Cobb, 1994). Understandably, interns and field instructors alike are under constant stress (Bocage et al., 1995; Gelman, 2004; Homonoff, Weintraub, Michelson, & Costikyan, 1995).

METHODS

Study Population and Recruitment

The Heart of Social Work Award was established in 1995 by Dr. Joseph Nunn of the UCLA School of Social Welfare through the Council on Social Work Education, the accrediting body of social work education. Each year, two to six field instructors in social work are given the award as best practitioners in field instruction. The Council solicits nominations from its entire membership, and the winners of the award are chosen by a committee of the Council. This study uses a nonprobability, purposive sample of 10 social work field instructors who had won the Heart of Social Work Award over the past 10 years as best practitioners of field instruction. This was a convenience sample of those awardees whose addresses could be found and who expressed an interest in participating in the study.

The researcher procured a list of award recipients over the past 10 years whose current addresses were known, and from this list attempted to choose a sample that represented both male and female field instructors, field instructors from schools on a continuum from “micro” to “macro” focus, and field instructors from different geographical areas. Ten potential subjects were contacted by telephone and asked if they would be willing to participate; all contacted were interested. They received a letter outlining the purpose of the study, requesting their participation and stressing that participation is

voluntary and confidential. Those who decided to participate were sent an informed consent form to return, detailing the nature of the study, study procedures, the voluntary nature of participation, risks and protections against risks, and benefits of the study. An appointment was made for an interview at the respondent's convenience.

Data Collection

This study is exploratory in nature and used a semistructured interview format. Hour-long interviews were held with eight respondents on the phone and with two respondents in person. In addition, respondents were encouraged to send the researcher extra information they deemed pertinent: forms, articles, or Web addresses. The interview began with an overview of the respondent's practice of field instruction. Respondents talked about the kinds of social work interns they supervised, the schools with which they were affiliated, their agency setting, and the work the interns did within that setting. They described their supervisory practice: the length and location of supervisory meetings, the kinds of field instruction offered, and ancillary sources of intern supervision. Respondents were also asked to describe the tools they used in supervision, like process recordings. They were encouraged to talk about models of field instruction, if any, that guided them.

The second part of the interview focused on the content of field instruction. Interview questions touched on the critical challenges suggested by the literature review. Questions included:

- What skills do you think most important for social work interns to learn?
- How do you help interns to reflect on their assumptions, values, and relationship to clients?
- How do you balance teaching skills and reflection?
- What theories do you think are most important for social work interns to use in their practice?
- Do you help interns to use research in their practice? If so, how?

The third part of the interview was devoted to the last challenge: maintaining field instruction in a time of environmental pressure and scarcity. Respondents were asked to describe both constraints and supports they experienced in their role as field instructors from

their agencies, communities and society, and schools of social work. They were also encouraged to describe their own efforts to promote training and improve field instruction.

The interviews were tape-recorded to allow accurate reproduction of the interview (McCracken, 1988); the interviewer took notes as well. These notes and selected transcripts of the recorded interviews were closely read, along with forms and articles submitted by respondents. The interviewer made a thematic analysis of the material (Aronson, 1994), first sorting responses and written information according to the original questions, then revising those sorted responses, paying attention to salient themes and to disconfirming or discrepant evidence (Padgett, 1998). Finally, the findings were organized according to the salient theme of rising to the challenges of field instruction.

Two strategies were employed to enhance credibility and trustworthiness of the study: peer support and member checking (Padgett, 1998). As a long-time member of a field education faculty, the researcher was privileged to have several other field educators at her school with whom she regularly discusses research issues in field education. In addition, a faculty member who specializes in research was an invaluable consultant to the research process.

Most important, each respondent was sent a copy of the final research report for "member checking." The purpose of the member check was not only to test the accuracy of transcription of the interview but also to examine the reliability of the researcher's interpretation of the data. Respondents were asked whether the interviewer had made errors in quotation, whether respondents felt the interviewer's interpretation reflected their experience, and whether they thought that information needed to be better disguised. The letter also solicited additional feedback. Only one respondent suggested corrections, and these had to do with the content and not the interpretation of the data; the corrections were promptly made.

FINDINGS

Description of Sample

As expected, these respondents were very experienced; except for one, who had received her master's degree 8 years ago and

immediately began to supervise interns, all had been practicing social workers and field instructors for over 20 years. One had a PhD in social work. Three were male, and two were ALANA. The sample included three field instructors from the West Coast, two from the East Coast, four from the South and one from the Midwest. Most respondents were affiliated with several schools of social work in their area.

There was some variety in the agencies and fields of practice where these field instructors worked: two worked in hospitals with medical and psychiatric units, two for large “umbrella” organizations with several affiliated agencies, one in child protective services, one in geriatrics, three in school settings, and one in community organization. All the MSW placements were for one year, one with rotations on more than one unit. One placement had only BSW students and was only for one semester; two other placements had BSW students as well as MSW students, who all seemed to stay for a year. Two of the field instructors interviewed focused on direct clinical practice, and two focused mostly on macro practice. The rest of the respondents provided interns with experiences consonant with generalist practice (Miley, O’Melia, & DuBois, 2004); in some cases, respondents said that both micro and macro experiences were offered within the umbrella organization, and in other cases they described a range of intern roles including consultation, resource management, and education.

Themes Emerging from Analysis

Findings of the study were organized according to the salient themes of rising to the challenges of field instruction: the need for guiding methods and models, the balancing of teaching assessment and intervention skills and reflection, the integration of theory and practice, and the understanding and practice of research. The final challenge included external constraints on field instruction, including fiscal retrenchment and increased demands for accountability.

Methods and Models of Field Instruction

All but one field instructor offered an hour to two hours per week of individual supervision of interns in accordance with Council on Social Work Education guidelines. For six respondents, this

supervision always took place at a regularly scheduled time and place; four respondents said that some portion of their supervision was less structured: interns might share an office with the field instructor, shadow them as they worked, or colead group or family or team meetings. Five respondents talked about group supervision as an adjunct to individual supervision (Walters & Young, 1999); this ranged from weekly dual supervision to didactic seminars to case presentations to a field unit in which ten or more students were supervised by a common field instructor. One respondent described at length how group process can be used to help interns develop solidarity with one another, share differing perspectives, and come up with innovative ideas. Five field instructors functioned as “training directors” in addition to direct supervision of interns, they were responsible for coordinating the social work internship program in their agencies, including matching interns and field instructors, monitoring the supervision process, and developing seminars. Two respondents underscored the importance of adjunct supervision by professionals other than social workers (Abram, Hartung, & Wernet, 2000), such as a Latino community education coordinator.

In this sample, not one respondent seemed to be using the “seat-of-the-pants” approach to field instruction that Rogers and McDonald (1995) found; each had a clear plan for what should be covered in supervision. Respondents were unequivocal about the need for teaching interns skills in a structured way; as one put it, “You have to be organized, to be clear about what you provide.” Except for one respondent who preferred to “just talk,” each field instructor relied on some form of recording that elicited information about both assessment and intervention skills and reflection. For example, one form asked interns to identify and evaluate the skills, knowledge, and values involved in an interaction, as well as tracking progress toward goals of their learning contract. A process recording for clinical practice asked for affect and use of self, identification of major themes and issues, and assessment of goals for the interview. A recording for macro practice asked for activities performed, obstacles encountered and steps taken to deal with them, and insights gathered. One training director sent examples from several schools of social work about appropriate methods to document interns’ practices. Videotaping and role playing were used by only two field instructors but were extremely effective; as one respondent described a group role-play,

[Interns on one side of the room] play multiple therapists, and five or six on the other side of the room play the alter ego of the people being interviewed. . . they speak the inner voice, move toward the hidden messages; the students learn to respond to what's underneath the process, what's not being said.

In these many ways, interns were asked to describe, reflect on, and evaluate their interventions.

Few of the respondents talked at length about models of supervision and field instruction that guided them. Field instructors associated with agencies in the Hartford Foundation did receive clear directives about relevant skills of assessment, intervention, and evaluation, well integrated with theory and research in the area of geriatrics. One respondent said that he supervised according to the principles of andragogy (Knowles, 1989). Another respondent found Lawrence Shulman's (1999) interactive model of field instruction helpful, with some reservations; she said,

I like some of Shulman's work on supervision. I like how he uses specific skills. On the other hand, when I read him I feel like I'm treating the student as a client. The skills he teaches to deal with clients are the same as the ones to deal with interns. The intern is a professional person, and I have to use this skills approach at a different level.

Balancing Teaching of Skills of Assessment and Intervention With Reflection

Although the scope and nature of social work assessment and intervention skills taught by different agencies varied considerably, all field instructors interviewed introduced interns to similar skills. The respondents tended to describe these skills within the categories of engagement, data collection, assessment and planning, intervention, and evaluation. Engagement could be mobilizing a group or community or reaching out to a recalcitrant child. Data collection might entail reading psychiatric case records or "looking at a stack of paperwork and deciding what needs to be trashed, referred, filed or acted on now." Assessment might involve a biopsychosocial evaluation of a client, working out a cost-benefit analysis of a program and developing

action steps, or asking about the feasibility of a political campaign. Skills of intervention ranged from clinical interviewing to fundraising and program planning and advocacy. One respondent from a direct practice agency referred to Shulman's (1999) list of intervention skills like elaborating and making a demand for work, and one talked about the skills of family therapy including the cocreation of problem solutions (Friedman, 1993; S. Miller, Hubble, & Duncan, 1996). Several field instructors were teaching skills of case management and consultation to their interns but did not believe that schools of social work were focusing enough on these skills. After intervention, interns might do formal practice evaluation or might simply be asked, "Did we do good or bad? What will happen next? Did we help this group? Are we wasting their time?" As one training director pointed out, whatever the level of practice, certain skills were necessary for all interns to learn: observation, communication, interviewing, group processing, recording, appropriate use of resources, and termination and evaluation. One training director sent the researcher comprehensive documentation from several schools of social work of skills expected to be learned by interns, but only two respondents said that there was sufficient elaboration in field manuals of required competencies.

At the same time, all field instructors interviewed encouraged interns to reflect on their practice. They first established an atmosphere of safety; as one field instructor put it,

I know how a student feels coming in. I want her to feel comfortable, that there are no dumb questions. It is important for students to know that we are not there to judge them as much as to offer a variety of experiences.

As mentioned before, most respondents found process recordings to be invaluable in promoting self-reflection in interns and asked probing questions about interns' feelings and reactions. Group supervision was used effectively to encourage reflection:

We have them in a group situation, all videotaped so they can review it at all times, hear distortions they present for themselves and others, and it becomes a wonderful opportunity for objectivity and getting involved with the reflective aspects of what's going on. They bring in their own countertransferences or schemata; they must transcend this for their professional role.

Interns were regularly urged to examine their own values, as well as the consistencies and inconsistencies between their values and those of the agency and of the social work profession; for example, one lesbian intern agonized about whether she should come out to clients in a school known for its homophobia. One respondent would ask, "What's most important to you? Is it reflected in your behavior? What organizations do you belong to or support?" Several field instructors found innovative ways to encourage cultural competence; for example, one involved her graduate students in assisting high school students in their research about a Delta township founded by freed slaves. Field handbooks from social work schools were regularly described as publicizing the NASW Code of Ethics, and one training director had compiled an impressive list of social work values she believed were pertinent for interns and supervisors alike:

- Awareness of their values and attitudes toward all types of people and their problems.
- Belief that the welfare of individuals, families, and communities can be improved.
- Respect for and understanding of individuals and cultural life styles different from their own.
- Realization of the importance of . . . personal responsibility and initiative in delivering service.
- Commitment to be honest within professional relationships.
- Belief in the worth and dignity of every individual.
- Ability to accept and benefit from criticism.

Linkage of Theory to Practice

The literature suggests that a major task of field education is linkage of theory to practice (Bogo & Vayda, 1998). The respondents in this study disproved the contention of some authors that this effort has been a failure; in fact, they all agreed with one respondent that "theory is the window to practice." Even the two field instructors who initially responded that they did not "make the connection" between theory and practice later recalled a number of authors whose writing influenced their work. With one exception, these field instructors did not engage in sophisticated theoretical debate like that of modernism vs. postmodernism (Laird, 1993); instead, they offered

useful models of intervention. All field instructors were conversant with the models that were germane to their field of practice: child welfare, geriatrics, care management. They preferred models that emphasized a strengths perspective, like the Search Institute's asset-based approach (Benson, Roehlkepartain, & Sesma, 2003) and Benard's resiliency theory (Benard, 2004). All the field instructors seemed to utilize a systemic approach to practice, from solution-focused family therapy (Miller et al., 1996) to the ecological model of social work (Germain, 1991). Two respondents mentioned service learning (Furco, 1996; National Youth Leadership Project, 2005; Saltmarsh, 2005; Scales & Roehlkepartain, 2004), an analog to field education described by one respondent as "a form of learning by doing where [high school students and interns] apply knowledge, skills, critical thinking and wise judgment to address genuine community needs." One training director did present an elegant exposition of complexity theory, based on recent ideas about chaos and emergence, and its application to group supervision. He explained how a "complex adaptive system of individuals who have the freedom to act in ways that are not always totally predictable and whose actions are interconnected" can generate creative responses on the "edge of chaos" that is social work practice. The breadth and depth of these respondents' knowledge was astonishing; one said,

I read a lot. I have been doing reading on Islam and how it relates to Christianity and Judaism. Last year I read about Buddhism and about Chinese philosophy. I also read some academic articles, some on popular science. . . . I take students to the city library and teach them what they need to find, like documents about the civil rights movement. Or I tell them to read Adam Smith (1880) about the distribution of wealth in the world.

They read widely in business, science, and philosophy. Several were drawn to the tactics of Alinsky (1989) or the liberation therapy of Friere (1970). As a result of her work in international peace, justice, and human rights efforts in Europe, Central and South America, and the Middle East, one field instructor was applying the principles of restorative justice (Hopkins, 2004) to her work with schools.

Although they all demonstrated knowledge of a wide range of theories, respondents had different opinions about the integration

of theory and practice in social work school. On the positive side, half of the field instructors said they asked interns to share articles from school with them or occasionally consulted with them about assignments. They acknowledged that several of their preferred theories, like the strengths perspective and the ecological approach, are well integrated within the curriculum of social work schools. Five respondents participated in collaborative curriculum planning with schools of social work, and one training director joined with a chairperson of field education in presenting a workshop about complexity theory. On the other hand, two respondents believed that the theories taught in social work school were not always useful or understandable. One said,

Most of my interns can't really integrate theory and practice. Some of them think that school is a waste of time; they don't see how theory fits. I try to help them ask, "How is what you know useful?" I give them simple tasks, and some interns think that this makes school less abstract, they can see the connections.

Another respondent said,

A lot of students don't think that clinical practice class is useful: it doesn't relate to work with an inner-city kid with a knife in his hand. It's not practical; it's head stuff. The [teaching at schools of social work] is the same stuff over the years. The idea of "you are a blank screen" is not good; you have to be a real person.

Despite their own theoretical sophistication, field instructors found they had to use considerable effort and skill in helping interns integrate theory and practice in field.

Understanding and Practicing Research

Although some field instructors are leery of research—"I have to hold their feet to the fire," said one training director—the respondents in this study respected the importance of research. Three respondents described instruments and models, like the Beck Depression Inventory (1979), Raiff and Shore's (1993) model of care management, or the Search Institute Developmental Asset model (Benson et al., 2003),

which have been carefully evaluated. Training programs funded by organizations like the Hartford Foundation have a substantial research component, and several field instructors were actively involved in practice evaluation on their own. One training director said, "The grants which fund us require that we evaluate our services. We need to pay attention to our paperwork; it comes back to us to tell people what we are doing. It is the basis of our funding." Another field instructor took it upon herself to evaluate her service learning class, creating a scale based on the work of Bonnie Benard (2004). One field instructor even used research to support field instruction: she evaluated the contribution of social work interns to the hospital in order to allow reimbursement for interns' practice!

In addition to teaching well-researched models and being involved in practice evaluation, half the field instructors mentioned that they participated in research projects with interns. For example, one placement required interns in both micro and macro practice to participate in research, whether by improving documentation and data collection or by refining the evaluation protocol. A field instructor published articles with her students modeling a classroom action research strategy for school social workers to assess their interventions. Several schools of social work assigned a research project to interns; three field instructors said that they would often be called upon to support these projects, either by smoothing the way for a project within the internship, or by making helpful suggestions, or even by serving as research subjects. One respondent said,

I have students tell me what they are interested in, then I look at our policies and have them research something that will have an impact on our agency. If the student comes up with something the agency is not receptive to, I let them know. Last year one student collected data on the movement of kids of different races through foster care before and after the passage of a state law mandating the prompt placement of all children regardless of race. Another student looked at the barriers to permanent placement experienced by minority children.

However, the gap between academics and field instructors in the area of research was mentioned by more than one respondent. Two field instructors felt that social work schools imposed on them by

requiring research projects in the field without giving sufficient respect, support, and instruction; for example, one professor was said to have responded angrily when the director of an agency vetoed an intern's plan to do research on a client. One respondent believed that the "linear, logical, experimental" approach of much social work research was at odds with the complex nature of most social work practice; this was echoed by another, who said bluntly, "Many academics haven't been in field, and their research is not relevant to the field [and] to our mandate of serving clients." Two respondents believed that schools of social work are pressured by the surrounding academic community, and encouraged by the Council on Social Work Education, to focus on funded research at the expense of field education. Except for the field instructor associated with the Hartford Foundation, not one respondent mentioned doing a joint research project with schools of social work or receiving consultation from those schools about evidence-based practice.

Accountability, Evaluation, and Gatekeeping

When asked about the greatest environmental challenge, these field instructors were less concerned about fiscal retrenchment in agencies and communities than they were about monitoring and evaluating their interns. In placement, interns and their supervisors were described as being increasingly liable for their practice; as one respondent said, "You are accountable for your trainee. You can't wait till a student asks for a consultation; you have to anticipate and be on top of it. You have to ask aggressively." Respondents said that they have to monitor and evaluate interns who come to social work school with increased outside responsibilities and with complex developmental issues; as one put it, "The younger ones don't know what they want, and the older ones don't necessarily have the stamina to keep up the pace." Of greatest concern was interns' increased special needs; seven respondents mentioned the difficulty of interns who have problems: "They can't write reports"; "They decompensate and become suicidal"; "They cannot manage the physical requirements of the internship." Stress, immaturity, or cognitive or emotional problems could lead interns to serious lapses in judgment; for example, one field instructor was horrified to hear that his intern had spent the weekend at a client's home.

Field instructors responded to the challenge of balancing the support of interns with agency demands for accountability by careful training and monitoring of interns. Training directors said that they worked closely with field education departments to choose interns who would be appropriate for their placements and to make a good match with field instructors. They tried to provide a safe space for learning: one sent an example of written guidelines on home visiting, and another described a program she had instituted at her school to defuse conflict:

A number of ALANA girls were having conflicts with each other. They got together with the principal and me to work it out... according to principles of restorative justice. Later, a "gathering of elders" [older ALANA women from the community] was convened to celebrate these girls and their accomplishments.

These field instructors took care to give interns thorough orientation and assessed their personal learning style and learning needs; two used the Kolb Inventory (Deal, 2000; Raschick, Maypole, & Day, 1995) and one used Horejsi and Garthwait's (2002) guidelines. "Start out slow" was the motto of most respondents; as one said,

You can't give a caseload to beginning students because the clients won't come back. There's not a pressure to give clients right away. We begin with community immersion, spending four days in the community learning what it's like for clients in that community. It's also important for students to understand the agency system before starting to work. Then we start them off with intakes and observe them.

They presented optimal challenge and optimal frustration; as one field instructor put it, "I give them the work they most want—and the work they least want!" Field instructors also trained and monitored interns carefully. As one respondent put it,

The more organized and clear you are about what you will provide and by whom the better it works... If we haven't trained [interns] they will say, "What do I do next?" Training is good for their independence. We are very careful about ethics. We sign off on all the interns' charts.

If field instructors were not available in a crisis, they made clear what the “chain of command” was and who was available for immediate consultation.

Respondents tried to collaborate closely with schools of social work in monitoring and evaluating interns. Four respondents said that schools gave clear criteria by which they could measure interns’ performance, and two sent examples of various learning plans and evaluation forms. Six field instructors said that they were supported by their field liaisons; they believed that liaisons basically trusted field instructors’ judgment, but they appreciated field visits in which they collaborated in evaluating interns; as one put it, “I don’t have to know it all; I have a different brain [to work] on it.” They were grateful to share the gatekeeping responsibility with the school and with the social work profession. As one put it,

We’re not there to judge as much as to offer a variety of experience. It’s up to the university to do the grading. . . . I give them the experience and what they take in is what they take in. The good students are the ones who will get the job. You can’t force and fail them.

Nevertheless, six of the respondents mentioned some example of a problem with student evaluation and gatekeeping for the profession. Two respondents complained that the evaluation forms the schools of social work had them fill out were “a headache” or “a pain in the neck.” Although they could shepherd most interns through difficult placements, half the sample of field instructors had felt at one time that their interns were not ready to be social workers; in this concern they did not always find support from the school of social work in setting limits. One field instructor thought the school was reluctant to take a stand: “When I complained that a student had crossed a line [and should fail field], the field advisor replied, ‘Social work is a broad field [and there will be room for him].’” Another field instructor felt the social work school sometimes failed to support him in failing a student, and sometimes pressured him to fail a student against his better judgment:

I had a student who had problems [in school and in placement]. His professor hinted that I should drop him, but he spent two

years at the school and nobody did anything. I said, "I won't do your dirty work." In another case, a professor hounded me to get rid of a perfectly acceptable student.

One respondent suggested that schools are overprotective of interns because they are afraid of reprisals; she said,

Students have preconceived ideas about what they want, don't get enough feedback about the appropriateness of [their demands]. The [school's field] advisor often advocates for the student, who says "her voice was not heard." The students feel entitled...they pay money and want what they contracted for. There is always the hidden agenda of litigation; they can threaten to sue.

Concerns about evaluation and gatekeeping were the most problematic areas for these field instructors.

Supporting the Mission of Social Work Training in Stressful Times

Half the respondents agreed with the literature that fiscal cutbacks have made agencies reluctant to commit resources to intern training. Five field instructors stated that financial pressures have had a deleterious effect on social work training. As one put it,

There are lots of problems in [our state]. Although guidance counselors are funded, school social workers are funded only in metropolitan areas, unless they get a grant. Before certification, they were actually using teachers as social workers!

Another said, "The hospital recently cut funding for training in half." A third respondent said, "Because there's no money, [workers] are expected to do more and more." Reduced funding put pressure on supervision; for example, time for field instruction was not always counted as part of productivity requirements. Space for intern offices and for supervision was always at a premium. Another source of financial pressure was changes in insurance regulations so that second year clinical interns were no longer reimbursable for their services. Professionals from different disciplines were put in competition for

jobs or prestige (for example, in one hospital nursing took care management over from social work), and time for interdisciplinary collaboration diminished. This could lead to social work interns feeling that other professionals in host settings saw them as “second fiddle,” a threat or a burden. Lack of services extended, in some cases, to the shredding of the social safety net; as one respondent said with passion,

In the African American community there is a distrust of the mental health system because of things like overmedication or midnight raids by welfare workers. There are only 162 Board-certified child psychiatrists in the whole [state]. We don't have time to establish a relationship; how can anyone spill their guts in six sessions? Why should children, because they're poor, be in a school that looks like it has been bombed? Why should teachers have to buy their own supplies? The courts used to do supervision of school attendance, but they laid off all but three workers. The courts are overloaded anyway; drug dealers wait four months before they come to trial. No one has any idea of what life is like for people without money.

Despite fiscal retrenchment, lack of services and competition among professionals from different disciplines, a surprising finding was the degree of support the field instructors in this study experienced from administrators and colleagues. Over and over, respondents praised their colleagues and agency administrators: “I come up with an idea and my boss says OK!” “The principals and the staff have been wonderful. The administration and teachers let me go wherever I want to meet student needs.” “The mayor's office gives me freedom; I can pick my priorities.” The same respondent who complained about the lack of a safety net in the African American community praised the Family Service Association: “They're great! They call every day and say ‘What do you need?’” In addition to according freedom and respect to field instructors, some agencies gave fiscal support to training, including not only credit for supervision in productivity requirements but also help with the salary of training directors.

The support of agency administrators for these field instructors was clearly a response to the excellence of those instructors' practice. As one put it, “I worked for [my boss] and for his brother, and we are

friends. He knows I'll do what I can." The interviewer had expected to hear respondents speak with some bitterness or resignation about the stresses of field instruction in these parlous times; instead, they responded cheerfully like one field instructor: "I don't let obstacles stop me!" They consistently demonstrated energy and creativity in tackling the problems of field education. They dedicated themselves to putting aside the time and space for supervision. More important, they constantly demonstrated the worth of interns work. They were ingenious in finding a niche for interns:

In one setting, interns' traditional role in case management was taken over by the nursing department. The training director responded by "[finding] a real need unmet by the organization and [creating] a delivery system that responds to that need." He found that staff members at the hospital were not asking patients about depression because "nobody wanted to open that Pandora's box." With the interns and field instructors, the training director developed a model that interns could use in assessing patients' depression, using the Beck Inventory (1979) in an empowering way.

Another training director worked hard to get reimbursement for second-year interns' practice. Field instructors helped interns to advocate for the agency's programs, to write grants, and above all to promote their own work. One said, "At our agency's board meeting at the end of the year, I have students do a brief presentation to make the board understand how important students are to the agency." Training directors also took it upon themselves to encourage staff to supervise interns; as one put it, "I am committed to training. I love to offer people the opportunity to assume that role and grow in that role and feel that they have accomplished something." They organized "collectives" and seminars for field instructors, made themselves available at any time for "troubleshooting," and even provided coverage when field instructors were absent.

Surprisingly, only a few respondents mentioned the role of social work schools in upholding the mission of field instruction. Despite the aforementioned problems around gatekeeping, field liaisons were seen as the field instructors' most staunch allies; as one put it, "they offer dialogue and professional respect." Two respondents described instances where schools of social work mounted advocacy efforts: in

one case, lobbying in favor of a training director's request for reimbursement for second year interns' work, and in another case, putting pressure on a state education department to hire certified school social workers. Formal university-community consortia for joint curriculum planning, research efforts, and community mentorship programs are mandated by the Hartford Foundation, which sponsored one respondent's practice of field instruction in geriatrics. With these few exceptions, it seemed that most field instructors in this study acted on their own initiative, rather than expecting advocacy efforts from associated schools of social work.

IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

The Importance of Agency-School Collaboration

The most surprising, and encouraging, finding of this study was that these field instructors regarded challenges as an invitation to problem-solving. They provided regular and structured supervision even when they were overworked. They taught an integrated model of skill-building, reflection, and linkage to theory and research. In the face of increasing pressure for accountability from academia and agencies alike, they trained and monitored interns carefully and endeavored to evaluate them fairly. They supported the mission of field education within a difficult environment in many innovative ways. In short, these field instructors have a great deal to contribute to social work education.

These field instructors were able to work autonomously; they brought impressive personal resources, skills, and knowledge to their supervision of interns. However, they spoke appreciatively of the sustenance they received from colleagues and administrators at their agencies and from the field liaisons from schools of social work who offered them "dialogue and professional respect." An important corresponding implication for social work education from this study is the importance of communication and collaboration between field instructors and their agencies on one hand, and schools of social work on the other. While field instructors have a great deal to teach other social work educators, they also need support from schools of social work.

Schools of social work have always made attempts to collaborate with agencies to support supervision of interns (Bogo & Globerman,

1999; Donner, 1996; Homonoff & Maltz, 1995; Mokuau & Ewalt, 1993; Selber, Mulvaney, & Lauderdale, 1998; Rosenblum, 1997; Spitzer et al., 2001). More than 10 years ago, Jarman-Rohde et al. (1997) were calling for social work schools to show leadership and activism in upholding the mission of field education. The link between agency and school has always been strongest in teaching centers with training directors, but even in “lone ranger” field agencies the commitment to connection to schools of social work is strong (Bogo & Globerman, 1999). The findings of this study suggest several areas in which agency-school collaboration could enhance field education. The methods and models of field instruction should be clearly taught by schools of social work and jointly evaluated with field instructors. Field instructors should work with academic faculty and with the Council on Social Work Education in specifying the competencies necessary to prepare interns for current practice and assessing the relevance of theories taught to support those competencies. Schools and agencies can form or join partnerships to teach and promote evidence-based practice. Finally, problems with gatekeeping could be resolved if agencies and schools join together in articulating and upholding standards of intern behavior and performance.

Methods and Models of Field Instruction

There are many opportunities for communication among field instructors and field educators in developing new approaches to field instruction. Respondents in this study successfully utilized a variety of forms of recording suggested by schools of social work, including process recording (Ames, 1999; Fox & Gutheil, 2000; Graybeal & Ruff, 1995; Neuman & Friedman, 1997); it would be interesting to compare those formats to evaluate their effectiveness. Field educators could learn from the innovative methods of teaching interns, like group role-plays, that these respondents described, since group supervision has been found to be a creative response to restricted time for supervision (Bogo, Globerman, & Sussman, 2004; Walters & Young, 1999). Some of the respondents mentioned models of field instruction that were helpful to them, but it would be useful if schools of social work would routinely, in beginning and advanced supervision seminars, teach models like Bogo and Vayda’s model (1998) which integrates teaching of assessment and intervention skills, reflection, and theory.

Joint Definition of Competencies

Schools of social work are held accountable by accrediting bodies for developing criteria by which students' competencies can be measured in field as well as the classroom (Bogo et al., 2002, 2004; Brontstein & Kelly, 2002; Raskin, Bogo, & Wayne, 2008; Reid, Bailey-Dempsey, & Viggiana, 1996). Social work education has been moving toward "explicit behaviorally-based observable criteria" for evaluation of interns (Regehr, Regehr, Bogo, & Power, 2007), based on lists of practice skills to be learned. Participants in this study had a good idea of what skills interns needed to learn to prepare them for practice; it was interesting that skills like assessment, intervention, and evaluation were mentioned by both "micro" and "macro" field instructors. However, field instructors need greater clarity from schools of social work in defining and measuring required competencies. In return, their professional knowledge about the skills currently required in the field could be invaluable in helping to target the most important competencies (like skills of case management), as well as capturing the "implicit criteria, characteristics or qualities" that they believe are important in evaluating students (Regehr et al., 2007).

Integration of Theory and Practice

The increasing distance between field and academic faculty (Rhodes et al., 1999) has lessened opportunities for agencies and schools of social work to collaborate in curriculum development. Respondents in this study were, for the most part, pleased with concepts like the ecological model (Germain, 1991) and the strengths perspective (Saleebey, 2002), which are central to social work teaching. However, two field instructors found the theories taught in social work school to be incomprehensible to students or even irrelevant; educators may need to explain current theories to field educators and should solicit input from field instructors as to what theories are most useful in the practice world. Academics can also learn about new theories from field instructors, like the respondent who applied the ideas of complexity, chaos, and emergence to his field instruction (Gleick, 1987; Johnson, 2001; Nicolis & Prigogine, 1989; Warren, Franklin, & Streeter, 1998).

Understanding and Practice of Research

Most of the respondents in this study showed remarkable sophistication in their understanding and utilization of research. However, a few field instructors remained unconvinced about the usefulness of research, and some misunderstood or even resented the schools' requirements for intern research projects in field. Unfortunately, fiscal constraints have fostered competition between research and the field; as Lager and Robbins (2004) put it,

Decreasing budgets [lead to] pressure on faculty to produce grant dollars and spend additional time on scholarship, rather than on teaching, advising, curriculum development, and field liaison duties. (p. 7)

This rift can be mended by simple efforts on the part of field and academic faculty to bring field instructors up to speed about the school's teaching of research and to collaborate in planning intern research projects (Frost, Brooks, & Homonoff, 2000). On a larger scale, U.S. schools are beginning to catch up with the UK and Canada in collaborative ventures between agencies and schools of social work in promoting evidence-based practice; for example, several schools in the United States are offering trainings to placement agencies in evidence-based practice as it is applied to clinical decision-making (Bellamy et al., 2008; Sankar, 2008).

Evaluation and Gatekeeping of Interns

Schools of social work must collaborate with field instructors in identifying and addressing problems of evaluation and gatekeeping. Field instructors should have the time and expertise to be familiar with each student case and to spot potential problems (Zakutansky & Sirles, 1993). Interns must be offered consistent and clear feedback about their performance in each supervisory session (Abbott & Lyter, 1998; Freeman, 1985; Power & Bogo, 2002), and this feedback must be documented in each evaluation (Pease, 1988). Field liaisons should be available for regular consultation about interns' needs and progress (Rosenblum & Raphael, 1983; Urdang, 1991), attending to differences in developmental levels (Deal, 2000), cultures (Arkin, 1999; Chung, 2006; Longres & Seltzer, 1994; Ryan & Hendricks, 1989), and learning

styles (Deal, 2000; Raschick, Maypole, & Day, 1995). Liaisons would be well advised to take field instructors' concerns seriously, for, as Bogo et al. (2004) found,

Even in the absence of explicit competency-based criteria for student evaluation, experienced social work instructors are able to agree on what constitutes exemplary performance, which students are likely to develop into good social work professionals, . . . and which students are clearly unsuitable for practice. (p. 423)

On the other hand, liaisons may need to offer consultation to supervisors when it comes time to write a negative evaluation; Hartman and Wills' 1991 survey found that the actual failure rate for interns was considerably lower than the percentage of students identified as having failing behaviors (as cited in Alperin, 1996, p. 153).

There may come a time when accommodation and remediation do not lead to improvement in an intern's performance and gatekeeping is necessary. Fortunately, courts have given professional schools considerable discretion in dismissing students because of the importance of their clients' safety (Cobb, 1994; Cole & Lewis, 1993; Gelman et al., 1996; Koerin & Miller, 1995; R. Wayne, 2004). But they have made it clear that dismissal of students must be based on explicit standards for performance and follow due process. Social work educators have recognized the need for clearer standards for social work students' performance in the field (Alperin, 1996), but defining and implementing these standards is not easy (Cobb, 1994; Cole & Lewis, 1993; Coleman, Collins, & Aikins, 1995; Gibbs, 1994; Miller & Koerin, 2001; Moore, Dietz, & Jenkins, 1998; Moore & Urwin, 1990, 1991; Peterman & Balcke, 1986). Recently the social work school at the University of Texas at Austin has made ground-breaking efforts, in collaboration with all stakeholders including its field agencies, to develop clear academic standards; these standards include basic abilities like interpersonal and communication skills, emotional and mental abilities, and professional skills like self-awareness, as well as scholastic performance. They also instituted a three-level review process that is remarkable for its clarity and fairness (Urwin, Van Soest, & Kretzschmar, 2006). The model suggested at the University of Texas is being implemented at several other schools of social work, and roundtables on gatekeeping have been held for 2 years at the

Council on Social Work Education (Goodman & Harrigan, 2007; Harrigan & Goodman, 2008).

Collaboration Writ Small and Large

Vehicles for collaboration between agencies and social work schools come in different sizes. “Lone ranger” agencies (Bogo & Globerman, 1999) tend to depend more than larger agencies on their field liaisons. At a time when the necessity of traditional field advising is being put in question (Raskin, Bogo, & Wayne, 2008), most field instructors in this sample consulted with their field liaisons as representatives of their schools’ positions on curriculum, research, and especially evaluation of students. A second level of consultation between agencies and schools can occur at meetings for joint curriculum planning (Bogo & Globerman, 1999). The John A. Hartford Foundation has created formal opportunities for “collaboration between geriatric placements and social work schools in interdisciplinary team training and partnerships . . . for the transfer of knowledge between the practice world and the classroom” (Lager & Robbins, 2004, p. 7). As Lager and Robbins (2004) describe these university-community consortia,

Working together, faculty and field instructors developed and administrated the rotations; created seminars and field assignments; . . . designed community-based mentorship programs; . . . developed course modules and resource packets to infuse gerontological content into the classroom; and created faculty traineeships in the community. (p. 9)

The most ambitious undertaking is the creation of teaching centers, where “a formal link is established with the university, a commitment to education is part of the organization’s mission statement, and ‘educational coordinators’ are appointed” (Bogo & Globerman, 1999, p. 266). In the United Kingdom, teaching sites are accredited and recognized by national educational and professional bodies, field instructors are formally trained and evaluated, and oversight by schools of social work is no longer necessary (Bogo & Globerman, 1999). In small and large ways, the proliferation of collaborative initiatives between agencies and schools of social work to improve field education is exciting.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the respondents in this study deserve to be called “best practitioners” in field education. They demonstrated responsibility, courage, intelligence and creativity in responding to the challenges of field instruction. Most important, they loved being field instructors. As one said, “Life is fun: I can do whatever interests me!” All the respondents were lifted up by their experience in teaching interns; they said,

The students make us come alive, and they hold us accountable.

It is prestigious to be a field instructor. Sometimes they even give us gifts and feed us!

Students give us a different perspective, they say something different. I enjoy it; they’re young, they have big ideals.

They keep us fresh and client-focused.

If these respondents are representative of field instructors in general, the heart of social work is beating vigorously indeed.

REFERENCES

- Abbott, A., & Lyter, S. (1998). The use of constructive criticism in field supervision. *The Clinical Supervisor, 17*(2), 43–57.
- Abram, F., Hartung, M., & Wernet, S. (2000). The Non-MSW task supervisor, MSW field instructor, and the practicum student: A triad for high quality field education. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 20*(1/2), 171–185.
- Alinsky, S. (1989). *Rules for radicals: A practical primer for realistic radicals*. New York: Vintage Books.
- Allen-Meares, P. (2000). Our professional values and the changing environment. *Journal of Social Work Education, 36*(2), 179–182.
- Alperin, D. E. (1988). The physically disabled BSW student: Implications for field education. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 2*, 99–111.
- Alperin, D. E. (1996). Empirical research on student assessment: What have we learned? *The Clinical Supervisor, 14*(1), 149–159.
- Ames, N. (1999). Social work recording: A new look at an old issue. *Journal of Social Work Education, 35*(2), 227–237.
- Arkin, N. (1999). Culturally sensitive student supervision: Difficulties and challenges. *The Clinical Supervisor, 18*(2), 1–16.
- Aronson, J. (1994). A pragmatic view of thematic analysis. *The Qualitative Report, 2*(1), 1–3.

- Beck, A. (1979). *Cognitive treatment of depression*. New York: Guilford.
- Bellany, J., Bledsoe, S., Mullen, E., Fang, L., & Manuel, I. (2008). Agency–university partnership evidence-based practice in social work. *Journal of Social Work Education, 44*(3), 55–76.
- Benard, B. (2004). *Resiliency: What we have learned*. San Francisco: West End Press.
- Benson, P., Roehlkepartain, E., & Sesma, A. (2003). Boosting student achievement: New research on the power of developmental assets. *Search Institute Insights and Evidence, 1*(1), 1–14.
- Blostein, S. (1988). Reconsideration of internships in graduate social work education. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 2*(1), 91–105.
- Bocage, M., Homonoff, E., & Riley, P. (1995). Measuring the impact of the current state and national fiscal crises on human service agencies and social work training. *Social Work, 40*, 701–705.
- Bogo, M., & Globerman, J. (1999). Interorganizational relationships between schools of social work and field agencies: Testing a framework for analysis. *Journal of Social Work Education, 35*(2), 265–274.
- Bogo, M., Globerman, J., & Sussman, T. (2004). The field instructor as group worker: Managing trust and competition in group supervision. *Journal of Social Work Education, 40*(1), 13–20.
- Bogo, M., Regehr, C., Hughes, J., Power, R., & Globerman, J. (2002). Evaluating a measure of student field performance in direct service: Testing reliability and validity of explicit criteria. *Journal of Social Work Education, 38*(3), 385–403.
- Bogo, M., Regehr, C., Power, R., Hughes, J., Woodford, M., & Regehr, G. (2004). Toward new approaches for evaluating student field performance: Tapping the implicit criteria used by experienced field instructors. *Journal of Social Work Education, 40*(3), 417–426.
- Bogo, M., Regehr, C., Woodford, M., Hughes, et al. (2006). Beyond competencies: Field instructors' descriptions of student performance. *Journal of Social Work Education, 42*(3), 579–594.
- Bogo, M., & Vayda, E. (1998). *The practice of field instruction in social work: Theory and process*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- Brontstein, L., & Kelly, T. (2002). Qualitative methods for evaluating field instruction: Discovering how and what interns are learning. *Arête, 25*(2), 25–34.
- Brooks, D., & Riley, P. (1996). The impact of managed health care policy on student field training. *Smith College Studies in Social Work, 66*(13), 307–316.
- Caspi, J., & Reid, W. (1998). The task-centered model for field instruction: An innovative approach. *Journal of Social Work Education, 34*(1), 55–71.
- Caspi, J., & Reid, W. (2003). *Educational supervision in social work: A task-centered model for field instruction and staff development*.
- Chung, I. (2006). Bridging professional and cultural values and norms: A study of Asian-American social work students. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 26*(1/2), 93–110.
- Cobb, N. (1994). Court-recommended guidelines for managing unethical students and working with university lawyers. *Journal of Social Work Education, 30*(1), 18–31.

- Cole, B., & Lewis, R. (1993). Gatekeeping through termination of unsuitable social work students: Legal issues and guidelines. *Journal of Social Work Education, 20*(2), 150–160.
- Cole, B. S. & Cain, M. W. (1996). Students with disabilities: A proactive approach to accommodation. *Journal of Social Work Education, 32*(3), 339–349.
- Coleman, H., Collins, D., & Aikins, D. (1985). The student-at-risk in the practicum. In G. Rogers (Ed.), *Social work education: Views and vistas* (pp. 256–270). IA: Kendall Hunt.
- Deal, K. H. (2000). The usefulness of developmental stage models for clinical social work students: An exploratory study. *The Clinical Supervisor, 19*(1), 1–19.
- Derezotes, D. (2000). *Advanced generalist social work practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Donner, S. (1996). Field work crisis: Dilemmas, dangers and opportunities. *Smith College Studies in Social Work, 66*(13), 317–331.
- Drisko, J. (2000). Play in clinical learning, supervision and field advising. *The Clinical Supervisor, 19*(1), 152–166.
- Edmond, T., Megivern, D., Williams, C., Rochman, E., & Howard, M. (2006). Integrating evidence-based practice and social work field education. *Journal of Social Work Education, 42*(2), 377–397.
- Fox, R., & Gutheil, I. (2000). Process recording: A means for conceptualizing and evaluating practice. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 20*(1/2), 39–55.
- Freeman, E. M. (1985). The importance of feedback in clinical supervision: Implications for direct practice. *The Clinical Supervisor, 3*(1), 5–26.
- Friedman, S. (1993). *The new language of change: Constructive collaboration in psychotherapy*. New York: Guilford.
- Friere, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Seabury Press.
- Frost, A., Brooks, D., & Homonoff, E. (2000). The integration of learning objectives for field education and research: You're in the right place at the right time! Paper presented at the 46th annual program meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, New York, March.
- Frumkin, M. (1980). Social work education and the professional commitment fallacy: A practical guide to field-school relationships. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 16*(2), 91–99.
- Furco, A. (1996). Service-learning: A balanced approach to experiential education. In *Expanding boundaries: Serving and learning* (pp. 2–6). Washington, DC: Corporation for National Service.
- Gelman, C. (2004). Anxiety experienced by foundation-year MSW students entered field placement: Implications for admissions, curriculum, and field education. *Journal of Social Work Education, 40*(1), 39–45.
- Gelman, S., Pollack, D., & Auerbach, C. (1996). Liability issues in social work education. *Journal of Social Work Education, 32*(3), 351–362.
- Gelman, S., & Wardell, P. (1988). Who's responsible? The field liability dilemma. *Journal of Social Work Education, 24*(1), 70–78.
- Germain, C. (1991). *Human behavior in the social environment: An ecological view*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Gibbs, P. (1994). Gatekeeping issues in BSW programs. *Arete, 19*(2), 15–27.

- Gibelman, M., & Schervish, P. H. (1997). Supervision in social work: Characteristics and trends in a changing environment. *The Clinical Supervisor*, 16, 1–15.
- Gillis, H., & Lewis, J. (2004). Addressing the issue of psychiatric disability in social work interns: The need for a problem-solving framework. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 40(3), 391–403.
- Gleick, J. (1987). *Chaos: Making a new science*. New York: Viking Press.
- Globerman, J., & Bogo, M. (2003). Changing times: Understanding social workers' motivation to be field instructors. *Social Work*, 48(1), 65–73.
- Goldstein, H. (1993). Field instruction for reflective practice: A reconstructive proposal. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 8(1/2), 165–182.
- Goodman, E., & Harrigan, T. (2007). *At the starting gate of gatekeeping: Dilemmas of implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Roundtable at Council on Social Work Education, October.
- Graybeal, C., & Ruff, E. (1995). Process recording: It's more than you think. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 31(2), 169–181.
- Harrigan, T., & Goodman, E. (2008). *Complex issues in gatekeeping: Professional behaviors and relational skills*. Philadelphia: Roundtable at Council on Social Work Education, October.
- Hendricks, C. O. (2003). Learning and teaching cultural competence in the practice of social work. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 23(1/2), 73–86.
- Homonoff, E., & Maltz, P. (1995). Fair exchange: School-agency relationships in changing times. In G. Rogers (Ed.), *Social work field education: Views and vistas* (pp. 38–51). Dubuque, IA: Kendall Hunt.
- Homonoff, E., Weintraub, A., Michelson, S., & Costikyan, N. (1995). The anxiety of change: Narcissistic development of social work interns at a field placement in distress. In G. Rogers (Ed.), *Social work field education: Views and vistas* (pp. 330–340). Dubuque, IA: Kendall Hunt.
- Hopkins, B. (2004). *Just schools: A whole school approach to restorative justice*. New York: Jessica Kingsley.
- Horejsi, A., & Garthwait, C. (2002). *The social work practicum: A guide and workbook for students*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Jarman-Rohde, L., McFall, J., Kolar, P., & Strom, G. (1997). The changing context of social work practice: Implications and recommendations for social work educators. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 33(1), 29–46.
- Johnson, S. (2001). *Emergence: The connected lives of ants, brains, cities and software*. New York: Scribner.
- Kearney, P. (2003). *A framework for supporting and assessing practice learning*. London, UK: Social Care Institute for Excellence.
- Knowles, M. (1989). *Andragogy in action*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Koerin, B., & Miller, J. (1995). Gatekeeping policies: Terminating students for nonacademic reasons. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 31, 247–261.
- Lager, P., & Robbins, V. (2004). Field education: Exploring the future, expanding the vision. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 40(1), 3–11.
- Laird, J. (1993). Revising social work education: A social constructionist approach. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 8(1/2), 1–10.

- Lilley, D. (2002). Field placement: The road to practicum, I want a great one. *The New Social Worker*, 9(1), 10–16.
- Longres, J. F., & Seltzer, G. B. (1994). Racism: Its implications for the education of minority social work students. *Journal of Multicultural Social Work*, 3(1), 59–75.
- Mama, R. (2001). Violence in the field: Experiences of students and supervisors. *Journal of Baccalaureate Social Work*, 7(1), 17–35.
- McCracken, G. (1988). *The long interview*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- McNeill, T. (2006). Evidence-based practice in an age of relativism. *Social Work*, 51(2), 190–192.
- Miley, K., O'Melia, M., & DuBois, B. (2004). *Generalist social work practice: An empowering approach*. Boston: Pearson.
- Miller, J., & Koerin, B. (2001). Gatekeeping in the practicum: What field instructors need to know. *The Clinical Supervisor*, 20(2), 1–18.
- Miller, S., Hubble, M., & Duncan, B. (1996). *Handbook of solution-focused brief treatment*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Mokuau, N., & Ewalt, P. (1993). School-agency collaboration: Enriching teaching, scholarship, and service in state hospital placements. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 29(3), 328–337.
- Moore, L., & Urwin, C. (1990). Quality control in social work: The gatekeeping role in social work education. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 4(1), 113–128.
- Moore, L., & Urwin, C. (1991). Gatekeeping; A model for screening baccalaureate students for field education. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 27(1), 8–18.
- Moore, L. S., Dietz, T. J., & Jenkins, D. A. (1998). Issues in gatekeeping. *Journal of Baccalaureate Social Work*, 6(1), 37–50.
- National Youth Leadership Council. (2005). *Growing to greatness: 2005 state of service learning project*. St. Paul, MN: Author.
- Neuman, K., & Friedman, B. (1997). Process recordings: Fine-tuning an old instrument. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 33(2), 237–243.
- Nicolis, G., & Prigogine, I. (1989). *Exploring complexity: An introduction*. New York: Freeman.
- Padgett, D. (1998). *Qualitative methods in social work research: Challenges and rewards*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Papell, C., & Skolnik, L. (1992). The reflective practitioner: A contemporary paradigm's relevance for social work education. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 28(1), 18–25.
- Pease, B. (1988). The ABCs of social work student evaluation. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 2(2), 1988.
- Peterman, P. L., & Balcke, R. (1986). The inappropriate BSW student. *Arete*, 11(1), 27–34.
- Petr, C., & Walter, U. (2005). Best practices inquiry: A multidimensional, value-critical framework. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 41(2), 251–267.
- Power, R., & Bogo, M. (2002). Educating field instructors and students to deal with challenges in their teaching relationships. *The Clinical Supervisor*, 21(1), 39–57.

- Raiff, N., & Shore, B. (1993). *Advanced case management: New strategies for the nineties*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Raschick, M., Maypole, D., & Day, D. (1995). Improving field education through Kolb learning theory. *Journal of Social Work Education, 34*(1), 31–42.
- Raskin, M., & Blome, W. (1998). The impact of managed care on field instruction. *Journal of Social Work Education, 34*, 365–374.
- Raskin, M., Bogo, M., & Wayne, J. (2008). Revisiting field education standards. *Journal of Social Work Education, 44*, 173–187.
- Reamer, F. (1994). *Social work malpractice and liability: Strategies for prevention*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Reeser, L. C. (1992). Students with disabilities in practicum: What is reasonable accommodation? *Journal of Social Work Education, 28*, 98–109.
- Regehr, C., Stalker, C., Jacobs, M., & Pelech, W. (2001). The gatekeeper and the wounded healer. *The Clinical Supervisor, 20*(1), 127–135.
- Regehr, G., Regehr, C., Bogo, M., & Power, R. (2007). Can we build a better mousetrap? Improving the measure of practice performance in the field practicum. *Journal of Social Work Education, 43*(2), 327–343.
- Reid, W., Bailey-Dempsey, C., & Viggiana, P. (1996). Evaluating student field instruction: An empirical study. *Journal of Social Work Education, 32*, 45–52.
- Reisch, M., & Jarman-Rohde, L. (2000). The future of social work in the United States: Implications for field education. *Journal of Social Work Education, 36*(2), 201–204.
- Rhodes, R., Ward, J., Ligon, T., & Priddy, W. (1999). Fighting for field: Seven threats to an important component of field education. *Journal of Baccalaureate Social Work, 5*(1), 15–25.
- Rogers, G., & McDonald, P. L. (1995). Expedience over education: Teaching methods used by field instructors. *The Clinical Supervisor, 13*(2), 41–66.
- Rosenblum, A. (1997). Developing partnerships between social work programs and the practice community: An exploratory study of field advisory groups. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 14*(1/2), 111–125.
- Rosenblum, A., & Raphael, T. (1983). The role and function of the faculty liaison. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 19*(1), 67–74.
- Ryan, A. S., & Hendricks, C. O. (1989). Culture and communication: Supervising the Asian and Hispanic social worker. *The Clinical Supervisor, 7*(1), 27–40.
- Saleebey, D. (2002). *The strengths perspective in social work practice*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Saltmarsh, J. (Ed.). (2000). *Introduction to service learning toolkit: Readings and resources for faculty*. Providence, RI: Campus Compact, Brown University.
- Sankar, S. (2008). Promoting evidence informed practice: Lessons from the United Kingdom. *Illinois Journal of Child Welfare*. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Scales, P., & Roehlkepartain, E. (2004). *Community service and service-learning in U.S. public schools, 2004*. National Youth Leadership Council, Vienna, VA.
- Schon, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

- Selber, K., Mulvaney, M., & Lauderdale, M. (1998). A field education model for developing quality agency partnerships. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 17*(1/2), 121–136.
- Shulman, L. (1993). *Teaching the helping skills: A field instructor's guide*. Alexandria, VA: Council on Social Work Education.
- Shulman, L. (1999). *The skills of helping individuals, families, groups, and communities*. Itasca, IL: F.E. Peacock Publishers.
- Smith, A. (1880). *An inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Spitzer, W., Holden, G., Luizi, L., Rutter, S., Chernack, P., & Rosenberg, G. (2001). Edith Abbott was right: Designing fieldwork experiences for contemporary health care practice. *Journal of Social Work Education, 37*(1), 79–90.
- Strom-Gottfried, K., & Corcoran, K. (1998). Confronting ethical dilemmas in managed care: Guidelines for students and faculty. *Journal of Social Work Education, 34*(1), 109–119.
- Tully, C., Kropf, N., & Price, J. (1993). Is field a hard hat area? A study of violence in field placements. *Journal of Social Work Education, 29*(2), 191–200.
- Urdang, E. (1991). The discipline of faculty advising. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 5*, 117–137.
- Urwin, C., Van Soest, D., & Kretschmar, J. (2006). Key principles for developing gatekeeping standards for working with students with problems. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 26*(1/2), 163–180.
- Vonk, M. E., & Thyer, B. (1997). Evaluating the quality of supervision: A review of instruments for use in field instruction. *The Clinical Supervisor, 15*(1), 103–113.
- Walters, C., & Young, T. (1999). Combining individual and group supervision in educating for the social work profession. *The Clinical Supervisor, 18*(2), 73–89.
- Warren, K., Franklin, C., & Streeter, C. (1998). New directions in systems theory: Chaos and complexity. *Social Work, 43*(4), 357–373.
- Wayne, J., Bogo, M., & Raskin, M. (2006). The need for radical change in field education. *Journal of Social Work Education, 42*(1), 161–169.
- Wayne, R. (2004). Legal guidelines for dismissing students because of poor performance in field. *Journal of Social Work Education, 40*(3), 403–414.
- Zakutansky, T., & Sirles, E. (1993). Ethical and legal issues in field education: Shared responsibility and risk. *Journal of Social Work Education, 29*(3), 338–347.