

SUPERVISION IN SOCIAL WORK:
AN EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION BASED
ON THE NEEDS OF SUPERVISORS

Practicum Report

Presented to

The Faculty of Graduate Studies
University of Manitoba

In partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the Degree
Master of Social Work

By

© Elaine B. Smith

August 1988

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BY

ELAINE B. SMITH

A practicum submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the
requirements of the degree of

MASTER OF SOCIAL WORK

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INTRODUCTION

The writer's rationale for undertaking this practicum is as follows. The supervision literature revealed and practice confirmed that a large majority of practitioners whose training is in direct service move into supervisory positions without any additional training (Macarov, 1977; Patti & Austin, 1977; Patti, Diedreck, Olson & Crowell, 1979; Holloway, 1980; Scurfield, 1981).

Patti (1983) holds that this trend will likely continue for the following identified reasons. First, advancement up the career ladder for practitioners is limited. Career advancement in pay, prestige, power, growth and challenge, almost requires acceptance of the supervisory option. A lack of promotional opportunities in agencies may lead some practitioners to accept supervisory positions without a desire to supervise or without adequate preparation.

Secondly, Macarov (1977) and Patti (1983) hold that despite criticisms of practitioner-administrators, pointing to their lack of organizational knowledge and management skill, there exists a belief in social work that education and experience in direct service is necessary, if not sufficient, preparation for a supervisory position. This view also tends to be shared by agency employers (Marco, 1977).

Finally, Patti (1983) states that with the climate of a stabilized labor force, and the growth of unions in many social welfare sectors, more agencies will be required to promote from within.

Moore (1970) and Kadushin (1985) hold that the new supervisor is entering a new occupation, not simply a new position, and this

occupation will have its own set of job specifications and expectations. Changing the job title from practitioner to supervisor does not result in a magical endowment of supervisory skills. Studies suggest that practitioners who move into administration experience some degree of role discontinuity, identity confusion, and personal stress (Patti, Diedreck, Olson & Crowell, 1979; Scurfield, 1980).

A practitioner takes on a supervisory position only to find that the knowledge and skills learned and applied in direct service are not adequate to meet the requirements of the new position. Definitely some skills can be adapted to the new position but there are significant gaps. While it is true that now and then some practitioners seem to make the transition with relative ease, it seems that the majority of new supervisors are in need of additional education before they are able to do their job with a degree of confidence.

Skidmore (1983) states that it has been demonstrated that neither the business man nor the caseworker becomes a good administrator by induction or a pleasant personality. Supervisors are key people in organizations. Paradoxily, the training for supervisors has traditionally been neglected.

Ineffective supervisors are costly. Early termination of a supervisor may be the least expensive and detrimental to the agency. The greatest penalty may come when a supervisor remains and is underproductive or counterproductive. This affects the clients, practitioners, and the agency as a whole.

The move from practitioner to supervisor is a career transition that should be accompanied by an educational program. Administration is

considered a social work practice method just as direct service and group work (Skidmore, 1983; Patti, 1983). Administrative skills can be learned.

In the past little has been done to assist supervisors with the administrative aspects of their job. The training for supervisors is often of a piecemeal or emergency nature, and based on business orientated perspectives, which is not comprehensive or applicable to the human service practitioner.

Recently, it has been recognized and recommended, that child welfare agencies in Winnipeg develop a comprehensive training program for their supervisors (Sigurdson & Reid, 1987). This recommendation came from an external review done on the child abuse system in Winnipeg. One can assume that Sigurdson and Reid (1987) identified that supervisors play a key role in organizations and the provision of service, and that supervisors are in need of a training program in order to adequately perform their job.

The literature has revealed that a large majority of practitioners whose training is in direct service move into supervisory roles without any additional education, that the move from practitioner to supervisor is a career transition, and that the majority of new supervisors need additional education before they are able to adequately perform their new roles and responsibilities. The transition process for the new supervisor and the managerial aspects of social work supervisory positions have long been neglected. Little has been done to assist the new supervisor in the transition and to acquaint the new supervisor with the managerial aspects of the new job.

Since there was no educational program directly available for supervisors in the child welfare system, I proposed to develop, deliver, and evaluate an educational program for the supervisors at Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services (DOC&FS) that was based on their particular needs. Thus, this practicum was undertaken to provide a needs based approach to supervisory training in a native child welfare agency.

The overall goal of the educational intervention was to educate the DOC&FS supervisors, using adult learning principles, to gain the knowledge and skills required for a supervisory position.

The intervention included spending time with the supervisors to become familiar with their responsibilities, the people they provide service to, the reserves on which they work, and the manner in which they provide service.

There were four objectives for the educational intervention. The first objective was to assess the educational needs of the supervisory staff at DOC&FS by a structured group technique. The needs that were identified through the structured group technique formed the topics of the educational program. The second objective was to develop an educational program by researching the identified topics, establishing the objectives of the sessions and determining the method of instruction. The third objective was to implement the educational program with the supervisory staff. The educational program was delivered to a group of seven supervisors from the DOC&FS and conducted in a one week period. The fourth objective was to evaluate the educational program by feedback forms completed by the participants.

The writer proposed to achieve the following learning objectives through the practicum experience. The first objective was to compile a literature review on the topics of the transition process that occurs when a practitioner moves into a supervisory position, the concepts of adult learning, and the basic principles of program planning. The second objective was to acquire knowledge and gain skill in developing, presenting, and evaluating an educational program.

Chapter I of this report examines the problems that practitioners encounter in making the transition from practitioner to supervisor. The problems being: a) use of authority, b) relationship issues, c) accountability and evaluation, d) organizational dynamics. The writer demonstrates that the transition from direct service skills to the skills required for a supervisory role are by no means straightforward and that practitioners may not possess the needed knowledge and skills that are required for the job. New supervisors may not have sufficient education and experience to assume their new responsibilities. From this the writer concludes that a need exists for an educational program for supervisors.

Chapter II focuses on how to operationalize the information for an educational program so that the learning needs of the supervisors are met. Chapter III discusses the basic steps of program development for adult learners. Chapter IV describes the practicum setting and the manner by which the educational program for the supervisors was developed. Chapter V analyzes the six sessions that were held in the educational program. Chapter VI presents the results of the questionnaire "Evaluation of the Practicum" with additional comments on the practicum. Chapter VII contains the summary and conclusions.

CHAPTER I

TRANSITION FROM PRACTITIONER TO SUPERVISOR

Introduction

The intent of this chapter is twofold. Firstly, the writer will identify the problems that practitioners encounter in making the transition from practitioner to supervisor. Secondly, the writer will identify how direct service training and practice differ from, and sometimes conflict with, the practices of administration.

Making the Transition

A promotion to a supervisor involves a dramatic change for a practitioner. The literature reveals that many practitioners who move into supervisory roles experience some degree of role discontinuity, identity confusion, and personal stress (Patti, Diedreck, Olson & Crowell, 1979; Scurfield, 1981).

Levinson and Klerman (1967) hold that the transition from practitioner to supervisor is in some ways similar to developmental transitions such as adolescence, marriage or retirement, and just as with other transitions, it may involve a period of disruption, depression, defensiveness, hyperactivity and personal and professional growth. Levinson and Klerman (1967) also hold that changes in external aspects of one's career are likely to affect internal aspects of one's personality.

The motives which lead to the transition suggest different problems for different practitioners. Some practitioners have had aspirations of moving into a supervisory position and the move is

congruent with their intentions. Other practitioners move into supervisory positions due to lack of preferred alternatives.

Advancement up the career ladder for practitioners is limited. Career advancement in pay, prestige, power, growth, and challenge almost requires acceptance of the supervisory position. Scurfield's (1981) survey finding "...suggested that a substantial number of current administrators would choose to be clinicians if promotional and financial opportunities in clinical practice were equivalent to those in administration" (p. 498).

Patti et al (1979) and Scurfield (1981) in their research of practitioner motives for transition to managerial positions found "interest in administration" to be the principle motive of only a limited number of respondents.

The transition involves a temporary loss of role identity. As a practitioner one has developed a role identity that has been confirmed and is recognized by clients, collaterals and supervisors. The practitioner moving into a supervisory position must develop a new role identity as a supervisor. The new supervisor needs to demonstrate to the supervisees and administration his/her competence in the role of supervisor, and hence receive recognition and confirmation of his/her new role identity as a supervisor.

The new supervisor experiences anxiety about possessing the required knowledge and skills for the tasks required of the new position. All supervisors have experienced some anticipatory socialization to the position due to one's experience as a supervisee, however, there is acknowledgement that this is not adequate preparation.

Being a supervisee does not make one a supervisor just as being a student does not make one a teacher.

The new supervisor assumes the stress of greater responsibility. The supervisor has responsibility to the supervisees for administration, education and support. The supervisor assumes the responsibility for policy formation, and agency - community relations. The supervisor is responsible for the work of a number of practitioners who are assigned to his/her unit, not like a practitioner who is responsible only for his/her caseload.

Practitioners experience many stresses when moving into supervisory roles. Uncertainty as to what is expected, whether one has the knowledge to meet the challenge, loss of role identity, loss of self confidence due to not knowing the particulars of new situations and contexts, and the "shock" in experiencing the reality of a supervisor's responsibilities are some of the stresses that have been identified with the move.

Four Issues New Supervisors Need to Address in Their Transition

The literature reveals that a practitioner making a transition to supervisor will address the issues of: (a) use of authority, (b) relationship issues, (c) accountability and evaluation, (d) organizational dynamics.

(a) Use of Authority

There is general agreement that the use of authority is a major area of change for the new supervisor (Patti et al, 1979; Abramczyk, 1980; Scurfield, 1981). The difficulty is not the result of assuming

authority for the first time but related to a broadened perspective and change of emphasis in the use of authority.

Patti et al (1979) found in studying the transition process from direct service practitioner to administrator that "...the use of authority, particularly as it implied directing, supervising and changing subordinates, was the most difficult area of adjustment..." for the respondents (p. 146-147). Scurfield (1981) conducted a survey of social work administrators and states "It is clear that the exercise of authority in relationships with subordinates in contrast with the exercise of authority in relationships with clients is a major area of change reported by former clinicians in their transition to administrator" (p. 497). The move from practitioner to supervisor is a move from indirect leadership to more direct leadership, from permissiveness to assertive direction, and from covert use of power to more overt use of power (Kadushin, 1985).

In "voluntary client" agencies a practitioner's title or degree may confer a presumption of authority, however, legitimacy will only occur if the practitioner demonstrates expertise in helping clients with their problems. Authority for the practitioner is derived from knowledge and expertise of how to help clients resolve their problems. In settings such as child welfare and probation services, the practitioner's use of authority is not contingent upon the client's acknowledgement of his/her expertise. However, in direct service work, in any agency, practitioners may advise, suggest and influence but they can never direct a client to engage in certain actions. The ultimate decision and action rests with the client and the consequence of the action is borne

by the client. Practitioners adhere to the client's right to self-determination and hence the client's right to reject their suggestions.

Practitioners learn how to use formal and legal authority in the helping process for the benefit of the client. Their experience in using authority is in the context of client-practitioner relationships which take place in therapeutic settings.

The new supervisor no longer uses his/her authority in a practitioner-client relationship or in a therapeutic setting. His/her education and experience in the use of authority may no longer fit the new role of supervisor.

The principle of self-determination is not acceptable in the supervisee-supervisor relationship. "Unlike the service relationship, however, when a subordinate fails to accept the direction of the supervisor, the latter must be prepared to press for compliance even in the face of appearing to be arbitrary" (Patti, 1983, p. 217). Patti (1983) continues to state that any supervisor who shrinks from using the authority of the position when there is a disagreement with subordinates will ultimately lose the ability to coordinate activities toward the achievement of organizational objectives. New supervisors may feel uneasy about their newly acquired authority and the new context in which they have to exercise it, however, their position will not allow them to deny their authority (Abramczyk, 1980).

Middleman and Rhodes (1985) and Abramczyk (1980) state that when one takes on the role of supervisor one is granted formal authority. Formal authority is the right conferred by the organization to direct

and control the actions of others. This authority establishes the supervisor's right to initiate actions, make decisions, allocate resources, and set expectations for practitioners' performance. Formal authority is inherent in the supervisory role and is not dependent on personal qualities or how the role is played. Formal authority causes stress for a new supervisor. Authority related transition problems can be lessened by earning functional authority from one's supervisees.

Functional authority is granted or withheld by others in relation to how they perceive the quality and performance of the one carrying the role (Abramczyk, 1980). The amount of functional authority one receives aids or impedes the use of formal authority.

A new supervisor can earn functional authority by developing a framework for equity and consistency. Middleman and Rhodes (1985) state that supervisors who develop clear definitions of goals and objectives, set equitable expectations for quality and quantity of work, balance supervisees' backgrounds and needs with agency requirements, and balance use of praise with constructive critical feedback, will gain supervisees' respect in the use of authority.

Functional authority can also be earned by a supervisor using his/her judgement to differentiate between areas where there exists freedom of choice from areas of limited or no choice. For example, in areas where a supervisor has freedom of choice he or she can involve supervisees in exploring new approaches to tasks and procedures. There will be some areas where a supervisor has no choice with regards to implementation of a policy or directive. In this situation a supervisor needs to inform the supervisees of the reason for the decision and the

implications. The supervisees are not included in the decision making process but they do need to be aware of the process and reason for the decision. Such a procedure will lead to the supervisor gaining legitimacy from the supervisees (Middleman & Rhodes, 1985).

Earning one's authority and using it appropriately involves differentiating among three concepts: being an authority--having the knowledge, skills and experience, being in authority--having formal authority, and being authoritarian--using directive, controlling punitive approaches to supervisees and their work (Middleman & Rhodes, 1985). Being an authority requires sharing and applying one's knowledge, skills and experience to supervisees in a way that reinforces their dignity and ongoing professional development. Being in authority is an inherent part of the role of supervisor. The challenge is to balance the responsibilities of earning and maintaining functional authority with one's supervisees. Being authoritarian is what one should avoid.

A new supervisor may have difficulty adapting to being "in the middle," which is required to manage relations between those above and those below. All organizational actors function "in the middle." Practitioners experience contrast between needs of their clients, the structure of their supervisors and the requirement of agency policy. Executives experience conflicting pressure of programs and administrative staff on one hand and the board, funding sources and community groups on the other. However, the experience of being "in the middle" is the most acute for the new supervisor who stands between two cultures--the culture of bureaucracy and the culture of service

provision (Holloway, 1980).

Holloway (1980) states that organizational and personal sources of tension increase as one moves up the hierarchy. Practitioner and client interaction is largely invisible as agencies trade off practitioners' freedom in dealing with individual clients for their acquiescence in meeting policy requirements. However, the supervisor's interaction with a practitioner is visible and the work group culture contributes to the supervisor's success or failure. In addition, supervisors assume the stress of greater responsibility from that of practitioners. Kadushin (1985) identifies that a new supervisor has a responsibility to his/her supervisees for administration, education and support. The new supervisor is responsible for the supervisees' caseloads and their work. Also, the new supervisor assumes the responsibility for policy formation and community agency relations.

Holloway (1980) identifies three factors which complicate the tasks for the new supervisors. First, due to their newness of position, they must develop their new role identity while they cope with the discomfort of their assertion of authority. The second is the means of obtaining compliance that is associated with upper, as opposed to lower, hierarchical levels. Third, a supervisor may allow certain organizational rules to be circumvented in exchange for staff loyalty and responsiveness. Supervisors have to identify rules which are discretionary and the pressures which are resistible. While these trade offs are often necessary for effective organizational functioning, the potential for conflict with superordinates is obvious.

New supervisors need to accept and adjust to a new form of

authority that is inherent in the role of supervisor. They need to use their authority constructively, which is not possible if they are afraid of it or conversely, enjoy the feeling of power it brings. Supervisors may try to de-emphasize their authority on the job. Supervisors have authority to do a job within an agency. To deny the authority is to not fulfill the role and responsibility of the job. Supervisors who do not deal appropriately with authority will be a detriment to the clients, practitioners, and the organization as a whole.

The writer holds that since the use of authority for the practitioner and the supervisor is clearly different and since the education and experience that a practitioner has in the use of authority is not relevant for the new role of supervisor, new supervisors are in need of educational programs to assist them in adjusting to their newly assigned authority. Presently, supervisors are left to their own devices as to how to deal with the change of authority that occurs with the move from practitioner to supervisor. The writer holds that an educational program would assist supervisors in developing healthy attitudes toward authority and how to use their authority correctly.

(b) Relationship Issues

Relationship issues can be a source of stress for the supervisor. Kadushin (1976) identifies two relationship orientations in social service agencies. The expressive orientation involves openness, trust and empathy. The practitioner is educated in the area of expressive relationship orientation. The second, instrumental relationship orientation involves functional specific task-centred relationships and concern for producing and accountability. In making the transition from

practitioner to supervisor one will shift from an expressive to a more instrumental relationship orientation (Kadushin, 1985; Middleman & Rhodes, 1985; Holloway, 1980).

A practitioner usually develops a relationship with other colleagues in which he or she has the opportunity to express frustrations, receive support and exchange ideas. The move into a supervisory position often brings changes to these relationships. When one becomes a supervisor one no longer shares a common experience with practitioners, expectations are different, contact is of a lesser extent and the organizational perspective is disparate. Patti (1983) states that "Where such relationships had previously served the mutual personal and professional needs of colleagues, they now become purposefully directed at facilitating subordinates' development and maximizing their contribution to organizational goals" (p. 219). The supervisor works toward obtaining a good understanding of his/her supervisee's strengths and weaknesses to utilize and facilitate the practitioner's development and maximize his/her contribution to organized goals. The supervisor and the practitioner know that the supervisor uses information gained in their relationship for evaluation purposes and therefore some restraint is necessary. The supervisor must maintain a degree of equity in relationships with all practitioners. These constraints on the supervisor-practitioner relationship produce a degree of guardedness and restraint. This can be in sharp contrast to the intimacy and openness that occurs in therapeutic situations and practitioner-peer relationships.

Becoming a supervisor in an agency where one was a practitioner can

cause problems. Social distance is increased between practitioner turned supervisor and his/her former peers. There is less spontaneity in their interaction, greater guardedness and hesitancy in communication, and more formality. Intra group gossip between peers is now seen as "squealing" when shared with a former peer turned supervisor. Former peers wonder if the supervisor will show favoritism to friends and/or pay off grudges against enemies. One's predecessor can be a source of tension, as a new supervisor wonders if he/she can be as good as the former supervisor. Practitioners may resist changes, especially if the previous supervisor was well liked and respected. One may be penalized by feelings of rivalry and jealousy from other practitioners.

Having lost one's old peer group, the new supervisor has to obtain acceptance in a new peer group--that of other supervisors. Kadushin (1985) states that "...some social distance from both groups to which the supervisor is hierarchically related, the supervisees who are his subordinates and the administrators who are his supervisors, is functionally useful" (p. 304). Blau and Scott (1962) state that data from a variety of organizations, including social service agencies, show "...detachment from subordinates was found to be associated with higher productivity, and independence from supervisors, with greater solidarity in the work group. And (that) both kinds of social distance, although the two were hardly related to one another, were associated with commanding the loyalty of subordinates" (p. 238).

Different norms exist with regards to relationships with peers at higher levels (Patti & Austin, 1977). Supervisors are responsible for

maximizing the performance and resources of their own unit. It is often dysfunctional for supervisors to share their ideas openly with supervisors of other teams, as all supervisors are often in competition for limited resources, program turf, and personnel. In addition, supervisors' creditability with their own staff often depends on how well they protect and advance their interests, thus the drawbacks in establishing a supportive and collaborative relationship between other supervisory peers becomes apparent. It is not surprising that administrative staff meetings do not always augment human relations.

This is not to say that mutual assistance and support is not exchanged between supervisors, but that the realities and norms of administration is different from direct service practice. Levinson and Klerman (1972) state that the one important difference is the need for supervisors to gain and exercise power in order to be effective in their roles. Power is usually won at the expense of others, particularly those seeking claim to the same pool of resources. Due to power gain and loss, supervisors may engage in strategic action in relationships with their colleagues which makes it difficult to obtain the same level of trust and intimacy as practitioners (Patti, 1983).

As one moves from practitioner to supervisor one often experiences a deterioration in the quality of human relationships at work and loss of peer support and isolation. An alternative support system may be other professionals in other agencies or membership in a professional organization like the Manitoba Association of Social Workers.

To summarize, a practitioner making the transition to supervisor will shift from an expressive relationship orientation to a more

instrumental relationship orientation. Practitioners are educated in the expressive relationship orientation which involves openness, trust and empathy. Practitioners usually develop expressive relationships with colleagues and through these relationships are able to verbalize frustration, gain support, and exchange ideas.

For supervisors to fulfill their job responsibilities they need to adopt an instrumental relationship orientation which involves functionally specific task-centered relationships with concern for producing and accountability. Supervisors usually are not involved in supportive relationships with either practitioners or other supervisors. With practitioners they no longer share the common job experience. With other supervisors they are usually competing for the same limited amount of resources and power which does not lend itself to developing supportive relationships. Supervisors usually have to look outside their place of employment to develop a support system.

As supervisors are not educated or experienced in the instrumental relationship orientation they may have difficulty in making the transition. Some supervisors may opt to develop an expressive and instrumental relationship with practitioners that they supervise as a means of meeting their own needs and/or to down play the differences in authority. This usually causes serious problems for both the practitioners and supervisors. Practitioners may share information with supervisors under the premise that they are friends only to find that personal information is used inappropriately and to their disadvantage. Supervisors who are attempting to juggle a personal and professional relationship with practitioners may find it difficult to fulfill their

job responsibilities due to conflicts.

It is this writer's opinion that supervisors need education on the differences between an expressive and instrumental relationship and what the consequences are if the transition is not made.

(c) Accountability and Evaluation

Accountability and evaluation demands are familiar terms to social service staff. The new supervisor needs to shift from a process orientation to a product orientation of accountability and evaluation. Middleman and Rhodes (1985) describe the orientation as follows. The process orientation emphasizes the subtleties of practice and focuses on the means to achieve program goals in meeting clients' needs (e.g. clients' awareness of need for intervention). Practitioners approach accountability and evaluation in terms of process and process outcomes (e.g. the client reports feeling better and the client is satisfied with the service). Matters of importance for a practitioner are "individual clients." A product orientation focuses on indicators of the success probability of a program for the agency's total client group (e.g. client employment following a job training program). Matters of importance in product orientation are "all clients." Product outcomes are important in satisfying client, agency and public demands for accountability. These outcomes are expected in tangible changes in the client but in fact may be difficult to measure.

Supervisors need to support the process concerns of their practitioners. In addition, supervisors' responsibilities of accountability and evaluation require them to emphasize measurable outcomes to their practitioners in order that they can be used as

evidence that the agency has achieved its program goals.

The quality/quantity demand is likely to produce conflict between a supervisor and one's supervisees. Practitioners may resist the pressure of time, quantity demand and limited agency resources and attempt to provide service for the maximum benefit of one or a few clients. A supervisor's task is to assure that quantitative services are provided in a qualitative manner. Middleman and Rhodes (1985) state that it is imperative that a supervisor recognize that each program area is competing for resources that are insufficient to meet the needs of all practitioner-client situations, hence one needs to look for alternatives available within the realities of limited resources.

A supervisor's efforts to direct one's supervisees to the concept of accountability and evaluation of the agency, its goals and resource allocations, may lead one's supervisees to confront one with the statement "You sold out to administration." Practitioners expect the supervisor to see issues from their perspective as the supervisor was once one of them before being promoted. As a supervisor one will need to assist practitioners to recognize that quality and quantity are necessary social service realities.

The change in position and the responsibilities that go along with being a supervisor do change one's perception of agency roles, policies and procedure. Supervisors experience more access to information, have more variables to consider and hence their view becomes more broadly based. This change is reinforced as a consequence of experiencing, as a supervisor, the political effects of agency policy.

In summary, new supervisors need to make the transition from a

process orientation to a product orientation of accountability and evaluation. In the social work profession process orientation is seen as being a valuable and significant step toward outcome. However, funding sources do not view the process orientation as conclusive or valid and instead require product orientation of accountability and evaluation of programs. Practitioners are usually not knowledgeable or skilled in the area of product orientation, hence when they are promoted to supervisory positions they usually experience difficulty in meeting the requirements made by funding sources for documentation of the development, control, and evaluation of programs. The results have been detrimental to the social work profession which has acquired a reputation of having poor supervisors. Social work supervisory jobs have been filled by other professionals who possess the needed skills. Organizations have lost their funding for programs as supervisors did not have the skills to develop, control, and evaluate programs.

The writer maintains that educational programs need to be developed and delivered to new supervisors in order that they can obtain the necessary knowledge and skills of a product orientation in order to increase accountability and to conduct evaluations of staff and programs.

(d) Organizational Dynamics

Direct service training for practitioners focuses on understanding why individuals think, feel and behave as they do, the factors that give rise to individual dysfunctions, and how the manifestations can be corrected by the practitioner with the client. The objective of the practitioner's concern is usually the individual client or family.

The practitioner graduates from a school of social work and

practices in an agency that reinforces work focussing on intervention with clients. The practitioner usually works with "cases" which require individualistic responses. The practitioner who seeks to gain a broader understanding of organizational process or attempts to change them is not likely to get reinforced or rewarded for his/her efforts. The organization expects and rewards the practitioner for providing service to clients.

The practitioner who makes the transition to supervisor usually brings with him/her a good understanding of individual dynamics, ability in applying diagnostic skills, and sound interpersonal skills. These skills can be used in the supervisory role, as long as the supervisor does not relate to practitioners as clients. However, the supervisor must also realize that analytic and intervention skills are not a sufficient base for administration.

Levinson and Klerman (1972) hold that knowledge of individual dynamics is important but the new supervisor needs an understanding of the organization as a functioning system. This involves an understanding of the inter-dependency of process and events occurring in the agency, the relationship that occurs between the organization and the task environment, the effects of organizational structure and climate on communication, worker satisfaction and performance, and the dynamics underlying various problems like goal displacement and inter-group conflict (Patti, 1983).

Supervisors who do not acquire the analytic skills needed to understand organizations as systems, will fail to see responsibilities and tasks that they need to address.

Summary

The writer has identified the problems encountered by practitioners who are trained and experienced in direct service practice and move into supervisory roles. The four problem areas are: (a) use of authority, (b) relationship issues, (c) accountability and evaluation, and (d) organizational dynamics. Throughout the chapter the writer has demonstrated that the transition from direct service skills to the skills required for a supervisory role are by no means straightforward and that practitioners may not possess the needed knowledge and skills that are required to do the job.

Despite the above information, there exists an assumption in the social work profession that education and experience in direct service is an adequate foundation for a career transition to supervisor. There has been a failure in the social work profession to recognize that practitioners need to acquire additional knowledge and skills before they can adequately perform in their new job of supervisor. This need has been documented in the literature.

Olmstead and Christensen (1973) state that "...there appears to be a pressing need for supervisory training. The function of supervision is too critical to leave to trial and error learning" (p. 6). Kadushin, (1985) holds that many supervisors have limited preparation for assuming the position of supervisor and little educational opportunities available following promotion to the position of supervisor. Shulman's (1982) study of beginning supervisors revealed that they did not feel ready to assume responsibility for the tasks and problems of their position.

It is with the knowledge that new supervisors may not have sufficient education and experience to assume their new responsibilities that the writer concluded that a need existed for an educational program for supervisors. There is usually no educational program available to new supervisors to gain this knowledge and skill.

CHAPTER II

ADULT EDUCATION

Introduction

This chapter will focus on how to operationalize the information in the educational program so that the learning needs of the supervisors will be met.

Firstly, the major characteristics of andragogy will be stated. Secondly, the writer will identify the changes that take place in learning and teaching as one moves from pedagogy and andragogy. Thirdly, the most important characteristics of adult learning that are pertinent in a teaching-learning environment will be discussed. Following this discussion adult learning styles will be addressed. Finally, the role of the adult educator will be identified.

Technical knowledge in a subject does not necessarily mean that one can be an effective adult educator. The quality of learning will be limited if knowledge and skills are presented in a manner that is not appropriate for adult learners.

Characteristics of Andragogy

Knowles, a prominent author in adult learning literature, identifies the following characteristics of andragogy.

- Andragogy is the art and science of "helping adults to learn" (Knowles, 1970).

- Andragogy is defined as the lifelong process of discovering what is not known; pedagogy is defined as a process of transmitting what is known (Knowles, 1972).

- Central to the learning process for adults is their experience. Experience being the interaction between them and their environment (Knowles, 1972).

- Self-directed inquiries by adults will produce the greatest learning (Knowles, 1970).

- The adult educator facilitates learning in a supportive educative environment, from which the learners can extract learning and then guides the learners' interaction with it to maximize their learning (Knowles, 1970).

The learning and teaching for children and adults is different. Knowles (1970) identifies that the concepts of andragogy have been applied to the education of youth and in certain circumstances the results have been superior learning. Adult educators should be aware of and understand the differences between child and adult learners and between pedagogy and andragogy in order that they can utilize the information to maximize the learning of adults.

Assumptions of Pedagogy and Andragogy

The methods and processes of pedagogy are different than those of andragogy. Knowles (1970) and Ament (1986) identify the following changes that take place in learning and teaching as one moves from pedagogy and andragogy.

1. From Passivity to Activity. The child is generally a passive recipient of knowledge and skills in the learning process. Since the child lacks life experience, the teacher and the school system decide what and how the child should learn. Hence, the child is not involved in the decision making process nor does he/she assume responsibility for

his/her learning. The child passively absorbs what the system chooses to teach and in the manner the system decides to teach it. On the other hand, the adult has a vast amount of life experience, has an established learning process, and generally seeks learning to satisfy a need that he/she has determined for himself/herself.

2. From Dependence to Independence. Children are dependent on family and/or society. As learners, they depend on the educational system to tell them what to do, how to do it, when to do it, and why it needs to be done. The adult is usually less dependent on others or society. Adults seek learning opportunities that meet their needs and generally accept more responsibility for their own learning.

3. Limited Experience to Increased Experience. Children have limited life experience, hence they bring less to the learning situation that can be used as a basis for learning. Adults, however, have acquired a growing reservoir of experience that becomes a rich source for learning and also provides a broadened base to relate new learning to.

4. Short Term to Long Term Perspective. Children acquire knowledge and skills which will be used in the future. Adults generally seek knowledge and skills in response to needs. Knowles (1970) states that adults are more receptive to learning during or after a critical period in their lives--the threat of losing a job due to lack of skills.

5. From a Subordinate to a Superordinate Position. Generally, in the pedagogical classroom, learning is very structured. The teacher is usually in charge and expects the children to take directions and be passive. On the other hand, adults generally benefit most when they are

in control of their own learning. The adult educator should place adult learners in the superordinate position as it allows the adults to accurately point out their learning needs and have the needs met by not only the educator but through the class.

In summary, children are generally passive recipients of knowledge and skills in the learning process, children acquire knowledge and skills that will be used in the future, and due to their limited life experience they bring less to the learning situation. Adults have acquired a large amount of experience, seek knowledge and skills to satisfy their own needs, and generally accept more responsibility for their own learning. Adults usually benefit most when they are in control of their learning situation. It appears essential that the adult educator becomes aware of the adult learners' expectations and facilitates growth to that end; recognizes and utilizes the experience of the adults learners; and involves the adult learners in the total learning experience.

The writer adhered to the above findings in the development and delivery of the educational program for the supervisors. The writer assessed what the supervisors' learning needs were and developed the educational program to meet those needs. The writer recognized and utilized the supervisors' experience, involved them in the development of the educational program, and encouraged them to be active participants in the sessions.

Characteristics of the Adult Learner

There are certain characteristics of adult learners that an adult educator should know in order to develop a positive teaching-learning environment. Knowledge of these characteristics will assist an adult educator on how to present the information and develop an atmosphere that is conducive to adult learning.

Brundage and Makeracher (1980) review some of the more important characteristics of adult learners from the adult education literature. They identify the following:

(a) Physiological Characteristics

Adults mature by their early 20's and will not experience any major physical changes until their late 40's. From 40 years on they will experience a decline in their vision and hearing and the response of the central nervous system (Kidd, 1973).

There are no reasons why adults cannot learn indefinitely. Adults learn best when they are in good health, are not under stress, are well rested, their hearing and vision are in the best possible condition, and when they are not inhibited by severe time restraints.

(b) Self-Concept

Self-concept is the individuals' cognitive description of themselves. Self-esteem is the way individuals feel about themselves. The self-concept and the level of self-esteem have a strong effect on learning.

Brundage and Makeracher (1980) state that adults with a positive self-concept and high self-esteem are responsive to learning and less threatened by learning environments. Adults with negative self-concept

and low self-esteem are less likely to enter learning activities willingly and are often threatened by such environments (p. 26).

(c) Emotions, Stress, Anxiety

Our emotions, be they positive or negative, are the way we feel about a certain situation. Stress is the response of the body to a given situation. Anxiety is an augmentative fear in response to a real or perceived threat.

The arousal response can motivate an individual to be a productive learner as well as to be defensive. Hence, stress and anxiety show up in both learning and resistance to learning. An optimum level of stress and anxiety presumably results in productive learning. Too much stimulation can take on the form of threat or concrete fear and the individual's motivation to learn will be diverted to defensiveness and resistance. Therefore, adults need a learning environment which is non-threatening, encouraging, and supportive (Knowles, 1970; Kidd, 1973).

(d) Past Experience

Past experience usually always enters into adult learning. Adult learning focuses on modifying, transforming and reintegrating meaning, strategies and skills rather than on forming and accumulating them as in childhood. The learning process for individuals in transforming requires more time and energy than formations (Freire, 1973; Hart, 1975).

Past experience can be productively employed in current learning when non-sequential, non-logical cognitive processes such as analogies and metaphors are used to connect the past with the present experience

(Orstein, 1972).

(e) Time

Generally, adults seek learning to satisfy an immediate need and they wish to learn quickly. Adults, however, do not learn productively when inhibited by severe time restraints.

(f) Motivation

As people mature the motivation to learn becomes increasingly more internalized. Motives are felt needs. They relate to unwanted conditions, unmet needs or the pursuit of positive growth toward desired goals. As learners proceed to meeting their unmet needs, unwanted conditions or desired goals, their motives for learning change in relation to their feelings and experience of satisfaction/dissatisfaction and success/failure.

The writer, as an adult educator, used the above information when developing and delivering the educational program. The writer arranged for ample time to deliver the educational program so that the supervisors would not feel inhibited by time restraints. Further, the writer worked toward developing a supportive and stress free environment in the sessions and facilitated interaction between the supervisors and herself. The material that was presented to the supervisors was relevant to them and based on their experience as supervisors.

Learning Styles of Adults

Knowles (1970) and Brundage and Mackeracher (1980) acknowledge two important facts about the adult learner that relates to teaching-learning styles. Adult learners have an established pattern of learning which they bring to the learning situation. The adult

educator's style may enhance the learning for adults if their styles are compatible or may inhibit learning if their styles are incompatible.

There are several instruments to assess learning styles. The most well known and widely used is that of Kolb and Fry (1975).

Kolb and Fry (1975) hold that learners perceive information in a learning cycle that moves along two axes. The first dimension moves along the vertical axis and relates to the conceptual process which ranges from concrete to abstract. This is considered the major dimension along which learning occurs. The second dimension varies along the horizontal axis and relates to cognitive manipulations varying from active to reflective (see Figure 1).

These two dimensions form a grid with four quadrants and each form a learning style. An individual's primary learning style can be determined through a self-administered self-scored questionnaire.

Kolb's (1976) four learning styles are:

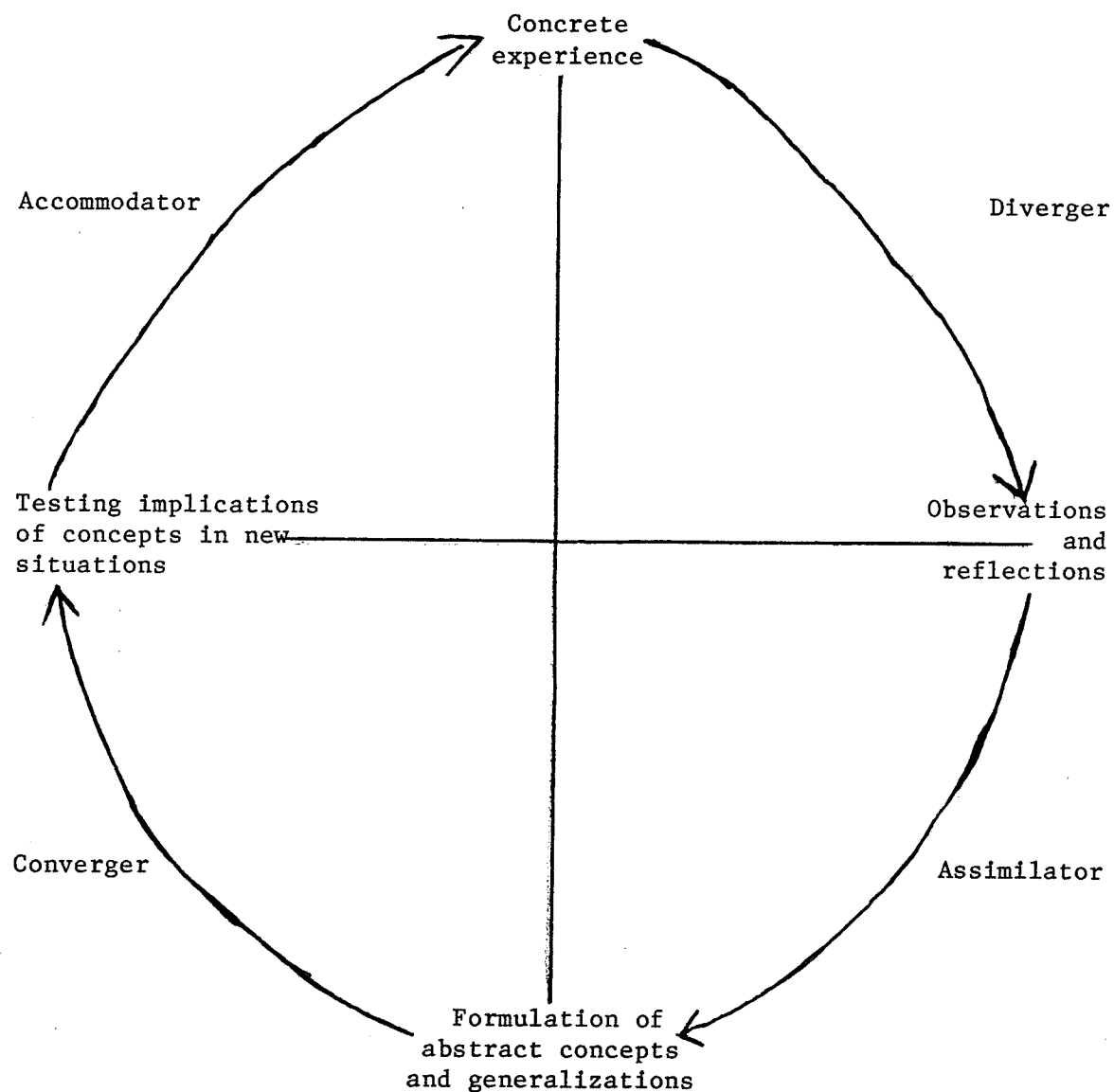
1. Accommodator

...a risk taker...tends to excel in those situations in which one must adapt oneself to immediate circumstances...tends to solve problems on an intuitive trial and error manner...sometimes seen as impatient or pushy...often found in action orientated jobs such as marketing and sales.

2. Assimilator

...this person's greatest strength is the ability to create theoretical models; the person excels in inductive reasoning...is less interested in people than abstract concepts...not much concerned with the practical use of theories...is more characteristic of the basic sciences and mathematics and is often found in research and planning departments.

Figure 1: Kolb and Fry's Learning Model



(Brundage & MacKeracher, 1980, p. 48)

3. Diverger

...excels in viewing concrete situations from many perspectives...is interested in people and tends to be emotional as well as imaginative...characteristic of individuals in humanities and liberal arts...counselors.

4. Converger

...does best in conventional intelligence tests, in which there is one correct answer...knowledge is organized in such a way that the person can focus on specific problems...relatively unemotional...narrow interests...this learning style is characteristic of many engineers (Kolb, 1976, p. 6).

Each learning style has a methodology and approach which reflect the differences in learning. This is important information from a teaching perspective.

The accommodator is likely to appreciate an active approach which may include case studies, role plays, brainstorming, etc.

The assimilator enjoys being creative, therefore, would likely appreciate games, problem solving approaches and solving formulas.

The diverger would likely appreciate group discussions, brainstorming and role plays.

The converger would likely respond best to concrete information delivered through lectures or assigned readings.

The primary learning style of the writer is that of diverger. As an adult educator, the writer is aware that the supervisors participating in the educational program will have varied learning styles so that it is imperative to use a variety of learning methods to meet the learning needs of all the participants.

The Role of the Adult Educator in Supervisory Education

The role of the adult educator is largely defined by the characteristics of the adult learner. Houle (1980), Tough (1971) and Knowles (1972) have made valuable contributions to understanding the role of the adult educator. Ament (1986) extended the findings of the above authors and describes the role of the adult educator as follows:

- The adult educator is a facilitator who responds to the adults and helps them to move in a self-directed process of education.
- The adult educator brings out the experience of the learners and reinforces concepts with the wealth of experience the learners bring with them.
- The adult educator tailors the data to the learners that he/she is engaged with and recognizes the learners' individuality.
- The adult educator develops skills and competency.
- The adult educator directs activities within the class but allows the learners to control their own learning.
- The adult educator enhances the motivation of the learners through enthusiasm and involvement.
- The adult educator integrates the adults' roles into the curriculum.
- The adult educator uses active methods to draw information from the learners.
- The adult educator moves the adult upwards in cognitive, psycho-motor and effective abilities.
- The adult educator recognizes that physical comfort reduces stress and hence creates a comfortable setting for the learner.

- The adult educator stimulates and encourages interaction between the learners.
- The adult educator is receptive and reactive to the needs of the learners.

Summary

Andragogy has been described as the art and science of "helping adults to learn" (Knowles, 1980). Adults learn and need to be taught differently than children and in ways which reflect these differences. Adult educators who are knowledgeable about these characteristics, and who utilize this knowledge, will be able to develop a positive teaching and learning environment which is conducive to adult learning.

Kolb and Fry (1975) identify four learning styles which are accommodator, assimilator, diverger and converger. While individuals will use more than one style they will each have a preferred style. Each learning style has a method and approach which facilitates learning from that style. It is important for an adult educator to attempt to use a range of learning methods in order to meet the learning needs of all adult learners.

The role of the adult educator is critical in any educational program. If the adult educator is not aware of how to facilitate the learning process the learning that takes place may be limited.

The writer, as an adult educator, made use of the principles of andragogy. The writer realized that to be successful in educating the supervisors she needed to follow the basic principles of adult education.

CHAPTER III

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

In the remaining literature review the writer will discuss the basic steps of program development for adult learners. The basic steps of program development will serve as the framework for the development of the educational program for the supervisors.

Boyle (1981) states that program development is "...essentially the art of designing and implementing a course of action to achieve an effective educational program" (p. 42). While there are some variations it appears from the literature that the course of action for program development is relatively consistent across most approaches.

The basic program planning steps most often used are assessing the need, establishing objectives, specifying the methods of instruction, and evaluating the program. These four program planning steps will be discussed to provide the reader with a theoretical understanding of how each step is significant in the development of an effective educational program. This chapter provides a theoretical foundation for the following chapter.

Assessing Needs

The view that needs assessment is critical in planning educational programs for adults has many reputable supporters. The total list of proponents of needs assessment is too lengthy to reproduce, however, examples include Lindeman, Bryson, Bergeven, Howle and Knowles (Long, 1983).

Knowles (1970) holds that there are two kinds of needs that have meaning for adult educators in program development: 1) basic needs and 2) educational needs.

Knowles (1970) identifies six basic needs and discusses some practical implications of meeting the basic human needs which he determined through his practice as an adult educator. These basic needs have relevance to education as they provide motivation for learning and prescribe certain conditions that adult educators need to take into account if they are to help people learn.

1. Physical Needs. The adult educator should provide for the physical comfort of the participants in the learning situation. This includes ensuring that the participants can see, hear, have comfortable seating arrangements, and have frequent breaks.

2. Growth Needs. The adult educator should attempt to provide the participants with a learning opportunity that will give them a sense of growth.

3. The Need for Security. The adult educator should create an environment in which the participants can feel secure in learning.

4. The Need for New Experience. The adult educator should expose the participants to new ideas, new ways of doing things, in a varied and creative manner.

5. The Need for Affection. The adult educator should develop a warm, supportive relationship with the participants and facilitate the same among participants in an atmosphere of friendliness.

6. The Need for Recognition. The adult educator should recognize that all people need recognition and create opportunities for the

participants to receive it.

The writer worked toward meeting the basic human needs of the supervisors. The training program was held in a large suite at a local inn in Brandon. The sessions were held in the living room which had comfortable seating and a relaxed atmosphere. Throughout the development of the training program the writer worked toward developing a supportive relationship with the supervisors. Exercises were scheduled into the training program to encourage interaction amongst the supervisors and the writer. The supervisors' experience and knowledge was recognized and utilized in the training program. The writer worked toward providing the supervisors with new knowledge and skills required for a supervisory position in a varied and creative way.

Knowles (1970) states that an educational need is:

...something people ought to learn for their own good, for the good of an organization, or for the good of society. It is the gap between their present level of competencies and a higher level required for effective performance as defined by themselves, their organization or society (p. 88).

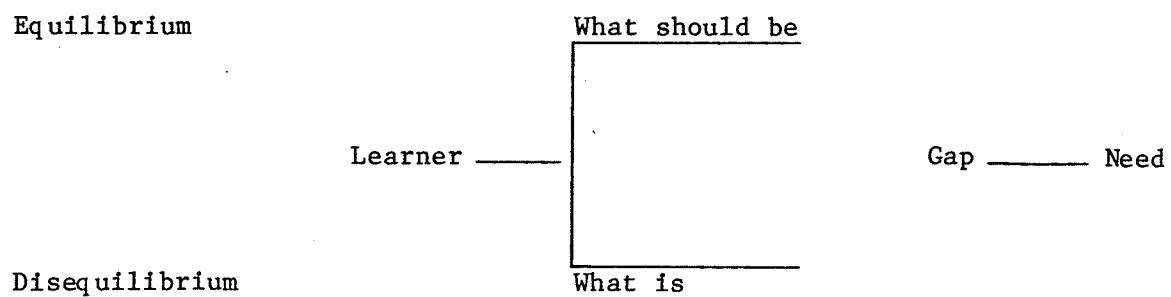
Knowles (1970) holds that the starting point in any program planning is the learner's needs.

A framework for needs assessment is shown in Figure 2.

(a) Identifying Needs

Needs are identified through society, an organization, potential learners, and the programmers with whom they interact. Societal perception of need can be identified through professional literature such as journals and research studies. Organizational perception of need can be determined through surveys, economic measures, skill

Figure 2: A Framework for Needs Analysis.



(Boyle, 1981, p. 156)

inventories, performance appraisal data, manpower forecasts, and group assessment techniques.

The needs of the potential learner can be determined through questionnaires, individual interviews and assessments, critical incidents, surveys, group assessment, and discussion techniques.

Adult educators also have needs and purposes of their own.

The technique used (or combination of techniques used) usually is based on the availability of the potential participants, the resources available to the programmer, the program being developed, the nature of the organization, and organizational politics.

The supervisors' educational needs were determined by a sample of the agency's personnel within a group structure. The reason for the sample was that each person in the agency has a working relationship or contact with the supervisors and would be able to provide valuable information.

(b) Values and Needs

A discussion on needs is inadequate without a discussion on values. Freire (1972) holds that education cannot be neutral. The fact that a person chooses one topic from many others is biased. Freire continues to say it is impossible to achieve objective programs as the educator cannot be objective (as cited in Boyle, 1981, p. 147).

It thus appears that programmers must become aware of their own values, discuss them with the potential participants of the program, and do all to maximize the input of the potential participants.

Freire (1972) holds that the role of dialogue between an educator and learner is critical while needs are being assessed, as value free

assessments are impossible.

(c) Translating Needs into Program Development

Developing program objectives starts with the pool of needs that were identified through a needs assessment. The process of translating the needs into objectives according to Knowles (1970) consists of the following steps:

1. Operationalize the Needs into Priority. Through a needs assessment technique or techniques a programmer usually has identified an extensive number of needs. These identified needs have to be grouped into categories and prioritized. Programmers usually end up with far more needs than a program can meet. This leads to the next step.

2. Screen the Needs Through Appropriate Filters. In order for a need to end up being translated into a program objective it will usually pass through the following filters.

- (a) Organizational Purposes - Needs that do not fit with the organization's purposes will be screened out. Also needs that are being met in other programs will be screened out.

- (b) Feasibility - Some needs will be screened out because it is not feasible for an organization to try and meet the need at the present time, i.e. financial restraint.

- (c) The Interest of the Potential Participants - An identified need may not be of interest to the potential participants. A programmer may decide to incorporate a need in a program even though the potential participants are not interested by attaching the need to an existing interest.

3. Translating the Surviving Needs into Program Objectives. The needs that have survived the screening through the filters will provide raw material from which program objectives can be developed.

See Figure 3 for a diagram of the process of translating needs into objectives.

Purpose of Objectives

Boyle (1981) states that objectives should develop so that they provide direction, are useful in selecting learning experiences, provide the basis for evaluations and provide for decisions and predictions.

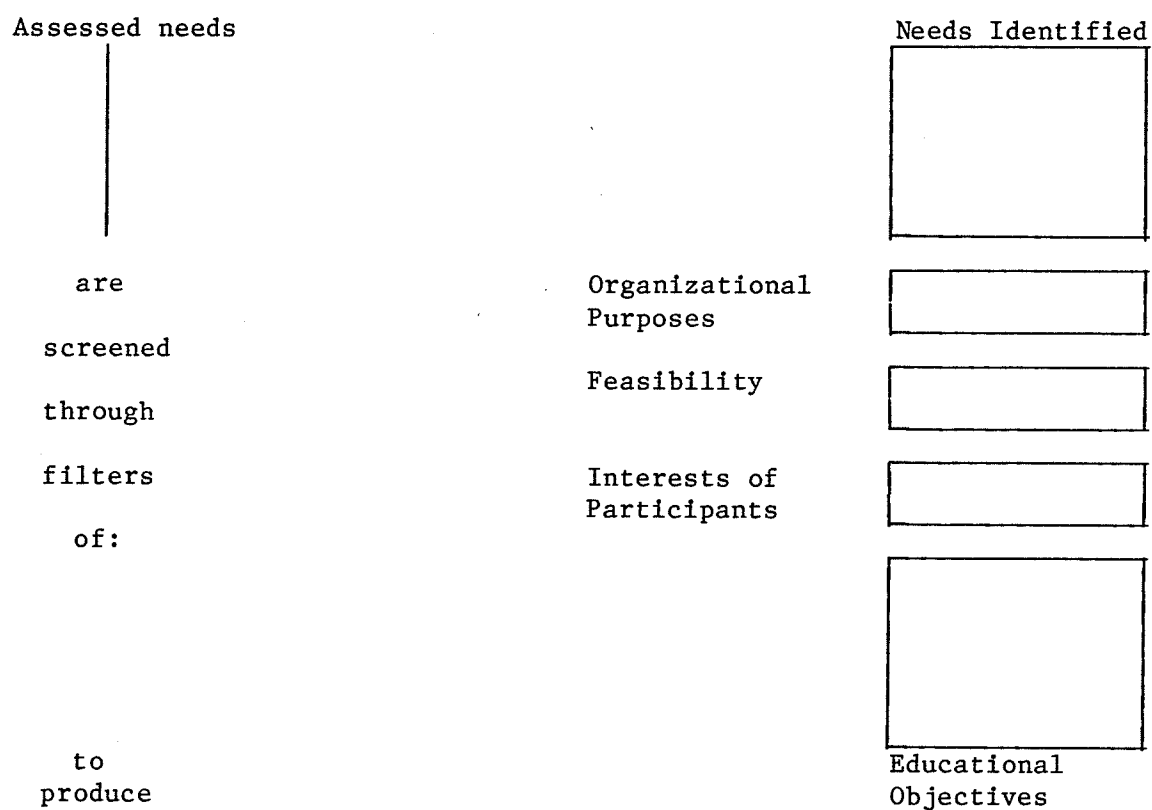
1. Provide Direction. It is easier to teach when one is clear on the objectives. The end result or the direction should be planned in advance. An educational objective states what the potential participants want to achieve through the program.

2. Provide a Basis for Selection of Learning Experiences. If a programmer is not sure of the objectives of the program, then developing the learning opportunities and experience to reach the unclear objectives is very difficult. Objectives which are clearly defined and understood by all who partake in the program are assumed to facilitate learning.

3. Provide a Basis for Evaluation. Objectives are commonly used as the basis for determining the results and impact of a program. The approach to assessing program results can be changes among participants or change in physical, economic, political or social situations.

4. Provide for Decisions and Predictions. Objectives express decisions that the programmer has made. A programmer has to decide on who will participate, how many will participate, and the desired results

Figure 3: The Process of Translating Need into Objectives.



(Adapted in part from Knowles, 1970, p. 125)

of the program.

In summary, objectives follow from assessed needs and may be defined as goals for learning or principles leading to a desired result. The objectives should be a clear and concise description of what is expected of the learner.

The writer determined the objectives of the educational program. The needs that were identified through the needs assessment served as the topics for the educational program. The writer researched these topics and developed the tentative content to be covered. The writer met with management and the supervisors of the DOC&FS to discuss the tentative content proposal. Once the content was agreed upon the objectives for each session were determined.

Selecting Methods of Instruction

Simpson's (1983) model of selecting methods of instruction was used in the development of the educational program as the writer found it to be one of the most concise and descriptive models on how to select methods of instruction. Simpson's model includes three aspects. First, it is necessary to combine the determinations regarding the isolation of learning components, second the complexity of the subject matter, and third the anticipated resistance to the subject matter. Simpson holds that educators who follow this model should not have their personal biases affect the designing of the educational program.

The three aspects of the Simpson (1983) model are as follows:

(a) Isolate Learning Components of Subject Matter

To begin with, the educator should re-examine the program objectives in terms of knowledge, skills and/or attitudes to be gained. One acknowledges that all learning involves all three components, however, isolating the three components allows for the educator to consider specific methods that are the most appropriate for the subject matter.

Knowledge components are most effectively addressed through methods that allow self-paced learning. Methods include assigned reading, written or computer assisted program construction, and analytical work such as case studies.

Skill components suggest a strategy of interaction with the material, machine or people involved. Learning skills means learning by doing. Practicing skills need to be in a relatively safe place in order that learners can become confident enough to risk using new skills in the real world.

Attitudinal components deal with the affective domain and suggest an experiential approach which results in specific behavior and provides positive reinforcement of a particular attitude. Educational programs seldom affect a learner's attitude quickly, because attitudes form over time.

(b) Determining the Complexity of the Subject Matter

As the complexity of the subject matter increases, the learner's interaction with that subject must also increase. Too little

interaction with complex material results in failure to learn, and too much interaction with easy material becomes boring and insulting to a learner.

Educators must assess the readiness of the learner for the subject matter. For example, if readiness is overestimated, the educator needs to spend more time on the topic.

(c) Estimating Learner Resistance to Subject Matter

The educator anticipates the learner's resistance to the subject matter. The ability to estimate resistance depends on one's knowledge of the topic, the organization involved, the learners as a group, and the events that led to the training. The higher the level of anticipated reaction, the greater the need for planned interaction between the learners and the learners-educator.

Figure 4 presents methods that are appropriate under specific circumstances.

Figure 4: Simpson's Model of Selecting Methods of Instruction.

	<u>Models which emphasize knowledge</u>	<u>Models which emphasize skill</u>
Low resistance Low complexity	Reading Lecture Film/slide/tape	Film Practice
Low resistance High complexity	Programmed instruction Case study Experimental/lecture	Group role play Modeling
High resistance Low complexity	Group discussion	On the Job Training Modeling
High resistance High complexity	Interactive case study Simulations	Role play Simulations

(Simpson, 1983, p. 228)

(d) Determining the Sequence of Training Events

1. Prerequisite Learning - Some type of knowledge and skills are dependent on other types as a prerequisite. An example being that basic communication skills are prerequisite to counselling. An educator must keep prerequisites in mind when establishing activities for an educational program.

2. Affective Set - It is best if an educator focuses some time and energy at the beginning of an educational program to build learner rapport and confidence.

3. Participation - Learners participate more over time as they become more comfortable with the educator, the other learners, and the learning environment. Participative elements of the educational program should therefore be scheduled for later in the program.

4. Complexity/Risk - A learner's willingness to express opinions, feelings and tackle complex material increases with time spent in the learning environment. An educator should progress from the familiar to the unfamiliar.

5. Theory/Practice - An emphasis on knowledge components means that the educator should present theory before practice. An emphasis on skill or attitude components means that an educator may present theory and rationale before practice.

In summary, the selection of methods of instruction involves three aspects. The educator categorizes the learning components of the subject matter into knowledge, skill and/or attitudes so that they can be addressed appropriately. Next, the complexity of the subject is determined so that the educator can select appropriate methods. Then

the degree of learner readiness is assessed, resistance to the subject matter and the prerequisite knowledge and abilities are addressed and incorporated into the educational design. After the methods have been selected, the sequence of events in the training program is determined.

Both methods of instruction were used in the training program for the supervisors, however, the method of knowledge building was used to a greater extent.

Evaluating the Program

The literature on program evaluation is extensive, hence the writer will focus her attention on evaluation methods most generally used in training programs and workshops for adult learners.

Adult educators conduct an evaluation to determine the success or failure of their program and their work. The success of a program or workshop is commonly determined by whether the educator met the objectives that were set up, and the reactions of the participants to the session.

Evaluation is an activity that can take place during the session, at the conclusion of the session, or at a later date. During the session evaluation provides information useful to making changes midcourse. Evaluation at the conclusion of the session informs the educator how he/she did and provides useful information for making future improvements. Evaluation at a later date is useful to determine whether the learning has held and if it is being used.

The four most common types of evaluation used in training and workshop programs for adults are: feedback forms, reaction forms, evaluation by objectives, and impact evaluation. A brief discussion of

each will follow.

(a) Obtaining Feedback

One method used to measure the effectiveness of the program is a general feedback form. The participants' reaction to the program, its content, the method and instructional style, are identified. This also gives the educator an indication of how well the needs of the participants were met. It is a subjective measure of the opinions of the participants. Feedback from the participants may be obtained in several ways. For example, the educator can approach certain individuals in the session and ask for their appraisal of the session; the educator can ask the participants to fill out a form that evaluates a particular session or the day's activities; the educator can ask the participants to give a verbal appraisal at the end of the session or the end of the day's activities (Austin, Brannon, Decora, 1984; Ament, 1986).

Feedback from participants received early in the session has the advantage of being received and hopefully utilized by the educator before the end of the session. The disadvantage of the feedback form lies in the fact that participants are usually too polite.

(b) Reaction Forms

Reaction forms are given to the participants at the end of a program requesting their anonymous reaction to such things as the educator, the objectives, the content, the facilities, and the organization of the program. The format ranges from open ended questions to various rating scales.

The advantage of reaction forms is that they provide the educator with information that is useful in improving future programs. This method of evaluation is easily administered to large groups. The disadvantage of reaction forms is that participants tend to be in good spirits at the end of a program and tend to give high scores.

(c) Evaluating Objectives

Evaluation by objectives is based on having participants demonstrate whether in fact they reached the objectives that were established for the session. This can be done by having the participants demonstrate the behavior described in the objective. One either reached the objective or one did not. If the participants did not meet the objectives of the session then the programmer/educator should do some additional work in the educational program. If the objectives were met the educator can assume success and the participants feel secure in their new knowledge and competence (Davis & McCallon, 1974).

This type of evaluation can take any form as long as it realistically measures the learning outcome. The major disadvantage of this type of evaluation is that it is very difficult, if not impossible, to do with a large group of participants.

(d) Impact Evaluation

Impact evaluation is an attempt to measure the impact of the program on the participants' behavior on the job or the impact on the organization. The procedure for participants' behavior would be: 1) a selected behavior is measured prior to the program, 2) a prediction is

made of what the program will change, 3) other variables are monitored for their potential impact, and 4) the selected behavior is measured after the program (Davis & McCallon, 1974).

The limitation of this type of evaluation is that of isolating the variables. Without controls this type of evaluation tells the educator only that the behavior did or did not occur. A lack of transfer of the behavior or use of the behavior may be due to other variables such as a poor work environment rather than a lack of learning. Another limitation to this evaluation method is the expense in conducting it. The advantages are seen as questionable.

The methods of evaluation most generally used in training programs for adult learners are feedback forms, reaction forms, and evaluation by objectives.

The method of evaluation used in the educational program for the supervisors was that of feedback forms.

Summary

The basic steps of program development were identified in this chapter. They are assessing the need, identifying the objectives, specifying the methods of instruction, and evaluating the program. These basic steps are used for developing effective educational programs.

The basic steps of program development served as the framework for the development of the educational program for the supervisors. The following chapter describes the process in detail. Through the writer's experience in developing the educational program she is convinced that by following the basic four steps of program development an effective

educational program will be achieved.

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM FOR THE SUPERVISORS

Introduction

The writer will describe the practicum setting and the manner by which the educational program for the supervisors was developed. The creation of this educational program followed the basic steps of program development which were outlined in the previous chapter.

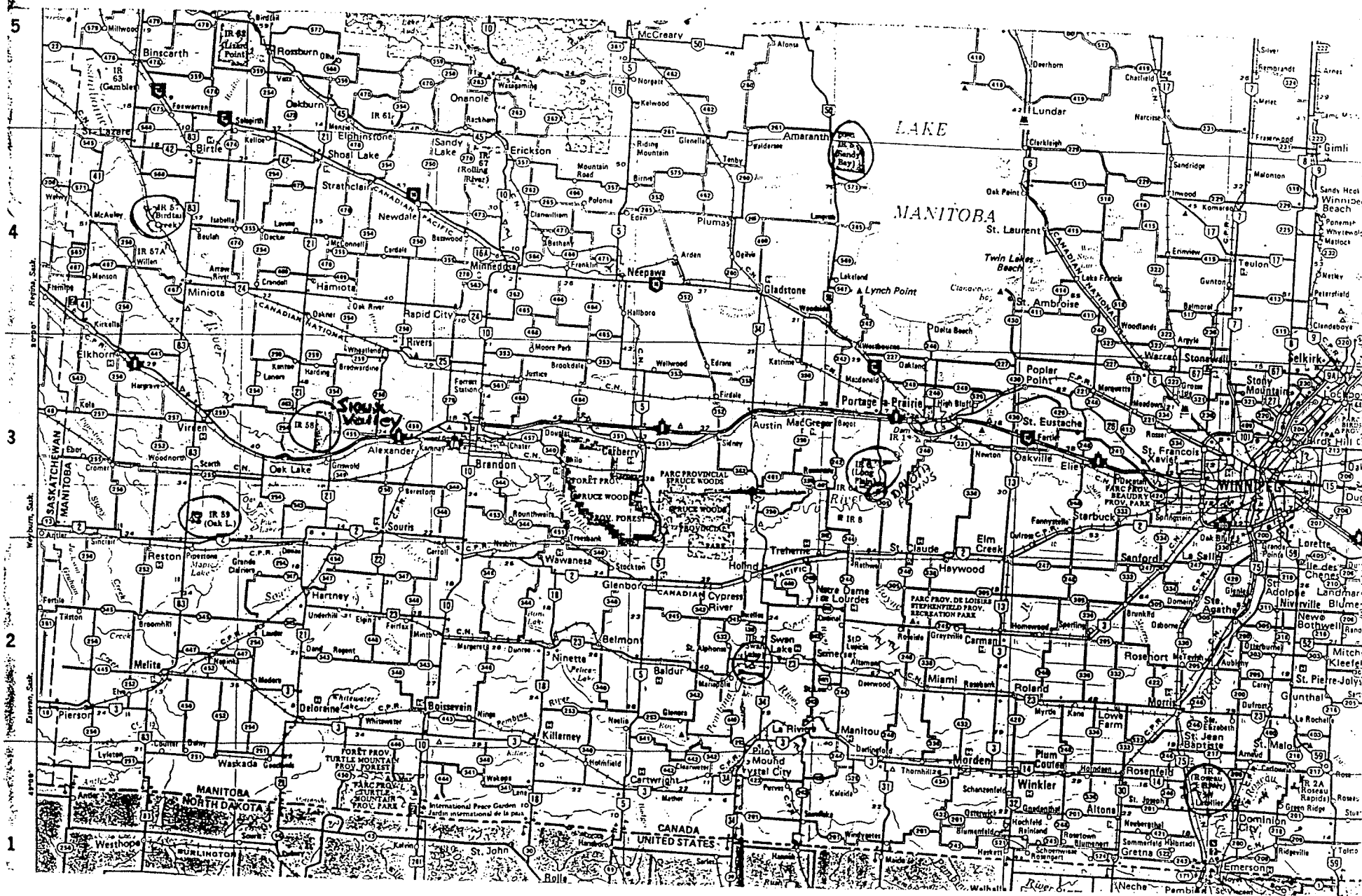
Practicum Setting

This practicum took place in a native child welfare agency, Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services (DOC&FS), which is located in Brandon, Manitoba. DOC&FS is directed by the Dakota Ojibway Tribal Council (DOTC). DOTC is composed of eight reserves: four Sioux--Dakota Plains, Sioux Valley, Birdtail Sioux and Oak Lake, and four Ojibway--Long Plain, Rouseau, Swan Lake and Sandy Bay. See Map on next page for specific location of reserves. The chiefs from the eight reserves make up the Board of Directors at DOTC. The Tribal Council has been active in developing seventeen Indian controlled services including police, housing, probation, fire prevention, and child welfare.

On July 1, 1981, DOC&FS became the first Indian child care agency in Canada to have all the powers of a child care agency under the Child Welfare Act, other than the powers respecting adoption. On October 5, 1983, the power to provide adoption services under the Child Welfare Act was granted to DOC&FS by regulation.

The agency staff consists of an executive director, an assistant executive director, four child and family services coordinators

LOCATION OF THE RESERVES



(supervisors), a Brandon off reserve service worker, a Winnipeg off reserve service worker, seventeen child and family service workers on the reserves, a child abuse coordinator, and a permanency planning coordinator. The Okciyapi Centre group home has one supervisor and five child care workers and relief staff. The Virden Receiving Home, which is overseen by house parents and relief staff, is supervised by a child and family service coordinator.

The service objectives of DOC&FS are:

1. To carry out the duties of a child caring agency as stipulated in Section 7 of the Child and Family Services Act of Manitoba.
2. To strengthen and unify Indian families who are members of DOTC communities.
3. To place Indian children coming into the care of DOC&FS within their own communities or with Indian families within the province of Manitoba.
4. To assist in returning DOTC children to their families or communities if they are in the care of other child caring agencies and/or outside the province of Manitoba.
5. To provide service for the prevention of circumstances requiring the protective placement of DOTC children.

Child and Family Service Coordinators (Supervisors)

The supervisors at DOC&FS have to be aware of and deal with some unique aspects due to their position in a native child welfare agency. The aspects identified for the writer by the agency are as follows:

1. DOC&FS provide service to two groups of people, the Ojibway and the Sioux, and just like any other cultural group each has differences

that need to be acknowledged by the supervisors in providing service.

2. Child and family service workers either live and work on the reserve or live off and work on the reserve. The writer was told that each of these situations may cause problems for a worker. Supervisors need to be aware of and assist workers with concerns, when and if they arise.

3. Child and family service workers may become involved in working with an immediate or extended family member which may cause uncomfortable feelings and situations to arise. Supervisors need to assist workers in these circumstances.

4. Supervisors are assigned and responsible for two reserves. As most of the supervision is done on the reserve, supervisors travel many miles to do their job.

5. Elections on the reserves are held every two years. With the election of a new chief and council, supervisors and workers must develop a working relationship with a new administration.

6. Supervisors must develop a positive working relationship with the administration at DOC&FS, including the other supervisors, and also the administration on the reserves.

7. Supervisors work with local Child Welfare Committees. The committee's purpose is to advise and give alternative suggestions to the supervisor and worker on high risk cases. The committee does not make the final decision, the supervisor does. The committee is made up of a council membership of the elected chief, the Public Health Nurse, school coordinator, elders, foster parents and other interested people from the community. The committee meets twice a month or if called upon in an

emergency situation. In compliance with the Manitoba government directive a sexual abuse committee had to be developed on each reserve. The sexual abuse committee is an extension of the local child welfare committee with the additional membership of the DOTC police and the RCMP officer.

Securing the Setting

The writer approached the Executive Director at the native child welfare agency by letter (see Appendix A) with the proposal to deliver a custom designed educational program based on the needs of the supervisory staff at her agency. The Executive Director contacted the writer by phone and asked her to attend an upcoming management team meeting so that she could introduce herself to the team, present her proposal, and inform the team as to her reasons for choosing their agency for the practicum.

The writer attended the management team meeting and presented her proposal (see Appendix B) to those in attendance.

The writer informed the team that she approached their agency based on two factors. The first factor was based on an assumption the writer had made from reading the recommendations made in the Sigardson and Reid (1987) report on the child abuse system in Winnipeg. Sigardson and Reid (1987) recommended that child welfare agencies develop a comprehensive training program for supervisors. The writer assumed that since the report was based on the child abuse system in Winnipeg the training program proposed in the Sigurdson & Reid report would only be for the child welfare supervisors in Winnipeg. Based on this assumption the writer decided to approach an agency outside Winnipeg. The writer later

learned that the training program, when developed, would be accessible to all supervisors in Manitoba.

The second factor was that the writer held the belief that native people should be providing their own child welfare service. If a native agency perceived that the writer could be of assistance to them in reaching their goals the writer would elect to do her practicum in that agency.

Based on the above two reasons the writer chose DOC&FS as the agency to approach with her practicum proposal.

At a later date the Executive Director contacted the writer informing her that the management team had agreed to the practicum being done at their agency.

Arrangements were made for the writer to attend a second meeting at the agency. The purpose of the meeting was for the writer to share the proposed practicum agenda (see Appendix C), to address the issue of confidentiality (see Appendix D), and for the writer to begin the process of receiving an orientation to their agency.

The writer's orientation to the agency consisted of:

1. Viewing two videos entitled "Caught Between Two Cultures" and "Taking Care of Our Own" (see Appendix E).
2. Reading the "Evaluation of Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services" that was done by Hudson and McKenzie (1984).
3. Spending a day with the supervisors from Sioux Valley and Long Plain reserves to experience being on a reserve, observe the manner in which service is provided, and observe a local child welfare committee meeting.

4. Receiving a review of the structure of the Dakota Ojibway Tribal Council.

5. Receiving information as to some unique aspects that the supervisors need to be aware of and deal with due to their position in a native child welfare agency.

6. Reading the 1986-1987 Annual Report of the Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services.

7. Being informed that some of the supervisors attended a workshop on "impact supervision" sponsored by Delcrest. Delcrest is a social service organization in Ontario, that has developed the approach of "impact supervision" and conducts workshops on this topic.

Determining the Educational Needs of the Supervisors

It is at this point that the specific educational needs of the supervisors had to be identified to determine where the educational program should begin.

A decision was made by the Executive Director, Assistant Executive Director, supervisors at DOC&FS and the writer, that the supervisors' educational needs would be determined by a sample of the agency's personnel within a group structure. The reason for the sample was that each person in the agency has a working relationship or contact with the supervisors and would be able to provide valuable input.

A modified nominal group technique was used to determine the educational needs of the supervisors. The nominal group technique has been used extensively since it was developed in the 1960's by Andre Delbecq and Andrew Van de Ven as an aid in planning and managing programs (Toseland and Rivas, 1984).

Attending the needs assessment meeting of the DOC&FS supervisors were sixteen staff members from the agency. These included four supervisors, four practitioners, the child abuse coordinator, the permanency planning coordinator, the Winnipeg off reserve worker, the Executive Director, the Assistant Executive Director, the administrative assistant, the supervisor of the Okciyapi Centre (group home) and one child care worker from the Okciyapi Centre.

The process for the modified nominal group technique meeting was as follows. The writer, who acted as the group leader, introduced herself and explained the practicum to the group. Each group member introduced themselves and spoke of their responsibilities in the agency. The writer identified the purpose of the meeting, namely to determine the educational needs of the supervisory staff.

The participants were numbered off one to four and separated into four groups. The groups were given the task of "brainstorming" the question "What are the educational needs of the supervisory staff at DOC&FS?" and to record their ideas. The writer encouraged the participants to express all their ideas. The more ideas the better. They were asked not to evaluate, judge or analyze any of the ideas during the brainstorming process. Criticism was ruled out. After recording a list of needs each group was asked to rank order their collection of needs. Each group selected a member to report their identified needs back to the writer (see Appendix F).

The four groups reconvened to form one large group. The writer listed the identified needs of each group on a flip chart. The ideas and recommendations were briefly discussed or clarified. Similarities

and/or differences were noted. A condensed list of the recommendations was put on the flip chart.

Participants were given a ballot asking them to select three topics that they felt best identified the educational needs of the supervisors. First choice was awarded 3 points, second choice 2 points, and third choice 1 point. Participants had a coffee break after they finished the above task.

The writer collected the ballots and beside each of the identified needs recorded and totalled the points. The highest scores identified the educational needs of the supervisors (see Appendix G). A discussion period was held on the identified needs.

Toseland and Rivas (1984) state the benefits of the nominal group technique are that it creates a long list of ideas, participants are given an equal opportunity to express ideas and participate in reaching a decision, and the structured interaction reduces the dominance of a few participants.

In addition, Toseland and Rivas (1984) continue to state that the drawbacks of the nominal group technique are that the method is cumbersome, the process takes a fair amount of time, and the group process is highly structured, hence some participants may find it unpleasant.

The writer modified the nominal group technique to avoid some of the above problems. The meeting was held in a large meeting room in a local hotel, which provided lots of room for individual group discussion and also limited interruptions for the participants. The writer allowed and arranged for adequate time for conducting the proceedings, one half

day. Scheduling sufficient time proved to be beneficial. The writer found it challenging to accomplish the purpose of the meeting and give adequate attention to the 16 participants. Having adequate time definitely helped. The writer did not find the method cumbersome as she thoroughly preplanned the meeting in order that she was comfortable and familiar with the process. The meeting was structured, however, the writer did plan a discussion period and included a coffee break.

Formulating the Educational Program Objectives

Based on the needs identified through the modified nominal group technique, the topics chosen for the educational program for the supervisors were:

- Transition from Worker to Supervisor
- Team Building for Supervisors
- Working Styles of Supervisors
- Three Functions of Supervision (Administration, Education, Support)

The writer researched the topics for the educational program and developed the tentative content to be covered under each topic heading. The writer met with the Executive Director, Assistant Executive Director, and the supervisors to discuss the tentative content proposal (see Appendix H). All who attended the meeting were in agreement with the proposed content.

Once the content was agreed upon the objectives for each session were determined. (Refer to the Content Material for the Educational Program in Appendix I for the objectives of each session.) It should be noted that the topic of Working Styles of Supervisors was

incorporated into the topic heading of the Three Functions of Supervision, specifically Administrative Supervision.

The scheduling of the educational program was determined at the same meeting where the content of the topic headings was discussed. At the request of the Executive Director, the educational program was scheduled to be delivered in three days in a one week period. The educational program was to be delivered to the supervisors at DOC&FS which included three child and family service coordinators (supervisors), the coordinator for permanency planning, the coordinator for child abuse, the supervisor from the Okciyapi Centre (Group Home) and the administrative assistant.

The supervisors consented to the sessions being video taped for the sole purpose of the writer receiving feedback on her performance by her practicum advisor. The educational program was delivered in a suite at a local Inn in Brandon, which was provided for by the agency. The suite provided a welcoming and comfortable atmosphere that was conducive to learning.

The video taping of sessions proved to be a valuable exercise. The writer was able to view herself and assess her limitations and strengths as an adult educator and also receive feedback on her performance from her advisor.

Methods of Instruction for the Educational Program

The methods of instruction used in the educational program were that of lecture, group discussions, group exercises, case situations, films, and pen and paper self-rating assessments. The above methods of instruction were all planned and incorporated into the educational

program. These methods of instruction are models which emphasize knowledge building. Role playing, which is a skill building model, was not incorporated into the educational program. The writer had planned to facilitate role playing in the sessions when it seemed appropriate, but did not do so. In retrospect, this proved to be a limitation in the educational program.

More information on the specifics can be obtained in the Content Material for the Education Program in Appendix I.

Implementation of the Educational Program

The design and content of the educational program is documented in the package Content Material for the Educational Program in Appendix I and will not be elaborated on.

Evaluating the Educational Program

Each session in the educational program was evaluated by the supervisors. The method used was feedback forms. The supervisors gave their reactions to the content, presentation, instructional style, relevance of the material to their work, and to the total session.

The above method of evaluation was used to give the writer an indication of how well the needs of the supervisors were met in each session. In addition, verbal feedback was also received from the supervisors in the last session of the educational program. Strengths and limitations of the program were expressed by the supervisors to the writer.

Summary

This practicum took place in a native child welfare agency, DOC&FS in Brandon, Manitoba. DOC&FS is directed by the DOTC which is composed of eight reserves: four Sioux and four Ojibway. The supervisors deal with some unique circumstances due to their position within a native child welfare agency.

The creation of the educational program followed the commonly accepted basic steps of program development, which are assessing the need, identifying the objectives, specifying the methods of instruction, and evaluating the program.

The educational needs of the supervisors were determined through a modified nominal group technique. The needs identified through this technique served as the topics for the educational program for the supervisors. The topics were: Transition from Worker to Supervisor, Team Building for Supervisors, Three Functions of Supervision (Administrative, Education and Support). The objectives of the educational program were determined by the supervisors and the writer. The methods of instruction in the educational program were that of lectures, group discussions, group exercises, case situations, films, and pen and paper self-rating assessments. Each session in the educational program was evaluated by the supervisors. The method used was feedback forms.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM FOR THE SUPERVISORS

Introduction

The intent of this chapter is to analyze the six sessions that were held in the educational program. A copy of the educational program can be found in Appendix I (pp. 141-196).

Confidentiality

The writer signed a practicum placement agreement with the agency whereby she agreed not to reveal any information regarding fiscal matters, program, staff, child care and family life resources and clients. The writer also agreed with the supervisors that she would not reveal any specific content of the conversations held in the sessions. The analysis of the educational program will reflect the agreements made with the agency and the supervisors.

Day 1 - Morning Session - Transition from Practitioner to Supervisor

(a) Content (pp. 141-157)

This session focused on the transition process that occurs when a practitioner moves into a supervisory role. The specific issues that practitioners encounter when making the transition to a supervisor were identified as: 1) issues of authority, 2) relationship orientations, 3) accountability and evaluation, and 4) organizational dynamics. Possible solutions to the problems of the transition were presented.

The differences between direct service training and practice and the practice of administration were identified. The consequences of

practitioners not making the transition into the supervisory role were identified.

(b) Actual Process

The first session began with the writer introducing herself and having the supervisors introduce themselves. The writer identified the purpose of the educational program and discussed her role as being that of student and presenter. The issues of the presenter's authority and expertise were addressed by her stating that her expertise in the area of supervision was purely academic while the supervisors had the expertise of supervisory experience. The writer expressed a desire for each person to share their expertise so that the learning could be richer for all. The issue of culture was addressed by the writer stating that the information from the literature and her experience were based on North American culture, and that if what she said conflicted with native culture, to inform her so that the issue could be addressed. The writer mentioned that she planned to be receptive to their opinions and reactions to the material presented, and that if she reacted in a defensive way for them to point this out to her. The writer went on to say that she expected them to participate in the session and received their agreement that they would.

The writer introduced the topic of the session through a getting acquainted exercise. The exercise served the purpose of facilitating the participants to interact with one another and to introduce the topic of the session.

Group discussions were held on the four issues that the writer identified in her presentation. The functional difficulties encountered

by supervisors in doing their job were addressed on the issue of power and authority. The differences between Indian and white cultures, with respect to relationship issues, were discussed. Accountability and evaluation were discussed as to how they affect the practitioner and the supervisor differently. Organizational dynamics were addressed with respect to the supervisors having to deal with three systems, DOC&FS, DOTC, and the chiefs and councils of each reserve.

Nearing the end of the session the participants identified the issue of confidentiality. The writer and the participants addressed the issue to the participants' satisfaction.

The session ended with a summary of the content and the issues that were discussed.

(c) Analysis

In this session the writer spent a significant amount of time on the beginning phase of her interaction with the supervisors. The writer did so as she holds, along with Shulman (1982), that the beginning phase of any interactional system is critical. Issues that are ignored or not handled well in the beginning phase will surface throughout the relationship.

Schulman (1982) states the four skills of contracting in the beginning phase of work are for one to share one's sense of purpose, to explore one's role, to reach for feedback from others, and to discuss mutual obligations and expectations related to one's authority (p. 31). The writer used these four skills of contracting in the first session of the educational program. The writer holds that this allowed the supervisors and herself to move into the development of a working

relationship with reduced anxiety and frustrations over unanswered questions and issues.

The writer presented the material in this session with the use of a flip chart. The information was in sentence form and this reduced the discussion between the presentor and the participants. Information on a flip chart would be better written in point form to allow for interaction.

The writer notes that all of the supervisors who attended the educational program provide supervision to employees at the agency but not necessarily to practitioners. Also, not all of the supervisors were trained as practitioners before becoming social work supervisors.

In the discussions it became apparent that the supervisors, regardless of their earlier profession, had or were dealing with the issues of use of authority, relationship issues, accountability and evaluation, and organizational dynamics. The supervisors discussed how they had handled certain issues or how in fact they were wrestling with certain issues. It confirmed for the writer that supervisors are in need of an educational program to assist them in the transition process.

(d) Supervisory Satisfaction

Each supervisor completed an evaluation form for this session (see page 158).

Six supervisors attended this session. The results were:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Did the session meet the objectives as stated above?	1	5		
2. The information presented in this session will be of use to you in your work.	1	5		
3. The session was well presented.	1	5		
4. The presentation of the material was well organized.	1	5		
5. The content of the session was adequate.	1	5		
6. The material was presented at a pace that was suitable to you.	1	5		

7. All in all, I would rank the session as:

4
Useful

2
Somewhat useful

Not useful

Additional Comments:

- Good - well prepared and presented - provided opportunity for feedback.

Day 1 - Afternoon Session - Team Building(a) Content (pp. 159-165)

This session focused on the concept of team building, specifically, what is a team and how to develop a team. The supervisors actively participated in team building through exercises.

(b) Actual Process

The writer introduced the topic of team building with a brief lecture on the subject of "What is a team?" and "How is a team developed?" For the remainder of the session the supervisors engaged in team development exercises.

The first exercise was "Who am I?" The purpose of this exercise was to give the supervisors an opportunity to get to know one another in a non-threatening way. The supervisors revealed to the writer that since they already knew one another quite well, this exercise was not that useful.

The second exercise was entitled "Twenty-Five Questions: A Team Development Exercise." The purpose of this exercise was to enhance work relationships in the group, to stimulate group discussion about work-related topics, and to clarify assumptions that team members make about each other.

The supervisors engaged in this exercise with eagerness and openness. The supervisors addressed the issues of how their team functions, how their team is affected by other systems, and some supervisors discussed personal work related issues that they wanted to resolve with the rest of the supervisors.

The session ended with the writer asking for and receiving suggestions from the supervisors as to what could be different in the remaining two days of the program.

(c) Analysis

The writer's decision to have the supervisors spend the majority of the time in this session on their own team development proved to be wise. It appeared that the supervisors were thankful for an opportunity to focus their time and energy on discussing team development issues. The writer makes this statement based on the fact that the supervisors were willing and eager to engage in this exercise. All the supervisors participated, showing no resistance. Due to the work demands of the supervisors they have few opportunities to meet to discuss team development issues. Discussions may occur between individuals or sub-groups within their team but rarely as a total team.

While the writer facilitated the identification and discussion of team development issues by the supervisors, she did not move them towards conflict resolution. While the supervisors felt the session was useful, perhaps it would have been also useful had they been moved to conflict resolution.

Unfortunately, not all of the supervisors were present for this session. The writer speculates that this session would have been of greater value if all of the team members were present and engaged in the team development exercises.

(d) Supervisory Satisfaction

Each supervisor completed an evaluation form for this session (see page 166).

Six supervisors attended this session. The results were:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Did the session meet the objectives as stated above?		6		
2. The information presented in this session will be of use to you in your work.		6		
3. The session was well presented.		6		
4. The presentation of the material was well organized.		6		
5. The content of the session was adequate.		6		
6. The material was presented at a pace that was suitable to you.		6		

7. All in all, I would rank the session as:

6
Useful

Somewhat useful

Not useful

Additional Comments

- Very sensitive to work issues discussed - adjusted to needs of the group.
- It was really great that you listened.

Day 2 - Morning Session - Administrative Supervision(a) Content (pp. 168-179)

This session focused on the administrative function of supervision, with specific tasks being identified and discussed. The two assumptions of man, Theory X and Theory Y, (McGregor, 1960) were presented for discussion and applied to management styles. Some effects of each management style were discussed. The supervisors learned what their own style of supervision presently is and what the styles of the other supervisors are.

(b) Actual Process

The writer began this session by identifying the three functions of supervision: administration, education, and support.

The writer presented the specific tasks of administrative supervision in point form on a flip chart. The supervisors had different roles and responsibilities within the agency and related the material presented to them to their particular function within the agency. The supervisors also informed the writer of additional aspects that they need to consider due to working in a native child welfare agency. The functional difficulties that supervisors encounter in performing their tasks and meeting their obligations were discussed. The supervisors took an active role in discussing the material and relating it to their work.

McGregor's two assumptions of man, Theory X and Theory Y, were identified and the film "Theory X & Theory Y - The Work of Douglas McGregor", part 1 & 2, were shown to demonstrate how the assumptions

operate in practice.

A pen and pencil self-assessment questionnaire entitled "Your Working Style" was used for the supervisors to determine their own supervisory styles. The supervisors informed the writer that they found this exercise useful as they were interested in learning about their own supervisory styles.

(c) Analysis

The adult learning literature reveals that adults have varied learning styles, therefore, it is imperative to use a variety of learning methods to meet the learning needs of all adults in an educational program. In this session the writer used several methods of instruction--lecture, group discussion, case examples, films, and a pen and paper self-rating questionnaire. The evaluation results of this session appears to confirm that in using a variety of methods the learning needs of the supervisors were met.

The lecture material presented to the supervisors for this session was in point form on a flip chart. Having the material in point form seemed to allow for more discussion and information sharing from the previous method of having it written in sentence form.

The administrative functions of a supervisor plays a large role in the responsibilities of the supervisor. The group discussion revealed that the supervisors were interested and receptive to acquiring additional information on the tasks they perform. Functional difficulties that affected their ability to perform the tasks required of them were identified and discussed by the supervisors. The writer addresses the functional difficulties that supervisors may encounter in

Chapter VII.

McGregor's assumptions of man, Theory X and Theory Y, validated for the supervisors what they had assumed and experienced and provided an explanation as to the reason behind why one adopts a specific management style.

The supervisors were most receptive and eager for self-assessment questionnaires pertaining to their own working styles. The writer assumes that participants in educational programs are interested in doing exercises from which they learn about themselves, and so were not pressed to reveal or share the results unless they chose to.

(d) Supervisory Satisfaction

Each supervisor completed an evaluation form for this session (see page 180).

Six supervisors attended the session. The results were:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Did the session meet the objectives as stated above?	1	5		
2. The information presented in this session will be of use to you in your work.	4	2		
3. The session was well presented.	4	2		
4. The presentation of the material was well organized.	4	2		
5. The content of the session was adequate.	1	5		
6. The material was presented at a pace that was suitable to you.	2	4		

7. All in all, I would rank the session as:

6
Useful

Somewhat useful

Not useful

Additional Information

- I enjoy this workshop because all the material and subjects are relevant to our agency.
- Review of the theory assisted in identifying different management styles.

Day 2 - Afternoon Session - Educational Supervision

(a) Content (pp. 181-188)

This session focused on the educational function of supervision with the specific tasks being identified and discussed. The core practice skills in the helping process were identified and discussed in relation to how supervisors may teach these skills to practitioners.

(b) Actual Process

The writer arrived back from having lunch to find the supervisors present and ready for the afternoon session to begin. Without an opportunity to review her material or to reconnect with the supervisors the writer began the afternoon session.

A supervisor who had not previously attended the educational program joined the group in this session. The Executive Director was also in attendance.

Initially, the writer moved through the content quickly as there was relatively little group discussion. The writer attempted to facilitate discussion by asking questions and in due time the group did begin to discuss the content in relation to their work.

The practitioners at this agency are involved in a training program where they are learning and performing their job at the same time. Hence, the function of educational supervision plays a major role for the supervisors at this agency. The supervisors identified areas where they felt the practitioners had difficulty with and shared how they, as supervisors, attempted to help them with those difficulties.

In this session the writer asked the group if her assumption is

true that native people are comfortable with and appreciate the use of silence when interacting with other people. The writer was informed that some native people may be comfortable with silence but in no way was it a universal characteristic of all native people.

The writer wrapped up the session with a summary of the material discussed.

(c) Analysis

The writer feels that she could have handled this session better. Specifically, she could have acknowledged the fact that the Executive Director and another supervisor had joined the session, and with the addition of two new members in the session, the group would change.

The interaction among participants was low at the beginning of the session. The writer holds that the reason for this was that the group was reforming. In time, group interaction did increase.

The writer did not suggest that the supervisors engage in role playing to practice different methods of assisting practitioners in dealing with their difficulties. In retrospect, the writer holds that role playing would have been beneficial for the supervisors. A weakness in this session is that the writer did not suggest role playing.

(d) Supervisory Satisfaction

Each supervisor completed an evaluation form for this session (see page 189).

Seven supervisors attended this session. The results were:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Did the session meet the objectives as stated above?		7		
2. The information presented in this session will be of use to you in your work.		7		
3. The session was well presented.		7		
4. The presentation of the material was well organized.		7		
5. The content of the session was adequate.		7		
6. The material was presented at a pace that was suitable to you.		7		

7. All in all, I would rank the session as:

6
Useful

1
Somewhat useful

Not useful

Additional Information

- very informative
- well set out - good documentation

Day 3 - Morning Session - Supportive Supervision(a) Content (pp. 190-195)

This session focused on the supportive function of supervision with the specific tasks being identified and discussed. Sources of stress for practitioners were revealed and methods of stress management were identified.

(b) Actual Process

The session began with the supervisors sharing with the writer positive feedback regarding the previous sessions. The writer acknowledged that this was the last day of the educational program, and informed the group that the afternoon session was to be a wrap-up session.

The supervisors identified some unique stresses that practitioners must deal with due to working in a native child welfare agency. The supervisors shared with one another what they did to assist the practitioners they supervised to deal with stress. The functional difficulties of being a supervisor were addressed in relation to supportive supervision. The discussion was upbeat and positive.

The writer showed the film "Stress Management" which examines the productivity of various levels of stress, how to recognize undue stress, and how to handle stress. The film was well received by the supervisors.

After the film a brief discussion was held on how the supervisors themselves handle stress.

(c) Analysis

There was a lot of energy in this session. The supervisors' interaction with one another was high. The writer sensed a strong sense of "weness" in the group. The atmosphere was relaxed.

The literature reveals that the reasons for this may have been due to the upcoming ending of the group. Henry (1971) states that group endings may result in group cohesion increasing, members becoming more facilitative of each others participation, more helpful with one another, and more supportive of one another (p. 249). Henry (1971) continues to state that this is caused by group members wanting to leave the group and the experience with good feelings toward one another, and good feelings about oneself for having been helpful and having been helped (p. 249).

The writer also speculates that another reason for the high energy in this session may have been that the supervisors' learning needs were met in the educational program, and the supervisors were feeling good about themselves as supervisors and as a team.

(d) Supervisory Satisfaction

Each participant completed an evaluation form for this session (see page 196).

Five supervisors attended the session. The results were:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Did the session meet the objectives as stated above?	2	3		
2. The information presented in this session will be of use to you in your work.	1	4		
3. The session was well presented.	1	4		
4. The presentation of the material was well organized.	1	4		
5. The content of the session was adequate.	1	4		
6. The material was presented at a pace that was suitable to you.	2	3		

7. All in all, I would rank the session as:

4
Useful

1
Somewhat useful

Not useful

Additional Information

- This workshop has been of great value to me. It would be a great benefit to social workers if they could attend such a workshop once/twice a year.
- Found it helpful to review various concepts and exchange ideas with the group.
- All information will be used in full.

Day 3 - Afternoon Session - Recapitulation/Evaluation

The purpose of this session was to recapitulate and evaluate the educational program, and to evaluate the writer as an adult educator.

The writer also acknowledged that the Executive Director was present and that her presence affected the group and discussions. The writer posed two questions for the group: How did they feel the session would be affected by the boss's presence? and Did they have any preference as to how to continue with the remainder of the session? The group did not deal with the above two issues in their usual consensus form of decision making. The group floundered. The discussion moved to evaluating the educational program.

The literature on the termination phase of groups reveal that in this phase the consensus form of decision making begins to deteriorate. The consensus form of decision making requires a high level of cohesion amongst the group members and identification with one another. In the ending phase of groups bonds are beginning to fade, individual members do not put as much energy into maintaining the group's social-emotional system or their group roles. The group is left to run on its own steam, thus a consensus form of decision making which requires a lot of energy and commitment from its group members no longer works as effectively in the termination phase (Henry, 1971, p. 250).

This seems to provide an explanation as to why the group members did not address the issue in their usual consensus form of decision making. The writer also recognizes that asking the group two questions at the same time did not help. It appears that in the termination phase of groups, the adult educator may need to assume more responsibility for

decision making with the group and/or not direct the group into a decision making process in this phase.

In evaluating the educational program the supervisors stated positively that the information presented to them was relevant to their work; that they liked the fact that the writer presented the material with different methods of instruction, e.g. films, lectures, pen and paper self-rating questionnaires, etc.; that the writer listened to them and allowed the group to discuss their concerns, issues, successes and challenges; that the information presented helped them learn about themselves and their supervisory styles; that the program refreshed them; and that they felt better about themselves as supervisors.

The supervisors recommended that in the future the writer put the information on a flip chart in point form only; that the participants receive a copy of the material presented at the end of each day; that role playing be incorporated into the program; and that the evaluation forms be made more specific and relevant for each session.

Summary

In summary, there were six sessions within the educational program. The topics for each session were: Transition from Practitioner to Supervisor, Team Building, Administrative Supervision, Educational Supervision, Supportive Supervision, and a Recapitulation and Evaluation session. The majority of the supervisors rated each session as useful.

The major highlights of the educational program for the writer are as follows.

In the first session, Transition from Practitioner to Supervisor, it became apparent through the discussions that the supervisors had

dealt with or were dealing with the issues of use of authority, relationship orientation, accountability and evaluation, and organizational dynamics. This confirmed for the writer that practitioners do encounter difficulties in making the transition to supervision and are in need of educational programs to assist them in the transition process.

The writer is convinced that in developing and delivering an educational program the adult educator must incorporate as many learning methods as possible into the program. The reason for this is adults have varied learning styles and by using a variety of learning methods the learning needs of the adult learners are met. This was substantiated through the delivery of the sessions. Sessions that had a variety of learning methods were ranked more positively by the supervisors than the other sessions with fewer learning methods. The supervisors verbally informed the writer that they preferred sessions that had a variety of learning methods.

The supervisors who attended the educational program felt that this training session was the best educational program that they had attended on supervision in social work. The reasons stated were that it was based on their particular needs, that they were encouraged to actively participate in the sessions, and that they could discuss their own concerns and issues related to the topic. The supervisors felt that this type of educational program for supervisors in social work should be made available twice a year.

Through experience in the delivery of the educational program the writer is convinced that a transition process occurs when one moves into

a supervisory position and that new supervisors are in need of an educational program to assist them with this transition. The supervisors who partook in this educational program expressed the need for educational programs that are based on the managerial aspects of social work supervision.

CHAPTER VI

EVALUATION OF THE PRACTICUM

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is twofold. Firstly, to present the results of the questionnaire "Evaluation of the Practicum" that was completed by three individuals who had been involved in the development of the educational program and/or present for the delivery of the program.

Secondly, through engagement in the educational intervention the writer became aware that supervisors not only need to be trained to do their job they also need to be functionally able to do it. The writer identifies and addresses what some of the functional difficulties are that social work supervisors may encounter and identifies what the administration in social service agencies should provide to supervisors so they can effectively perform their job.

Evaluating the Practicum

An evaluation of the practicum was developed by the writer for three individuals who had been involved in developing and/or present for the delivery of the educational program. The individuals chosen for completing the questionnaire were the Executive Director, the Assistant Executive Director, and a supervisor chosen by the Executive Director. The evaluation of the practicum was to be completed by the three individuals after the educational program was completed.

The evaluation forms were sent to the Executive Director for distribution to the appropriate individuals (see Appendix J). The

Executive Director contacted the writer by phone and informed her that the Assistant Executive Director did not feel he could complete the evaluation form as he did not attend the educational program. It was decided that two supervisors who had attended the educational program would complete the evaluation forms.

The results of the "Evaluation of the Practicum" questionnaire can be found in Appendix K. In general, results revealed that the respondents viewed the educational program as useful for the supervisors.

The writer's technical skills of assessing the needs of the supervisory staff and developing and delivering the educational program was seen as average or slightly higher.

The method used to evaluate the educational program was rated below average by one respondent, unable to assess by another respondent, and no response from the other respondent. The verbal feedback from the Executive Director and the supervisors revealed that each felt that the feedback forms used for evaluation purposes were not adequate. The Executive Director would have preferred to have a measure of specific learning that took place through a question as "What did you learn in this session that you did not know before?" The supervisors would have preferred to have evaluation forms that were not universal for each session but rather specifically developed for each session. Thus, the evaluation forms used in the educational program were not satisfactory and need to be redeveloped taking into account the above feedback.

In the area of conducting and facilitating productive group meetings, two respondents rated the writer as average, while one

respondent rated the writer as below average. The respondent commented that the reason for her below average rating reflected her feeling that the session on Team Building ended up being a "beefing session" and was "unproductive." The statement is contrary to the evaluation results of the Team Building session which was rated by six supervisors as useful. In retrospect, it appears that at least one supervisor felt that the opportunity for the team of supervisors to engage in conflict resolution was available but they were not directed to this end. The writer acknowledges that this was a limitation on her part, however, the writer does hold that the session was productive and useful even though the group was not moved into conflict resolution.

The writer's ability in completing tasks was rated from average to high.

The writer's interactional human relation skills of developing open working relations with the supervisors, eliciting open communication from others, and ability to listen and understand staff concerns were rated as average to slightly above average. The writer's ability to communicate clearly was rated as average. Comments revealed that the writer had good interactional skills and developed good relationships with the participants.

The educational intervention was seen by two respondents as useful to the supervisory personnel who attended the educational program. One respondent ranked the educational program as not useful to the supervisory staff but commented that the information presented to the supervisors was useful. The writer is not clear as to the reason for this discrepancy. The writer speculates that the supervisor may have

had different educational needs than the rest of the supervisors and/or that the material in the educational program was not presented in a learning method that was congruent with hers.

The writer would like to note again that not all of the supervisors who attended the educational program provided supervision to practitioners. As the material in the educational program was geared to supervision in social work, some of the material may not have been directly applicable to the work that some supervisors are responsible for in the agency. This may have affected their overall rating of the educational program.

Taking all things into consideration, the educational program developed by the writer was seen as of use to the agency by two respondents. One respondent rated the educational program as not useful to the agency, but commented that the information presented to the participants was useful and that agency implementation of such a training program would need to be addressed.

In summary, it appears from the results and comments of the "Evaluation of the Practicum" questionnaire that the respondents felt the educational intervention was of use to the supervisors. This conclusion is confirmed by the evaluation results of the individual sessions where the majority of supervisors viewed the sessions as useful.

Functional Difficulties Encountered by Supervisors

The writer's assumptions for undertaking the practicum were: (1) that a large number of practitioners whose training is in direct service move into supervisory roles without any additional education, (2) that

the move from practitioner is a career transition, and (3) that the majority of new supervisors need additional education before they are able to adequately perform their new role and accept their responsibilities. Through experience in the engagement of the educational program the writer realized that not only do supervisors need to be trained in order to do their job they also need to be functionally able to do it.

The writer holds that adult educators should be aware of the functional difficulties (major problems) that supervisors may encounter in their job for the following reasons. First, adult educators who are informed in this area could knowledgeably address and discuss the functional difficulties with the supervisors. Secondly, adult educators could provide the supervisors with guidelines as to what the literature holds on what is required to do their job, so that they can work toward acquiring it. Finally, adult educators could inform administrators that supervisors are in need of certain requirements in order to do their job and that as administrators they work toward providing it.

The writer identifies some of the functional difficulties that supervisors may encounter in doing their job and also identifies what administration should provide in order that supervisors can function effectively in an agency.

(a) Authority and Power

In order for the supervisor to perform his/her task and function so that the agency operates efficiently and effectively the supervisor needs to be granted the authority and power which would enable him/her to do the job well. The supervisor needs to be given the authority to direct and coordinate practitioners' actions toward the agency's

objectives, to review and evaluate their work and to hold them accountable. Formal channels of authority must be established so it is clear who has the authority to assign, direct and evaluate work and who is being directed, evaluated, and by whom.

Toren (1972) states "...supervision is the institutionalized built in mechanism through which the attitudes and performance of social workers are controlled" (p. 65). This is to ensure that practitioners will act in ways that lead to the achievement of organizational objectives. If a supervisory control system was not in place there would be a danger that practitioners would make decisions based on their own preference rather than based on organizational objectives. Agency objectives and procedures provide predictability in decision making so that the work of the agency can be coordinated and integrated.

Kadushin (1985) notes that supervisory authority can be more effectively implemented if agency administration observes certain essential considerations. Supervisors should be appointed to their position through fair hiring procedures and only people who are qualified for the position should be hired. Administration needs to delegate enough authority to the supervisor so that he/she is able to do the job required of him/her and to delegate it in such a way that a clear order of command is established.

The agency's administration, which is the source of the supervisor's authority, should support the authority of the supervisor to stabilize his/her power. Inconsistent and unpredictable support from the administration of a supervisor's authority tends to erode his/her power. The administration should make it clear to supervisors and

supervisees the nature of the authority delegated to supervisors, the limits of the authority, and the conditions under which the authority can be legitimately used. Administration should evaluate supervisors on a regular basis and termination should occur if performance is inadequate.

(b) Organizational Factors Attenuating Supervisory Power and Authority

A supervisor's actual power and authority may be more apparent than real. The basic social service agency's organizational structure and the nature of the practitioners' tasks may inherently weaken the supervisor's power.

For a supervisor to effectively exercise his/her power and authority certain conditions must exist. Clear agency goals and objectives need to be identified so that the practitioner and supervisor know what action and direction is needed in cases. The supervisor needs to be aware of what the practitioner is doing in the field and to determine whether or not what is being done is being done correctly. Unfortunately, these conditions do not usually exist in the social service agency.

The social service agency's goals and objectives are usually numerous, vague, and open to a variety of interpretations enabling the practitioner to have a fair degree of discretion in interpreting the goals and objectives of the agency and how it applies to individual cases. This constrains a supervisor's authority.

Lipsky (1980) holds that the characteristics of a practitioner's job "make it difficult if not impossible to severely reduce discretion.

They involve complex tasks for which elaboration of rules, guidelines or instructions cannot circumscribe the alternative." The situations that practitioners deal with are individualized and too complicated to "reduce to programmatic formats." Practitioners need discretion "because the accepted definition of their tasks call[s] for sensitive observation and judgements which are not reducable" to specific rules, regulations, and procedures. Practitioners are granted discretion because the community "to a degree seeks not only impartiality from its public agencies but also compassion for special circumstances and flexibility in dealing with them" (p. 15).

The practitioner tends to be the only person who has direct contact with the client and hence, is more acutely aware of the details of the situation. The opportunities for the supervisor to observe the practitioner in practice and to control the practitioner's behavior is limited. While a supervisor can direct a practitioner to carry out certain directives in a case, practically, the practitioner has the option to do whatever he/she chooses and report to the supervisor what he/she wants to hear or what the practitioner wants the supervisor to know. The less a supervisor actually knows about the practitioner's work the less amenable the practitioner is to the supervisor's power and authority.

The numerous tasks required of a supervisor makes it difficult to use his/her authority to assess, review, and monitor the work of the practitioner. A supervisor cannot realistically monitor the work of five to seven practitioners who carry caseloads of thirty to fifty clients. This would entail the supervisor keeping on top of 150 cases

in addition to the other tasks assigned to him/her. Under the current system a supervisor cannot adequately carry out the tasks of his/her job.

Authority and power are difficult for supervisors to utilize when they work within organizations with vague objectives, unclear procedures and when practitioners engage in interventions with clients about which they have limited knowledge.

(c) Practitioners' Power

Practitioners have power in the supervisory relationship even though they may lack formal authority (Mechanic, 1964; Janeway, 1980).

Supervisors are responsible for ensuring that practitioners do the work that is required of them. If practitioners do not do the work supervisors are in trouble with administration. Practitioners have, therefore, the power of making life difficult for supervisors by doing the minimum amount of work required of them or by engaging in rigid compliance of agency rules, policies, and procedures. Practitioners can hinder the work of an agency by applying literally all the rules, policies, and procedures.

The power of individual practitioners can be increased by a coalition with other practitioners within the supervisor's unit. Practitioners acting as a unified group can develop and maintain considerable power over their supervisor. A supervisor's authority and power may be limited by the countervailing power of the practitioners he/she supervises.

(d) Problems in Organizational Position

A supervisor has been described as an "in the middle" functionary. Austin (1981) states that the supervisor has "one foot in the work force and one foot in the management module, not being clearly associated with either" (p. 32).

Since the supervisor has a connection with the administration and the practitioners, one of his/her functions is communicating information from above and below. The supervisor informs the practitioners what administration has to say about policies, procedures, structure, and practitioners inform supervisors what they have to say to administration about the success and problems in implementation of policy and procedures and their reaction to agency objectives. Administrators need to know this information from practitioners to successfully run the agency.

Problems may exist in the communication between administrative channels. Kadushin (1985) states that barriers to organizational communication result from conflicting group loyalties and the need for self protection. The supervisee may be reluctant to share information with the supervisor as he/she may fear a negative evaluation or rejection by either the supervisor or peers. The supervisor may be reluctant to share information with administration due to fear of displeasure and negative evaluation. Communication may thus be restricted to telling others what they want to hear or what reflects favorably on one's performance.

In addition to the formal organizational communication network, there is an informal communication network. A supervisor is usually not

included in the informal channel of communication. Informal channels tend to be more active when formal channels do not encourage free flow of information.

In order for a supervisor to function effectively in an agency the administration must provide the following to him/her.

1. A clear understanding of the service aims of the agency and the available resources for the service.
2. A set of priorities that outline the use of the resources.
3. A written policy statement guiding the procedure and method used to deliver its service.
4. A definition of the necessary administrative requirements for the purpose of carrying on the agency business, e.g. records, forms, etc.
5. A clearly written description of his/her job responsibilities within the agency's structure.
6. A written description of job responsibilities of the staff members who carry out the service aims, which includes the minimum performance qualitatively as well as quantitatively.
7. A clear understanding of any exceptions made in the job requirements of any staff member (MacDonald, 1980).

Summary

A questionnaire "Evaluation of the Practicum" was developed by the writer and completed by the Executive Director and two supervisors who had attended the educational program. The results of the questionnaire provided the following results.

The writer's technical skills of assessing the needs of the

supervisory staff and developing and delivering the educational program was rated by the respondents as adequate. The method of evaluation used in the sessions was rated as inadequate. The writer's ability in conducting and facilitating productive group practice was seen as adequate except for the session on Team Building where one respondent felt the writer's performance was inadequate. The writer's interactional human relation skills of developing open working relations with the supervisors, eliciting open communication from others, and ability to listen and understand staff concerns was rated satisfactory. The respondents felt that the educational intervention was of use to the supervisors. The educational program was seen as of use to the agency by two respondents. One respondent rated the educational program as not useful to the agency, qualifying her response with the statement that the information presented to the participants was useful, but that agency implementation of such a training program would need to be addressed.

All in all, it appears from the results and comments of the "Evaluation of the Practicum" questionnaire that the respondents felt that the educational program was of use to the supervisors.

Through experience in the engagement of the educational program the writer became aware that not only do supervisors need to be trained in order to do their job they also need to be functionally able to do so. The functional difficulties that supervisors encounter while doing their job are lack of assigned and sanctioned authority and power from administration, countervailing power of practitioners and organizational restrictions. Adult educators need to be aware of the functional

difficulties that supervisors encounter. The functional difficulties need to be addressed by administration so that they can be alleviated.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

This practicum was undertaken to provide supervisory training to supervisors in a native child welfare agency. At the time that this practicum was conceived there was no training program available for supervisors in child welfare. The writer designed, delivered and evaluated an educational program for supervisors.

The writer's rationale for undertaking this practicum was that it is documented in the literature and recognized in practice that a large majority of practitioners, whose training is in direct service, move into supervisory roles without any additional education. The move from practitioner to supervisor is a career transition. The majority of new supervisors need additional education before they are able to do their job with a degree of confidence.

The writer identified the problems that practitioners experience when they move into supervisory roles. The four problems are: 1) use of authority, 2) relationship orientation, 3) accountability and evaluation, 4) organizational dynamics. The writer demonstrated that the transition from direct service skills to the skills required for a supervisory role are by no means straightforward. Practitioners may not possess the needed knowledge and skills required for the role of supervisor.

In developing the educational program the writer attempted to use a number of the principles of andragogy. Thus, the educational program

was developed and delivered to meet the learning needs of the supervisors.

The basic steps of program development most often used by program planners served as the framework for the development of the educational program for the supervisors. The basic steps are: assessing the need, establishing objectives, specifying the methods of instruction, and evaluating the program.

The educational needs of the supervisors were determined through a modified nominal group technique. The needs identified through this technique served as the topics for the educational program for the supervisors. The topics were: Transition from Worker to Supervisor, Team Building, and The Three Functions of Supervision (Administration, Education and Support). The objectives of the educational program were determined by the supervisors and the writer. The methods of instruction for the educational program were that of lectures, group discussions, group exercises, case situations, films, and pen and paper self-rating assessments. Each session in the educational program was evaluated by the supervisors. The method used was feedback forms.

There were six sessions within the educational program. The topics for each session were: Transition from Practitioner to Supervisor, Team Building, Administrative Supervision, Educational Supervision, Supportive Supervision and a Recapitulation and Evaluation session. The evaluation results for each session in the educational program revealed that the supervisors found the sessions useful.

A questionnaire "Evaluation of the Practicum" was developed by the writer and completed by three individuals who had been involved in the

development and/or present for the delivery of the educational program. The results and comments from the "Evaluation of the Practicum" questionnaire reveal that the respondents felt that the educational intervention was of use to the supervisors.

Through experience in the engagement of the educational program, the writer became aware that not only do supervisors need training to perform their job they need to be functionally able to do it. The functional difficulties that supervisors may encounter in doing their job are: a lack of assigned and sanctioned authority from the administration, countervailing power from practitioners, and organizational restrictions. The writer identifies what administration should provide in order that supervisors function effectively in an agency.

The writer found the experience of designing, delivering, and evaluating an educational program to be a valuable one. The writer gained knowledge and skill in the area of adult learning, program planning, implementation and evaluation, and became aware of some of her strengths and limitations in the process.

The educational program was a two way learning experience. The writer learned a great deal from the supervisors and is richer for having shared this experience with them.

Conclusions

The writer concludes from her experience in the engagement of the educational program that supervisors are in need of educational programs. The writer bases this statement on the following.

The needs assessment conducted by the writer to determine the

educational needs of the supervisors revealed that they were in need of education on the transition process from practitioner to supervisor and the management aspects of social work supervision.

The session on Transition from Practitioner to Supervisor confirmed for the writer that supervisors do, in fact, experience difficulty in the transition from practitioner to supervisor. Through the group discussion, the supervisors identified how they had or were dealing with the four issues identified in the literature that practitioners encounter when making the transition.

In the session Three Functions of Supervision, it became clear that the skills, knowledge, and tasks required of a supervisor to perform his/her job are different from the skills, knowledge and tasks required of a practitioner doing his/her job.

The supervisors who attended the educational program verbalized that the sessions were useful and relevant to their work and that they should attend educational programs focusing on supervision in social work twice a year.

It is the writer's hope that administrators in social service agencies and practitioners recognize that education and experience in direct service is not sufficient preparation for a supervisory position. Skills and knowledge learned and applied in direct service are not adequate to meet the requirements of a new position, that of supervisor. Some skills can definitely be adapted to the new position but there are significant gaps. While occasionally some practitioners seem to make the transition with relative ease, it appears that the majority of new supervisors are in need of additional education before they are able to

do the job with confidence. Specifically, the new supervisor is in need of education on the three functions of supervision: administration, education and support, and the tasks and responsibilities that go with each function.

The writer also hopes that competent adult educators develop and deliver training programs for supervisors. It would be unfortunate if training programs were developed without the needs of the adult learners being considered, as the learning would be limited.

The writer holds that additional education for practitioners who move into supervisory positions is important for two primary reasons. Firstly, supervisors play key roles in social service agencies and underproductive or counterproductive supervisors affect clients, practitioners, and the agency as a whole. It is this writer's concern that if practitioners continue to be promoted to supervisory positions without additional education the social work profession may suffer. The profession will continue to battle the reputation of being poor supervisors, and may in fact lose the war. Other professionals who hold the required skills and knowledge will apply for supervisory jobs in social service agencies and secure them. The end result could be that the social work profession will end up being led by another professional group rather than being led by their own.

Secondly, supervisors have administratively assigned and sanctioned authority over practitioners, having the power to make a practitioner's life either a satisfying, challenging, experience or a dissatisfying, devastating experience that strips one's confidence. This writer holds that a training program for supervisors is essential if the problem of

underproductive or counterproductive supervisors in the social services
is to be effectively dealt with.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO DAKOTA OJIBWAY CHILD AND FAMILY SERVICES

919 Selkirk Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R2X 0B9

August 12, 1987

Ms. Esther Seidl, Executive Director
Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services
702 Douglas Street
Brandon, Manitoba
R7A 5Z2

Dear Ms. Seidl:

I am a student at the University of Manitoba in the Master of Social Work administration program specializing in supervision. For requirement of my practicum I plan to design and deliver a program on supervisory skills to social work supervisors. I propose to assess the need, analyze the task, research the context and design, deliver, and evaluate the program. I would like to engage this process at Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services.

I hold that little has been done to assist supervisors with the managerial aspects of their jobs. The skills required for supervisory and administrative jobs are substantially different than the skills of a practitioner working with clients. The move from practitioner to supervisor is a career transition that should be accompanied by a training program. Presently, the training for social work supervisors is of a piecemeal nature and based on business orientated perspectives which is not comprehensive or applicable to the human service supervisor.

Ineffective supervisors are costly. Early termination of a supervisor may be the least expensive. The greater penalty is when a supervisor remains and is underproductive or counterproductive. This affects the clients, practitioner and the agency as a whole.

I have worked as a social worker in the child welfare system for over four years. I actively support that native/metis people need to gain legislative authority, judicial and executive power in order to care for their people with their own values, customs and community standards. I have developed and facilitated many groups and delivered presentations on various topics. I am a registered social worker and I am near completion of my Master of Social Work degree.

- 2 -

As I stated, I would like to deliver a custom designed program based on the need of the supervisory staff at your agency. I would welcome an opportunity to meet with you to further discuss this proposal. I can be reached at 582-2031, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Sincerely yours,

Elaine Smith

APPENDIX B

PRACTICUM PROPOSAL:

MATERIAL SHARED WITH THE MANAGEMENT TEAM

August 24, 1987

To: Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services
From: Elaine Smith
Topic: Practicum Proposal

For requirement of my practicum I plan to custom design and deliver a program on supervisory skills to social work supervisors. I propose to assess the need, analyze the task, research the content and design, deliver and evaluate the program. I would like to engage this process at Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services.

I hold that little has been done to assist supervisors with the management aspects of their job. The skills required for supervisory and administrative jobs are substantially different than the skills of a practitioner working with clients. The move from practitioner to supervisor is a career transition that should be accompanied by a training program. Presently, the training for social work supervisors is of a piecemeal nature and based on business orientated perspectives which is not comprehensive or applicable to the human service supervisor.

THE PROCESS OF PROGRAM DESIGN

Assess the Need for Learning

Is training or education needed? No amount or type of training or education will be effective unless it is needed. How will I assess the need?

Options: 1) Personal interviews. Interview supervisory staff to identify their needs. Interview other staff to gain their perception of supervisory skills needed. List needs and have supervisory staff rank order them. 2) A defined list of skills and topic choices will be given to the supervisory staff for them to identify their needs. 3) Meet with supervisors as a group to identify their needs.

Establish Priorities

What needs should be met first? There is no real rule of thumb, however, it should be based upon the most pressing problem.

Analyze the Setting

Every organization has a corporate culture. By this I mean a unique personality which is reflected in management style, organizational hierarchy, policies, procedures, values and beliefs. This culture plays a vital role in acceptance or rejection of the educational programs. A program which inadvertently contradicts management philosophies may be destructive.

Analyze the Audience

Who are they? What are their beliefs? It is essential for a

program to be tailored at least to some degree to these needs and characteristics.

Develop a Strategy for Analysis

Who will be involved in developing the program? Who will take part in the program?

Specify Methods

Once the content is determined and the objectives established, the next step is to examine the content, the learner and the outcomes and decide which methods of instruction are most appropriate.

Options: lecture, role play, case situations.

Develop Prototype of the Program

Iron out the bugs of the program.

Possible Topics

Transition from practitioner to supervisor.

Various supervisory orientations or styles.

Various supervisory methods.

Functions of supervision. Administration, education and support.

Performance, appraisal skills.

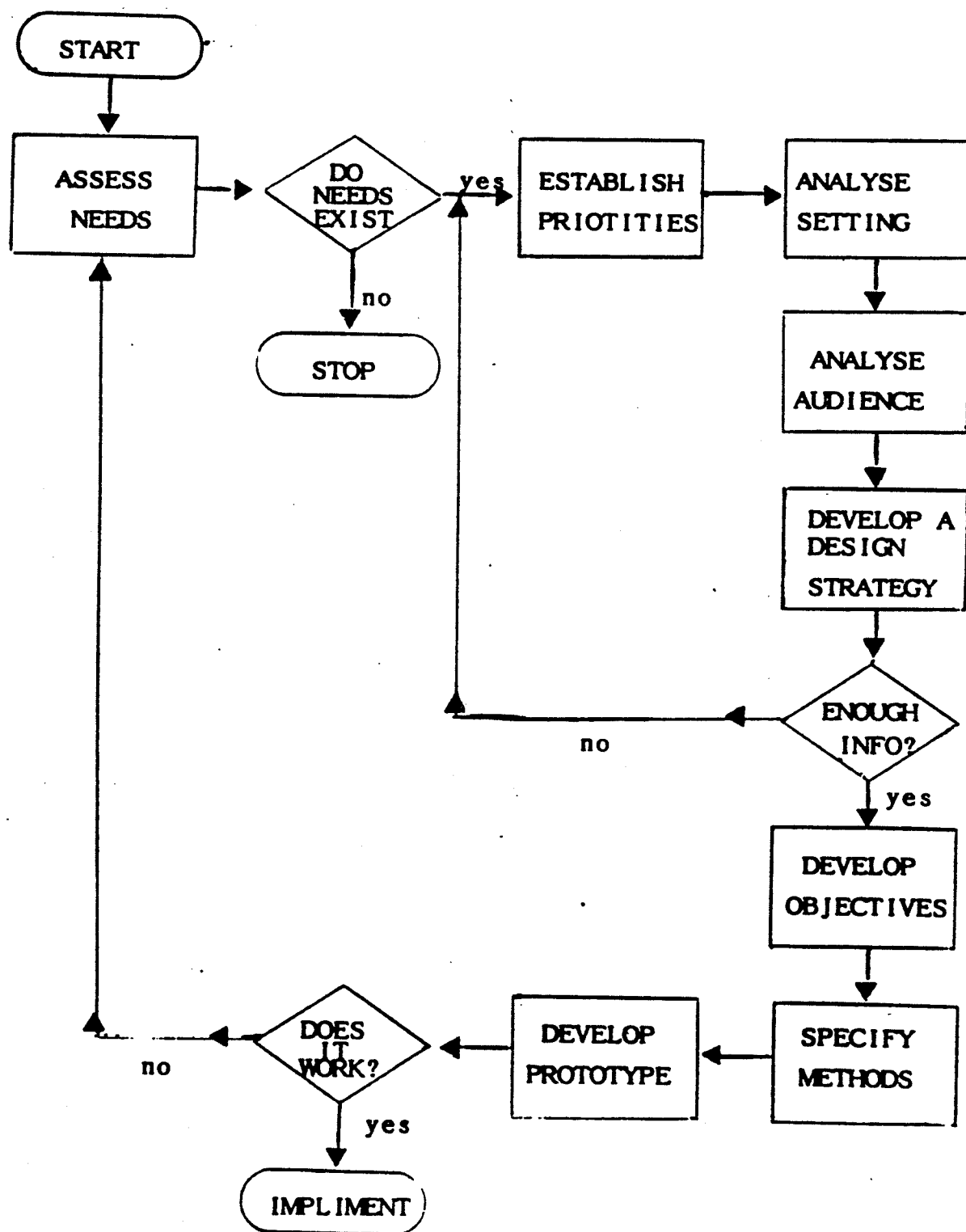
Team building.

Dealing with conflict.

Assertive supervision.

Stresses of being a supervisor.

How to motivate and coach.



APPENDIX C
PROPOSED PRACTICUM AGENDA

PROPOSED PRACTICUM AGENDA

Phase I - Orientation

- | | |
|---------|---|
| Oct./87 | Sign agreement with DOC&FS with regard to student's responsibilities. |
| Oct./87 | Sign agreement with DOC&FS with regard to aspects of confidentiality. |
| Oct./87 | Receive orientation of DOC&FS. |
| Oct./87 | Determine with supervisors how their educational needs will be assessed. |
| Oct./87 | Negotiate with supervisors the time/month when the educational program will be delivered. |
| Oct./87 | Receive approval from Practicum Committee of Practicum Proposal. |
| Oct./87 | Begin literature review. |

Phase II - Design

- | | |
|--------------|--|
| Oct./Nov./87 | Assess educational needs. |
| Oct./Nov./87 | Topic of "Program" determined. |
| Nov./Dec./87 | Research topic. |
| Dec./87 | Review tentative agenda and content with supervisors. |
| Dec./87 | Develop objectives of program. |
| Jan./88 | Develop draft. |
| Jan./88 | Complete literature review. |
| Jan./88 | Develop an evaluation of the relative satisfaction of the program by the supervisors (program content, methods and instructional style). |
| Jan./88 | Develop an evaluation to assess the abilities (skills and/or knowledge) acquired by the supervisors through the program. |

Phase III - Deliver

Early Feb./88	Deliver educational program. (Student away from Feb. 16 to 21.)
Early Feb./88	Evaluate educational program.
March/88	Write up practicum report.
April/88	Present practicum report.

APPENDIX D
PRACTICUM PLACEMENT AGREEMENT



Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services Inc.

PRACTICUM PLACEMENT AGREEMENT

I Elaine Barbara Smith plan to do my practicum
(First, Middle and Last Name)
placement, using confidential agency information and/or Child and
Family Services records of Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services
Inc. or as follows:

During the term of my practicum, I will obtain the written approval
of the Executive Director and/or Assistant Executive Director of
Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services Inc. to release any informa-
tion regarding agency fiscal matters, programs, staff, child care and
family life resources and clients. I furthermore agree not to di-
vulge any information to anyone regarding agency fiscal matters, pro-
grams, staff, child care and family life resources and clients, unless
I have obtained written approval as indicated above.

I undertake not to disclose, either in the research or to anyone, the
content(s) of any record(s) or part thereof in any form which could
reasonably be expected to identify either the subject of the record(s)
or any person(s) who is (are) identified in the record(s).

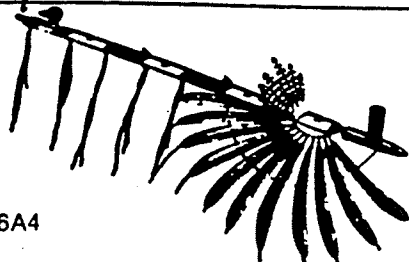
Elaine Smith
Signature of Student

Ms. Mill
Signature of Witness

Ex. Oct 2/87.
Date

ESTHER SENE
Printed Name of Witness

Oct. 2/87.
Date



APPENDIX E

REVIEW OF VIDEOS ENTITLED:

"REPATRIATION: CAUGHT BETWEEN TWO CULTURES"

"TAKING CARE OF OUR OWN"

"REPATRIATION: CAUGHT BETWEEN TWO CULTURES"

Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services sponsored a workshop on April 16 and 17, 1986, at Hecla Island for native youth who, as children, were placed in white homes and who had recently returned to their home reserves and birth families. The workshop was video-taped.

The video begins with native elders talking to the youth. The elders are informing the youth that there was a process of extermination of the Indian culture through the school system and the laws. Indian children were taken from their parents and placed in Indian Residential Schools for nine months out of the year. At the schools the children were punished if they spoke their native language. Laws prohibited certain ceremonies to be performed on the reserve. Non-natives held the decision making power for natives and also controlled their culture.

Natives were taught by non-native people to be ashamed of themselves and their people. This has caused problems that came out in the form of wife abuse, alcohol, and child abuse. Natives have lost their values.

The youth attending the workshop shared some details as to the reasons/circumstances around their return to the reserves. Suggestions were given by the youth to the workers of how to assist future youth in their return to their birth families and home reserves. The suggestions were for more specialized programs and workers being available to them for assistance in coping with their feelings and new life style. All youth present at the workshop expressed that they had a difficult time

in dealing with their return.

The workshop ended on the note that youth and family members need to be aware of an adjustment period.

"TAKING CARE OF OUR OWN"

The video begins with a native man telling the story of how his children were adopted through the Childrens Aid Society (CAS). He states that one day he arrived home from work to find that his wife had deserted the family. As he worked all day he contacted the CAS for help in caring for his children. He states that he agreed to his children being apprehended but not for them to be adopted by a family in the United States.

Native children from Manitoba were being adopted by white families in the United States. The CAS's personnel did not reach out into the native communities to develop adoption homes. The placement of native children in white foster homes and adoption homes has inflicted damage in the native culture and heritage. The children who were removed from the reserves experienced a loss of identity and loss of their heritage.

Tim Maloney, the Executive Director of Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services (DOC&FS) at that time, gives a review of the agency's statistics, e.g. the number of children in care. The services that are provided by the agency are day care, homemaker services, counselling services, and brief services. Tim Maloney continues to say that DOC&FS provides a wider service than the CAS ever did. Two specific reasons are identified: 1) the child welfare workers usually have grown up on reserves, usually reside on the reserve in which they work, hence they are aware of the native way of life and know the people; 2) on each reserve there is a local child welfare committee which is made up of

citizens from the community. These committees meet to discuss cases and they all contribute to possible solutions to child welfare problems.

The main differences identified between CAS and the DOC&FS is that CAS is a centralized agency and decisions are made within the agency about people. At DOC&FS all decisions are made by the people in the community. DOC&FS is a decentralized agency.

The employees at DOC&FS are non-native and native. Non-native workers are people who support the agency and the principles. Color is not important. There is an attempt for all child welfare workers to be native and educated.

Native child welfare workers who do not hold degrees partake in training courses. Training is done through New Careers. The training is based on skills and tasks. The local child welfare committees select the workers from their reserves. The workers' training is two weeks in the classroom and six weeks on the job for a period of two years.

A supervisor at DOC&FS states that she discusses cases with her workers and meets with the local child welfare committees to develop plans. She also assists in identifying training needs of the workers. She states that workers live on the reserves, know the standards of the reserves, and know what is happening on the reserves.

One reserve lost 111 children. The people want to find their children and assist the children in coming back to the reserve.

Other native groups can now take steps to manage their own native child welfare agencies.

"It can be done. It should be done."

APPENDIX F
IDENTIFIED NEEDS OF INDIVIDUAL GROUPS
DETERMINED THROUGH THE NEEDS ASSESSMENT

IDENTIFIED NEEDS OF INDIVIDUAL GROUPS
DETERMINED THROUGH THE NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Group 1

More structured orientation to agency and policies.

Role clarification (organizational structure).

Team building.

Time management - prioritization.

Dealing with stress (supervisors).

Group 2

To develop an understanding of how to build relationships and the difference between the different relationships developed, e.g. worker-supervisor; supervisor-chief.

How to evaluate worker in the context of process (ongoing).

Accountability of supervisors to both workers and administration.

Accountability of supervisors with regards to outcomes and production of their work.

Knowledge of agency policy and directives.

Working style of supervisors.

Group 3

Team building for supervisors.

Improving communication skills for supervisors (oral and written).

Delivering effective presentations.

Knowledge of the Child Welfare Act - specifically adoptions.

Dealing with the finances of the agency (budgets).

Time management and prioritization.

How to identify weaknesses of workers and what to do about it (education).

Group 4

Training of workers who are making the transition to supervisory positions.

Training of new supervisors with regard to social issues and politics on the reserve.

Assistance for supervisors in the task of providing education to workers.

Support for supervisors.

How supervisors can supervise their workers and keep up with their other functions (time management).

APPENDIX G

RESULTS OF THE BALLOTS FROM THE NEEDS ASSESSMENT

RESULTS OF THE BALLOTS FROM THE NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Orientation for supervisors to the agency (policy and procedure) and the community.

Team building for supervisors.

Working styles of supervisors.

Three functions of supervision (administration, education and support).

Transition from worker to supervisor.

Building relationships and understanding the difference between relationships developed.

Time management.

Support and education of workers.

Communication skills.

APPENDIX H
TENTATIVE CONTENT AND AGENDA OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

TRANSITION FROM PRACTITIONER TO SUPERVISOR

Stresses of Becoming a Supervisor

1. The motive for the transition suggests problems for practitioners. Is the move into supervision a desired and planned move or is it due to a lack of preferred alternatives.

2. Loss of role identity of practitioner and building of a new sense of identity as supervisor (recognition and confirmation of new role).

3. Anxiety about one's ability to meet the demands of the new job.

4. Stresses of greater responsibility:

(a) Responsibility for the administration/education and support functions of supervision.

(b) Responsible for the work of a number of practitioners.

(c) Responsible for the caseloads of a number of practitioners.

Four Issues New Supervisors Need to Address in Their Transition

1. Use of authority.

2. Relationship orientation.

3. Accountability and evaluation.

4. Agency politics and organizational dynamics.

Team Building

A team is a group of people, each of whom possesses particular expertise, each of whom is responsible for making individual decisions, who together hold a common purpose, who meet together to communicate, collaborate and consolidate knowledge from which plans are made and actions determined and future decisions influenced.

Designating a group of people as a team does not automatically ensure their ability to work as a team.

Engaging in Team Building

1. Getting to know one another.
2. Team composition.
3. Team building exercises.

Administrative Supervision

Principle administrative functions of supervision:

1. Hiring (criteria/need)
2. Orientation
3. Work planning
4. Work assignment
5. Work delegation
6. Monitoring/reviewing and evaluating work
7. Coordinating work
8. The communication function
9. The supervisor as an administrative buffer
10. The supervisor as a change agent
11. The supervisor as a community liaison (Kadushin, 1985).

Two approaches of management:

Theory X

Theory Y (McGregor, 1960)

Styles of management:

An exercise will be done to determine the supervisor's working style (Exercise from Middleman & Rhodes, 1985).

Educational Supervision

Principle educational functions of supervision:

1. Assessing training needs of practitioners
2. Facilitating training
3. Suggesting, teaching and demonstrating
4. Orientating new practitioners (Kadushin, 1985)

Requirements for effective learning:

1. Learner must have a stake in the outcome.
2. Learner must be actively involved in the process.
3. Learner must have an opportunity to practice the use of the information.

EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

Supervisors meet with practitioners in individual/group sessions.

- Teach practitioners what they need to know to do their job and help them learn it.

Core Practice Skills

1. Tuning in
2. Contracting (purpose and role) and dealing with authority
3. Empathy skills
4. Elaboration skills
5. Making a demand for work
6. Sharing one's feelings
7. Sharing data

How

1. Discussion of specific cases
2. Reviewing process reporting
3. Role playing
4. Demonstrating skills
5. Modeling

This leads to improved skills and increased knowledge (Shulman, 1982).

Supportive Supervision

Principle supportive functions of supervision:

1. Sustain worker morale
2. Help with job related discouragement and discontent
3. Give supervisors a sense of worth as a professional
4. A sense of belonging to the agency
5. A source of security in their performance (Kadushin, 1985).

Sources of stress for practitioners on the job:

1. Administrative supervision
2. Educational supervision
3. The client
4. The nature of the work
5. The agency's organizational structure
6. The attitude of the community towards social workers

Stress management:

Signs of stress: physical/emotional/behavioral

Supervisors can act to:

1. Prevent stress from developing
2. Remove the worker from the stressful situation
3. Reduce the impact of the stressors
4. Help the worker adjust to stress

<u>Session</u> (in order of presentation)	<u>Time Frame</u>
Transition from Practitioner to Supervisor	1/2 day = 3 1/2 hours
Team Building	1/2 day = 3 1/2 hours
Administrative Supervision -	
Educational Supervision -	2 days
Supportive Supervision -	
Total:	3 days

Options

1. 3 days at once (Wednesday/Thursday/Friday)
2. Split: 1 day and 2 days

When

- Last week of January - Monday, 25th to Friday, 29th
- First 2 weeks of February - Monday, 1st to Friday, 5th
- Monday, 8th to Friday, 12th

WhereWho

Inquire about video and audio taping.

APPENDIX I

CONTENT MATERIAL FOR THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

TRANSITION FROM PRACTITIONER TO SUPERVISOR

Objectives

The supervisors will:

- Gain increased knowledge of the stresses of becoming a supervisor.
- Gain awareness of the four issues that new supervisors need to address in their transition.

Agenda

1. Getting acquainted exercise.

2. Stresses of becoming a supervisor:

(a) The motive for the transition suggests problems for different practitioners. Is the move into supervision a desired and planned move or is it due to a lack of preferred alternatives?

(b) Loss of role identity of practitioner and building of a new sense of identity as supervisor (recognition and confirmation of new role).

(c) Anxiety about one's ability to meet the demands of the new job.

(d) Stresses of greater responsibility:

- Responsible for the administration, education and support functions of supervision.
- Responsible for the work/caseloads of a number of practitioners.
- Responsible for decisions that affect children's lives.

(e) Work load stress.

BREAK

3. Four issues new supervisors need to address in their transition:

- (a) Use of authority
- (b) Relationship orientation
- (c) Accountability and evaluation
- (d) Agency politics and organizational dynamics

SUMMARY

EVALUATION

Ice Breaker - A getting acquainted exercise

Purpose

- To set the climate for positive learning.
- To facilitate the participants to interact with one another.
- For participants to get to know one another better.

Process

- Participants are asked to choose a partner they know the least within the group.

- In paired interviews, the participants are to address the following questions to one another (no note taking):

1. What did he/she do before working in his/her current job?
 2. When did he/she start his/her current job (month, year)?
 3. Obtain some detail as to how he/she came to be employed in his/her current job.
 4. What is his/her greatest stress on the job?
 5. What does he/she do for fun?
- Participants, in turn, introduce their partner to the group.

Stresses of Becoming a Supervisor

The majority of supervisory positions in human service agencies are filled by direct service practitioners. Patti, Diedreck, Olson and Crowell (1979), Patti and Austin (1977), Scurfield (1981) and Holloway (1980) found that a large majority of supervisors in social service organizations are trained as clinicians and enter management from the ranks of direct service practitioners with little or no administrative training. The qualifications that make one a competent practitioner are not the same qualifications that make one a qualified supervisor. Kadushin (1985) holds that a new supervisor is entering a new occupation not simply a new position and this occupation will have its own set of job specifications and expectations. Patti and Austin (1977) hold that direct service practitioners often experience great strain and conflict when making the transition to supervisor.

The motive which lead to the transition suggests different problems for different workers.

Some practitioners have had aspirations of moving into a supervisory position and the move is congruent with their intentions. Other practitioners move into supervisory positions due to a lack of preferred alternatives. Advancement up the career ladder for practitioners is limited. Career advancement in pay, prestige, power, growth, and challenge almost requires acceptance of the supervisory position. Scurfield's (1981) survey finding "...suggested that a substantial number of current administrators would choose to be clinicians if promotional and financial opportunities in clinical

practice were equivalent to those in administration" (p. 498).

The transition involves a temporary loss of role identity. As a practitioner one has developed a role identity that has been confirmed and is recognized by clients, collaterals, and supervisors. The practitioner moving into a supervisory position must develop a new role identity as a supervisor. The supervisor needs to demonstrate to the supervisees and administration his/her competence in the role of supervisor and hence, receive their recognition and confirmation of his/her new role identity as a supervisor.

The new supervisor experiences anxiety about possessing the required knowledge and skills for the tasks required of the new position. The qualifications that make one a competent practitioner are not the same as the qualifications which make one a competent supervisor. All supervisors have experienced some anticipatory socialization to the position due to one's experience as a supervisee. Holloway (1980) continues to say that if a new supervisor can anticipate the feeling that accompanies a move into a supervisory position, accept the feelings as natural and understand how the feelings manifest in work behaviors, he/she will likely perform the new role more competently.

The new supervisor assumes the stresses of greater responsibilities. The supervisor has responsibility to the supervisees for administration, support and education. The practitioner is responsible only for his/her caseload; the supervisor is responsible for the work of a number of practitioners who are assigned to his/her unit. The new responsibility may be overwhelming for the new supervisor.

The stresses that arise as practitioners move into supervisory

roles have been identified as uncertainty as to what is expected, whether one has the knowledge to meet the challenge, loss of role identity and self confidence due to not knowing the particulars of new situations and contexts, and the "shock" in experiencing the reality of a supervisor's responsibilities.

Four Issues New Supervisors Need to Address in Their Transition

The literature reveals that a practitioner making a transition to supervisor will address the issues of use of authority; relationship orientations; accountability and evaluation; and organizational dynamics.

Use of Authority

There is general agreement that the use of authority is a major area of change for the new supervisor (Patti, Diedreck, Olson & Crowell, 1979; Abramczyk, 1980; Scurfield, 1981). The difficulty is not the result of assuming authority for the first time but related to a broadened perspective and change of emphasis in the use of authority.

In "voluntary-client" agencies a practitioner's title or degree may confer a presumption of authority, however, legitimacy will only occur if the practitioner demonstrates expertise in helping clients with their problems. Authority for the practitioner is derived from knowledge and expertise of how to help clients resolve their problems.

In settings such as child welfare and probation services, the practitioner's use of authority is not contingent upon the client's acknowledgement of his/her expertise. In general, practitioners hold that identified goals are most effectively achieved when clients accept

and believe in the practitioner's expertise. Practitioners learn how to use formal and legal authority in the helping process for the benefit of the client. Their experience in using authority is in the context of client/worker relationships which takes place in therapeutic settings.

The new supervisor no longer uses his/her authority in a worker/client relationship or in a therapeutic setting. His/her education and experience in the use of authority may no longer fit for the new role of supervisor. New supervisors may feel uneasy about their newly acquired authority and the new context in which they have to exercise it, however, their position will not allow them to deny their authority (Abramczyk, 1980).

In the transition from practitioner to supervisor, a major problem identified by new supervisors is "...the use of authority particularly as it implied directing, supervising and changing subordinates...." (Patti, Diedreck, Olson & Crowell, 1979, p. 146). Scurfield (1981) conducted a survey of social work administrators to examine the transition they made from a practitioner to an administrator and states "It is clear that the exercise of authority in relationships with subordinates in contrast with the exercise of authority in relationships with clients is a major area of change reported by former clinicians in their transition to administrator" (p. 497).

Middleman and Rhodes (1985) and Abramczyk (1980) state that when one takes on the role of supervisor one is granted formal authority. Formal authority is the right conferred by the organization to direct and control the actions of others. This authority establishes the supervisor's right to initiate actions, make decisions, allocate

resources and set expectations for practitioners' performance. Formal authority is inherent in the supervisory role and is not dependent on personal qualities or how the role is played. Formal authority causes stress for a new supervisor. Authority related transition problems can be lessened by earning functional authority from one's supervisees.

Functional authority is granted or withheld by others in relation to how they perceive the quality and performance of the one carrying the role (Abramczyk, 1980). The amount of functional authority one receives aids or impedes the use of formal authority.

A new supervisor can earn functional authority by developing a framework for equity and consistency. Middleman and Rhodes (1985) state that supervisors who develop clear definitions of goals and objectives, set equitable expectations for quality and quantity of work, balance supervisees' backgrounds and needs with agency requirements, and balance use of praise with constructive critical feedback, will gain supervisees' respect in the use of authority.

Functional authority can also be earned by a supervisor using his/her judgement to differentiate between areas where there exists freedom of choice from areas of limited or no choice. For example, in areas where a supervisor has freedom of choice he or she can involve supervisees in exploring new approaches to tasks and procedures. There will be some areas where a supervisor has no choice re implementation of a policy or directive. In this situation a supervisor needs to inform the supervisees the reason for the decision and the implications. The supervisees were not included in the decision making process but they do need to be aware of the process and reason for the decision. Such a

procedure will lead to the supervisor gaining legitimacy from the supervisees (Middleman & Rhodes, 1985).

Earning one's authority and using it appropriately involves differentiating among three concepts: being an authority--having the knowledge, skills and experience; being in authority--having formal authority, and being authoritarian--using directive, controlling punitive approaches to supervisees and their work (Middleman & Rhodes, 1985). Being an authority requires sharing and applying one's knowledge, skills and experience to supervisees in a way that reinforces their dignity and ongoing professional development. Being in authority is an inherent part of the role of supervisor. The challenge is to balance the responsibilities of earning and maintaining functional authority with one's supervisees. Being authoritarian is what one should avoid.

A new supervisor may have difficulty adapting to being "in the middle," which is required to manage relations between those above and those below. All organizational actors function "in the middle." Practitioners experience contrast between needs of their clients, the structure of their supervisors and the requirements of agency policy. Executives experience conflicting pressure of programs and administrative staff on one hand and the board, funding sources and community groups on the other. However, the experiences of being "in the middle" is the most acute for the new supervisor who stands between two cultures--the culture of bureaucracy and the culture of service provision (Holloway, 1980).

Holloway (1980) states that organizational and personal sources of

tension increase as one moves up the hierarchy. Practitioner and client interaction is largely invisible as agencies trade off with practitioners' freedom in dealing with individual clients for their acquiescence in meeting policy requirements. However, the supervisor's interaction with a practitioner is visible and the work group culture contributes to the supervisor's success or failure. In addition, supervisors assume the stress of greater responsibility from that of practitioners. Kadushin (1985) identifies that a new supervisor has a responsibility to his/her supervisees for administration, education and support. The new supervisor is responsible for the supervisees' caseloads and their work. Also, the new supervisor assumes the responsibility for policy formation and community agency relations.

Holloway (1980) identifies three factors which complicate the tasks for the new supervisors. First, due to their newness of position, they must develop a new role identity while they cope with the discomfort of their assertion of authority. The second is the means of obtaining compliance that is associated with upper, as opposed to lower, hierarchical levels. Third, a supervisor may allow certain organizational rules to be circumvented in exchange for staff loyalty and responsiveness. Supervisors have to identify rules which are discretionary and the pressures which are resistible. These trade offs are often necessary for effective organizational functioning, however, the potential for conflict with superordinates is obvious.

Relationship Issues

Relationship issues can be a source of stress for the supervisor. Kadushin (1976) identifies two relationship orientations in social service agencies. The expressive orientation involves openness, trust and empathy. The practitioner is educated in the area of expressive relationship orientation. The second, instrumental relationship orientation involves functional specific task-centred relationships and concern for producing and accountability. In making the transition from practitioner to supervisor one will shift from an expressive to a more instrumental relationship orientation (Kadushin, 1985; Middleman & Rhodes, 1985; Holloway, 1980). Bramford (1978) states the very qualities which make a good social worker are often the antithesis of those required for an administrator. Talking things through patiently is an admirable quality applied to work with clients. Applied indiscriminately to management decisions, great and small, it is a recipe for administrative paralysis (p. 11).

Becoming a supervisor in an agency where one was a practitioner causes problems. Social distance is increased between practitioner turned supervisor and his/her former peers. There is less spontaneity in their interaction, greater guardedness and hesitancy in communication and more formality. Intra group gossip between peers is now seen as "squealing" when shared with a former peer turned supervisor. Former peers wonder if the supervisor will show favoritism to friends and/or pay off grudges against enemies. One's predecessor can be a source of tension; a new supervisor wonders if he/she can be as good as the former supervisor. Practitioners may resist changes, especially if the

previous supervisor was well liked and respected. One may be penalized by feelings of rivalry and jealousy from other practitioners.

The relationship between supervisor and practitioner is usually instrumental and functionally specific (Patti & Austin, 1977). The supervisor works toward obtaining a good understanding of his/her supervisee's strengths and weaknesses to utilize and facilitate the practitioner's development and maximize his/her contribution to organized goals. The supervisor and the practitioner know that the supervisor uses information gained in their relationship for evaluation purposes and some restraint is necessary. The supervisor must maintain a modicum of equity in relationships with all practitioners. These constraints on the supervisor, practitioner relationship, produce a degree of guardedness and restraint. This can be a sharp contrast to the intimacy and openness that occurs in therapeutic situations and practitioner peer relationships.

Having lost one's old peer group, the new supervisor has to obtain acceptance in a new peer group--that of other supervisors. Kadushin (1985) states that "...some social distance from both groups to which the supervisor is hierarchically related, the supervisees who are his subordinates and the administrators who are his supervisors, is functionally useful" (p. 304). Blau and Scott (1962) state that data from a variety of organizations, including social service agencies, show "...detachment from subordinates was found to be associated with higher productivity, and independence from supervisors, with greater solidarity in the work group. And (that) both kinds of social distance, although the two were hardly related to one another, were associated with

commanding the loyalty of subordinates" (p. 238).

Different norms exist with regards to relationships with peers at higher levels (Patti & Austin, 1977). Supervisors are responsible for maximizing the performance and resources of their own unit. Supervisors of other teams are often in competition for resources, program turf, and personnel, so it often is dysfunctional to share information and ideas openly. In addition, supervisors' credibility with their own staff often depends on how well they protect and advance their interests, thus one can understand the drawbacks in establishing a supportive and collaborative relationship between other supervisory peers. It is not surprising that administrative staff meetings do not always augment human relations. Hence, as one moves from practitioner to supervisor one often experiences a deterioration in the quality of human relationships at work and loss of peer support and isolation. An alternative support system may be other professionals in other agencies or membership in a professional organization like The Manitoba Association of Social Workers.

A supervisor is faced with the conflict between acting to establish individual prominence with supervisors and acting to enhance the benefits for one's supervisees. Middleman and Rhodes (1985) recommend the way to manage the above stated pressure is to use one's influence to develop and maintain relationships at all levels. This involves mixing and matching one's expressive and instrumental relationship orientations to fit the task and context.

Accountability and Evaluation

Accountability and evaluation demands are familiar terms to social service staff. The new supervisor needs to shift from a process orientation to a product orientation of accountability and evaluation. Middleman and Rhodes (1985) describe the orientations as follows. The process orientation emphasizes the subtleties of practice and focuses on the means to achieve program goals in meeting clients' needs (e.g. clients' awareness of need for intervention). Practitioners approach accountability and evaluation in terms of process--the client reports feeling better. The matters of importance for a practitioner is "clients." A product orientation focuses on indicators of the success probability of a program for the agency's total client group (e.g. client employment following a job training program). The matters of importance in product orientation are "all clients" and "all workers." Product outcomes are important in satisfying client, agency, and public demands for accountability. These outcomes are expected in tangible changes in the client but in fact may be difficult to measure.

Supervisors need to support the process concerns of their practitioners. In addition, supervision responsibilities of accountability and evaluation require them to emphasize measurable and specific outcomes to their practitioners in order that they can be used as evidence that the agency has achieved its program goals.

The quality/quantity demand is likely to produce conflict between a supervisor and one's supervisees. Practitioners may resist the pressure of time, quantity demand and limited agency resources and attempt to provide service for the maximum benefit of one client. A supervisor's

task is to assure that quantitative services are provided in a qualitative manner. Middleman and Rhodes (1985) state that it is imperative that a supervisor recognize that each program area is competing for resources that are insufficient to the needs of all worker-client situations, hence, one needs to look for alternatives available within the realities of limited resources.

A supervisor's effort to focus one's supervisees to the concept of accountability and evaluation of the agency, its goals and resource allocations, may lead one's supervisees to confront one with the statement "You sold out to administration." Practitioners expect the supervisor to see issues from their perspective as the supervisor was once one of them before being promoted. The change in position and the responsibilities that go along with being a supervisor do change one's perception of agency roles, policies and procedure. Supervisors experience more access to information, more variables to consider than practitioners, and hence, their view becomes more broadly based. This change is reinforced as a consequence of experiencing, as a supervisor, the political effects of agency policy which the practitioners only know about.

Organizational Dynamics

Holloway (1980) holds that for practitioners to effectively make the transition to supervisors, they need a better understanding than typically exists of the effects of organizational structure. Patti et al (1979) in their survey of practitioner turned supervisor found that the political aspect of administration was one of the two areas that posed the most difficulty in the transition for new supervisors.

A new supervisor will have to deal with the realities of agency politics and organizational dynamics. The new supervisor should examine the system. Middleman and Rhodes (1985) states that a new supervisor should familiarize oneself with agency operations by finding out "...who makes what kind of decisions; who are the informal leaders; what is the agency's philosophy about service; and what are the existing linkages to the community power structures and to client-advocacy groups" (p. 68). Middleman and Rhodes (1985) continue to state that one should analyze one's role in the network of personnel, programs and administrative relationships and also identify similarities and differences in expectations of one's behavior by supervisees, supervisory peers and supervisors. For example, one needs to identify who relies on whom, who relies on you and who you can rely on. One needs to learn the system.

Pattie et al (1979) identify that new supervisors felt that one of their most difficult hurdles was to develop a systematic, as opposed to individual, perspective in understanding of how their organizations operate. A new supervisor needs to restructure one's thinking from the individual case to thinking in wholes and patterns.

To deal with the transition new supervisors must develop a conception of what the new position entails--behaviorally and attitudinally; learn new behaviors and attitudes appropriate to the new position; develop a new image of themselves; accept changed relationships with peers and newly acquired colleagues.

On the basis of research findings, Patti et al (1979) state it appears that "Despite the obvious difficulties in making the transition to management, the data also suggest that in many respects the

respondents' past clinical education and experience was perceived by them as an aid in the process. As a consequence the role discontinuity and identity problems encountered, although quite apparent, appear to have been much less intense than we had assumed" (p. 151). Scurfield's (1981) survey of clinicians moving into administration revealed that clinicians tended to minimize the difference between clinical and administrative practice. Although the Scurfield (1981) and Patti et al (1979) surveys reveal that the transition from practitioner to supervisor was not seen as traumatic, it was expressed as a period of considerable stress and adjustment. As pointed out, the transition often involves a loss of peer support, professional isolation and discomfort with the use of authority.

EVALUATION OF SESSION: TRANSITION FROM PRACTITIONER TO SUPERVISOR

Objective of Session

The supervisors will:

- Gain increased knowledge of the stresses of becoming a supervisor.

- Gain awareness of the four issues that supervisors need to address in their transition.

Please give your reaction to the following statements by checking (✓) the category that reflects your views:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Did the session meet the objective as stated above?				
2. The information presented in this session will be of use to you in your work.				
3. The session was well presented.				
4. The presentation of the material was well organized.				
5. The content of the session was adequate.				
6. The material was presented at a pace that was suitable to you.				

7. All in all, I would rank the session as:

Useful

Somewhat useful

Not useful

8. Additional comments:

TEAM BUILDING

Objectives

The supervisors will:

- Develop an understanding of the concept of a team.
- Know one another better.
- Further develop their work relationships.

Agenda

1. "Who Am I" exercise.
2. What is a team?
3. How is a team developed?
4. Team building:
 - (a) Engaging in a team building exercise.

BREAK

Continue team building exercise.

SUMMARY

EVALUATION

TEAM BUILDING

What is a Team?

A team is a group of people each of whom possess particular expertise, each of whom is responsible for making individual decisions, who together hold a common purpose, who meet together to communicate, collaborate and consolidate knowledge from which plans are made and actions determined and future decisions influenced (Brill, 1976).

Designating a group of people as a team does not automatically ensure their ability to work as a team.

How a Team is Developed?

1. A team of people is built by:
 - (a) Gathering the members in a comfortable relaxed setting.
 - (b) Giving the members time to get to know one another.
 - (c) Helping members to see one another as people.
 - (d) Each person contributing out of his/her uniqueness.
 - (e) Each person accepting his/her own and others feelings.
 - (f) Keeping on growing.
2. The members of the group (not just the chairperson) become willing to assume responsibility for the way the group acts:
 - (a) Proper functioning of the group then does not depend solely on a single leader.
 - (b) This type of shared leadership is highly desirable if program continuity is to be maintained.
3. The members of the group perform the needed roles:

(a) Task roles that get the job done and the content covered; initiating, information or opinion seeking and giving, clarifying, summarizing, consensus testing.

(b) Maintenance roles that keep the group process running well; encouraging, harmonizing, compromising, gate keeping, relieving tension.

Team Building (Exercise)

Engaging in team building (see attached for description of exercise).

"WHO AM I?" EXERCISEPurpose

- To allow participants an opportunity to get to know one another in a non-threatening way.

Process

- Participants are given 10 minutes to write ten different answers to the question "Who am I?".
- Each participant teams up with another person which he/she knows the least well in the group.
- Participants share their answers to the question "Who am I?".

Time

- 45 minutes

TWENTY-FIVE QUESTIONS: A TEAM DEVELOPMENT EXERCISE

Purpose

- To enhance work relationships in teams.
- To stimulate group discussion about work related issues.

Process

- The purpose of this exercise is explained to the team.
- The ground rules for the exercise are explained.
- The team development exercise questions are distributed to the participants.
- The exercise is started by one of the team members asking a question.
- Near the end of the exercise the facilitator asks the team "If we were to quit right now and never do this again what questions would you regret not having asked someone?" The facilitator encourages the team to ask these questions.
- The entire process is critiqued by the team members.

Time

- Approximately two hours (Pfeiffer & Jones, 1972-1977).

TEAM DEVELOPMENT EXERCISE QUESTION FORM

Directions

The list of questions below is designed to stimulate group discussion around work-related topics. The following ground rules should concern this discussion:

1. Take turns asking questions, either to specific individuals or to the group as a whole.
2. You must be willing to answer any question which you ask.
3. Any member may decline to answer any question which someone else asks.
4. Work with the person who is answering to make certain that effective two-way understanding takes place.

Questions (may be asked in any order)

1. How do you feel about yourself in your present job?
2. What do you see as the next step in your career development?
3. What personal characteristics do you have that get in the way of your work?
4. What are you doing best right now?
5. What are you trying to get accomplished in your work?
6. Where do you see yourself ten years from now?
7. How are you perceiving me?
8. What would you predict to be my assessment of you?
9. What was your first impression of me?
10. How many different hats do you wear?
11. How do you typically behave when a deadline is approaching?
12. What kind of relationship do you want with me?
13. What things do you do best?

14. What factors in your job situation impede your goal-accomplishment?
15. Whom are you having the most difficulty with right now? (What is that person doing? What is your reaction?)
16. To whom are you closest in your work situation?
17. Where would you locate yourself on a ten-point scale of commitment to the goals of this group (1 is low, 10 is high)?
18. What part are you playing in this group?
19. How do you want to receive feedback?
20. What do you think I'm up to?
21. What puzzles you about me?
22. How are you feeling right now?
23. What issue do you think we must face together?
24. What do you see going on in the group right now?
25. What personal growth efforts are you making.

(Pfeiffer & Jones, 1972-1977)

EVALUATION OF TEAM BUILDING SESSION

Objectives of Session

The supervisors will:

- Develop an understanding of the concept of a team.
- Get to know one another better.
- Further develop their work relationships.

Please give your reaction to the following statements by checking (✓) the category that reflects your views:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Did the session meet the objectives as stated above?				
2. The information presented in this session will be of use to you in your work.				
3. The session was well presented.				
4. The presentation of the material was well organized.				
5. The content of the session was adequate.				
6. The material was presented at a pace that was suitable to you.				

7. All in all, I would rank the session as:

Useful

Somewhat useful

Not useful

8. Additional comments:

THREE FUNCTIONS OF SUPERVISION -
ADMINISTRATION/EDUCATION/SUPPORT

The administrative function involves the directing, coordinating and evaluating of practitioners.

The educational function relates to the transmission of knowledge, skills and values from an experienced supervisor to a practitioner.

The supportive function involves sustaining practitioner morale, facilitating personal growth and increasing sense of worth (Austin, 1981).

The ultimate goal of supervision is to effectively and efficiently provide clients with the particular service the agency is mandated to provide. It is towards this goal that the supervisor administratively coordinates the practitioners' work with others in the agency, educates the practitioners to a more skillful performance of their task and supports the practitioners in performance of these tasks (Kadushin, 1985).

ADMINISTRATIVE SUPERVISION

Objectives

The supervisors will:

- Gain increased knowledge of the specific tasks they perform in the administrative function of supervision.
- Develop an understanding of the two assumptions of man, Theory X and Theory Y.
- Develop an understanding of how Theory X and Theory Y are applied to management styles.
- Gain insight as to their working style in supervision.

Agenda

1. Three functions of supervision:
 - (a) The goals of administration/education/support.
 - (b) The ultimate goal of supervision.
2. Supervisory tasks in administrative supervision:
 - (a) Hiring--need and criteria
 - (b) Orientation to agency work
 - (c) Work planning
 - (d) Work assignment
 - (e) Work delegation
 - (f) Monitoring, reviewing and evaluating work
 - (g) Co-ordinating work
 - (h) Communication function
 - (i) Administrative buffer
3. Management styles:
 - (a) Theory X and Theory Y
4. Film. "Theory X and Theory Y. The work of Douglas McGregor."
 - (a) Part 1 - Examples and discussions are directed to a comparison of two sets of assumptions. (University of Winnipeg film)

BREAK

5. Film. "Theory X and Theory Y. The work of Douglas McGregor."

(a) Part 2 (optional) - The viewer is shown why a Theory Y manager will likely elect greater productivity from his/her employees.
(University of Winnipeg film)

6. Determining one's working cycle.

SUMMARY

EVALUATION

ADMINISTRATIVE SUPERVISION

The specific tasks that supervisors perform in the administrative function of supervision are:

1. Hiring:
 - need and criteria
2. Orientation to agency work
3. Work planning:
 - specific task to be performed by practitioner
 - time limits
4. Work assignment:
 - depends on practitioner's ability
 - practitioner's current caseload pressures
 - variety of a caseload
 - stimulation of challenge
 - team decision making
5. Work delegation (how the work is to be accomplished):
 - supervisor gives detailed directives to practitioner
 - supervisor gives general directives to practitioner
 - supervisor and practitioner cooperatively decide on directives
 - practitioner has free reign

The decision around task assignment and autonomy given to practitioners depends on these factors:

1. Complexity of the task.

2. Level of practice skills.
3. Caseload of practitioner.
4. Vulnerability of risk to client.
5. Sensitive nature of the problem/visibility of the error.
6. Readiness of supervisors and practitioners to take risks.
7. Administrative penalties for supervisory failure.
8. Practitioners relationship to client and political group (chief and council).
9. Monitoring, reviewing and evaluating work:
 - Ensuring the job gets done in an allotted time and according to agency procedure.
10. Coordinating work.
11. Communication function:
 - Gathering information from others and transmitting the information to others.
12. Administrative buffer:
 - Handles problems related to service (Kadushin, 1985).

In 1960 McGregor published his work "The Human Side of Enterprise." McGregor stated that management's thinking and action was based on two different sets of assumptions about people. McGregor called these two assumptions Theory X and Theory Y and they are applied to management styles. Supervisors or administrators are either Theory Y managers or Theory X managers.

McGREGOR'S
MANAGERIAL VIEWS OF MAN

Theory X Assumptions	Theory Y Assumption
I'm okay. You're not okay.	I'm okay. You're okay.
Inherently most people dislike work, prefer to be directed, are not interested in assuming responsibilities and must be closely controlled.	Work can be enjoyable. People can control themselves. People are creative and innovative. People are not by nature lazy and unreliable. People seek responsibility.
People have no ambition, are unreliable, uncreative, irresponsible, immature, lazy and above all want security.	Cooperation motivates people and is a basic mode of interaction. Relationships are based on trust. People are different from one another. People are open to change. People have complex needs.
Relationships are based on fear. People resist change. People have simple needs. People are alike.	Theory Y perspective can be characterized as an adult to adult relationship. People continually grow and develop.
Theory X assumptions represent a parent-child view where the worker is a child and the manager is the parent.	This view is an optimistic view of man and that human goals and organizational goals can be intergrated.
The manager using Theory X assumptions views the worker as a static, fully developed and capable of little change.	

(cited in MacDonald, 1980)

YOUR WORKING STYLE

Directions

The following items present situations that supervisors often encounter. Respond to each item according to the way you think you would most likely act. Put the appropriate letter to the left of each number, as follows: (A) always, (F) frequently, (O) occasionally, (S) seldom, or (N) never.

As a supervisor, I would:

- 1. Most likely help the workers by doing things for them.
- 2. Encourage workers to go the extra mile.
- 3. Allow them complete freedom in their work.
- 4. Encourage the workers to follow certain routines.
- 5. Permit others to use their own judgment in solving problems.
- 6. Stress making the most of oneself all the time.
- 7. Respond with help more readily when I know I am needed.
- 8. Joke with workers to get them to work harder.
- 9. Try to help the workers, even when they don't want it.
- 10. Let workers do their work the way they think best.
- 11. Be working hard to set a good example.
- 12. Be able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty.
- 13. Speak for others if they have not been effective themselves.
- 14. Expect others to keep working even when discouraged.
- 15. Allow the workers to try out their own solutions to problems,
even when I know these will not work.

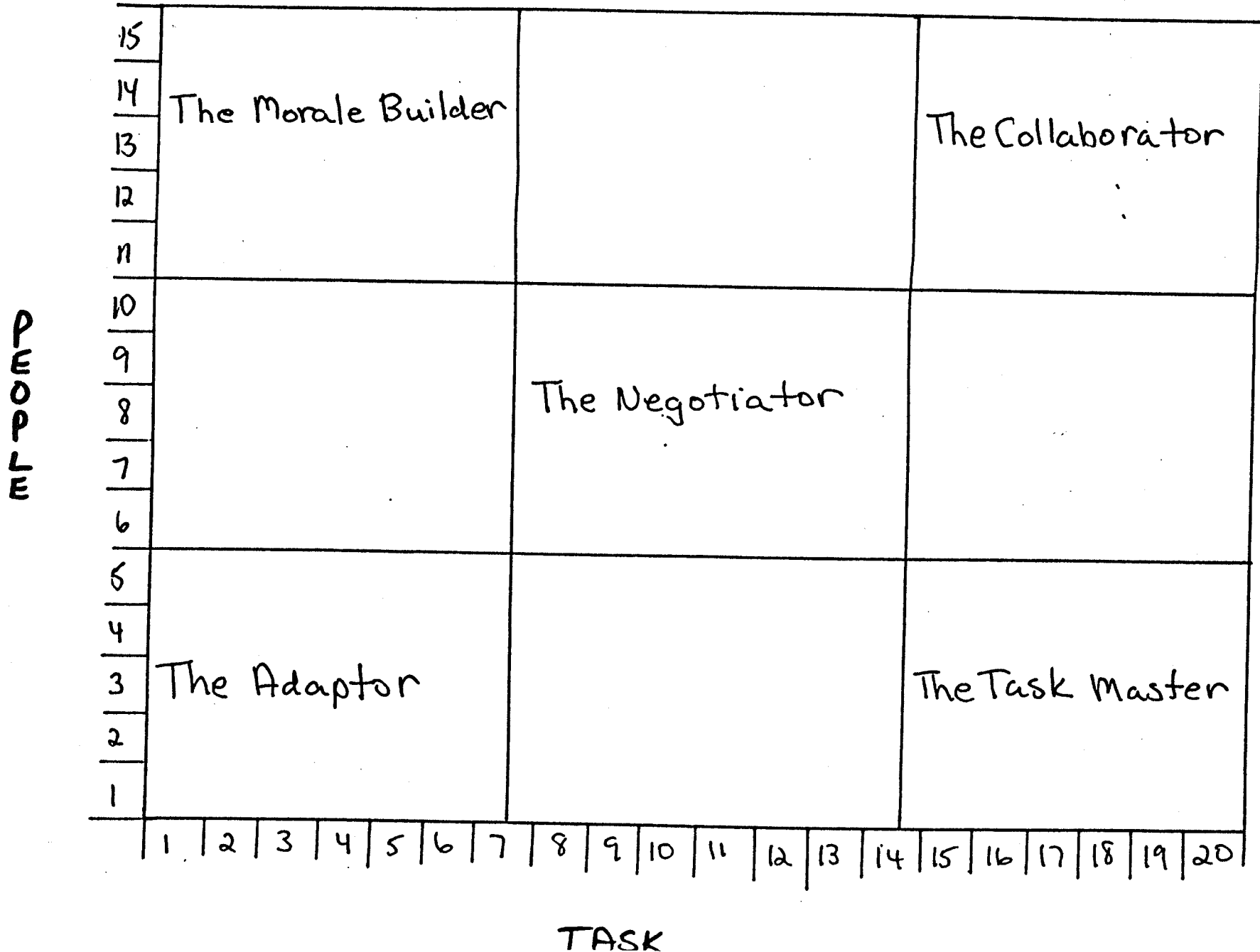
- 16. Settle conflicts between people.
- 17. Get swamped by details.
- 18. Present an individual's position to others if that individual is unclear.
- 19. Be reluctant to allow new workers much freedom of action.
- 20. Decide what should be done and how it should be done.
- 21. Push people toward high-level functioning.
- 22. Let some people have authority which I could keep.
- 23. Think things would usually turn out as I predict.
- 24. Allow people a high degree of initiative.
- 25. Stick to the things I know how to do even when others want other things from me.
- 26. Make exceptions to the rules for some workers.
- 27. Ask workers to work harder.
- 28. Trust workers to exercise good judgment.
- 29. Schedule the work to be done.
- 30. Not explain my actions.
- 31. Persuade others that my ideas are to their advantage.
- 32. Allow others to set their own pace.
- 33. Urge people to keep aiming higher.
- 34. Do things without consulting the workers.
- 35. Ask the workers to follow standard rules and regulations.

Directions for Scoring

1. Circle the following numbers: 1, 4, 7, 13, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 23, 29, 30, 31, 34, 35.
2. Put a 1 outside all those circled numbers where you put S or N.

3. Put a 1 next to all those uncircled numbers where you put A or F.
4. Circle the 1 next to numbers: 3, 5, 8, 10, 12, 15, 17, 19, 22, 24, 26, 28, 30, 32, 34.
5. Add up the uncircled 1's. This total is your T (task) score.
6. Add up the circled 1's. This total is your P (people) score.
7. Plot your P score on the supervisory orientations matrix (Figure 1), counting upwards 1 to 15; plot your T score according to the numbers 1-20. Connect these two values by drawing a line perpendicular to each number so that the two lines intersect at a point.

Figure 1 - Supervisory orientations



DISCUSSION OF SUPERVISORY ORIENTATIONS

We bring to situations our own patterned, learned way of responding to them. Two important attitudes are highlighted in this questionnaire: concerns about the task to be accomplished; and concerns about the people who are involved. Sometimes these two components seem to be in conflict. The supervisor needs to find a balance between both demands. According to how much the supervisor values each part of the work--responding to the human side of the organization, and getting the work done--one of five patterns can be described.

We have created our own labels for these patterns as an alternative to the preferred achievement orientation reflected in other such questionnaires and scoring grids. We do not join others who suggest one best way or who use labels that connote good and bad, desirable and undesirable patterns. In this sense we are consistent with the concept of the world as kaleidoscope and with the notion that for the competent, imaginative supervisor, the choice of response to a given situation is a matter of. It all depends...on people, task, and context.

The Task Master - You scored high on work and low on consideration for others. You may claim, "Nice guys finish last." The push is to get the work done well in the most direct and efficient manner, to sum up the situation quickly, decide what needs doing, and do it. The task master sees others as either effective or ineffective, right or wrong, with you or against you. You are highly persuasive, especially when in command and you may evoke respect or fear. You value hard work, expect to be right, and are intolerant to roadblocks. You expedite and decide.

The Morale Builder - You scored high in concern for others, low in concern for the work. Your motto may be, "The important thing is not winning, but how the game is played." You enjoy personal friendships, avoid being critical, use personal loyalties, expect consideration, think positive, believe in team spirit, and use yourself to relieve

tensions. You show consideration by shifting your opinion, and value peaceful, harmonious relations between people. You believe the work suffers if others are unhappy, angry, demoralized. You harmonize and accommodate.

The Negotiator - This is a middle position, some concern for the task and for others--firm with task, fair with people. You think "You win some, you lose some," and "Don't rock the boat." You see life as a compromise, like to be practical, value reasonable solutions, argue skillfully, and influence by using diplomacy. You push to get things done, but only to a point; you are considerate of others, but not all the way. You concentrate on the immediate and get it out of the way as quickly as you can. You are strategic in managing information to strike the bargain, to do the expedient thing. You bargain and settle.

The Collaborator - You are very concerned about the task and the persons involved. Your motto is, "The most important part of an iceberg is that part below the surface." You expect conflict and believe it should be openly confronted. You believe people want to work hard, be involved, seek best solutions, are valuable resources, and can cooperate. You work for solutions that meet the situation and others' needs for respect and pride. You expect you might be wrong. You encourage emotional expression and full expression of opinions. You collaborate and go all out.

The Adapter - You are not concerned much for either the task or others. Mainly your concern is for yourself. Your motto is "I may not become the administrator, but I'll not get ulcers." You value objectivity, usually go along with the majority, listen a lot, believe in live and let live, delegate as much as you can, and want to survive. You take a back seat, avoid the action, avoid taking sides, and try to get along with minimum effort. You delegate and go along with.

In plotting your score on the supervisory orientation grid in Figure 1, some of you may have found your score in a box without a label. The interpretation we have presented is our best estimate of the major orientations, and as such, it is not proven or absolute. Given the variability of configurations of context, task, and people, it is not unusual for some to end up in a blank box. To help those of you in this situation, we can offer the following ideas.

If your point in an empty box is closer to one labeled box than to any of the others, you are probably oriented in the same direction as the pattern described for that labeled box. If your score is basically

in the middle of an empty box, you are likely to vary your approach to fit the particular configuration of people, task, and context. For example, if you fall in the middle of the blank box in the upper center, you probably recognize that depending on the particulars you sometimes follow the pattern of the morale builder, sometimes the negotiator, and other times the collaborator. You can make this same self-assessment for each of the other blank boxes in relation to the labeled boxes that surround it.

Finally, regardless of which box your score falls into, we suggest that you return to the questions and the scoring instructions to identify which questions and responses produced your location in the grid. For those of you who want to develop further ideas on how to modify your responses to fit a particular pattern, this reflective analysis may offer some clues (Middleman & Rhodes, 1985).

EVALUATION OF SESSION: ADMINISTRATIVE SUPERVISION

Objectives of Session

The supervisors will:

- Gain increased knowledge of the specific tasks they perform in the administrative function of supervision.
- Develop an understanding of the two assumptions of man, Theory X and Theory Y.
- Develop an understanding of how Theory X and Theory Y are applied to management styles.
- Gain insight as to their working style in supervision.

Please give your reaction to the following statements by checking (✓) the category that reflects your views:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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5. The content of the session was adequate.				
6. The material was presented at a pace that was suitable to you.				

7. All in all, I would rank the session as:

Useful

Somewhat useful

Not useful

8. Additional comments:

EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION

Objectives

The supervisors will:

- Gain increased knowledge of the specific tasks they perform in the educational function of supervision.

- Increase their knowledge base of the core practice skills in the helping process.

- Gain increased knowledge and techniques of how to teach the core practice skills to practitioners.

Agenda

Supervisory tasks in educational supervision:

1. Assessing training needs of practitioners
2. Facilitating training
3. Suggesting, teaching and demonstrating

The educational process:

Supervisors meet with practitioners in individual/group sessions to teach practitioners what they need to know to do their job, and help them learn it.

Specifically, supervisors teach core practice skills:

- Tuning in
- Contracting
- Dealing with authority
- Empathic skills
- Sessional contracting
- Elaboration skills
- Making a demand for work
- Sharing one's own feelings
- Sharing data

How:

Supervisory approaches:

- Modeling
- Demonstrating

- Role playing
- Use of process recording

This leads to improved skills and increased knowledge.

Summary

Evaluation

EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION

Supervisory tasks in supportive supervision:

1. Assessing training needs of practitioners
2. Facilitating training
3. Suggesting, teaching and demonstrating (Kadushin, 1985)

Educational Process

Supervisors meet with practitioners in individual/group sessions with the purpose of teaching practitioners what they need to know in order to do their job and help them to learn it.

Core Practice Skills

1. Tuning in and Responding Directly to Indirect Clues

Practitioners should tune in to a range of possible feelings and concerns of a client before the first meeting and prepare to reach for them during the actual interview. Practitioners may be wrong and hence will deal with the reality of the situation. Preparation of possible feelings and concerns helps practitioners from reacting defensively to a situation.

Supervisory Approaches - Supervisors can teach the skill of tuning in by helping the practitioner to prepare for the first interview. The practitioner can engage in a role play as the client in an attempt to see how it feels and what the client may be concerned with. The supervisor can reach for and tune in to the practitioner's feelings and concerns of the upcoming interview with the client, demonstrating the

importance of the skills.

2. Contracting

During the first interview the practitioner should plan to clarify with the client the potential working contract. Specifically clarifying purpose, role and reaching for feedback on purpose.

Supervisory Approaches - Supervisors can assist the practitioner in preparing for contact with the client by engaging in a role play where the practitioner can try out clarifying his/her role and reaching for feedback.

Supervisors can also discuss the details of the interview, after the fact, with the practitioner.

Supervisors can also demonstrate contracting skills in the supervisory context. A supervisor should clarify the purpose of supervision, the role of the supervisor and reach for feedback from the practitioner.

3. Dealing with the Authority of the Worker

It is essential to deal with the authority theme early in the practitioner client relationship. The client usually has preconceived notions of the practitioner based on past experiences and/or stories from other clients and this may result in the client reacting to the practitioner in a hostile and angry way.

Some clients may take a long time to believe the practitioner.

Supervisory Approaches - The parallels between the supervisor practitioner and the practitioner client relationship is most direct in the authority theme. The supervisor can model the appropriate manner of dealing with the authority theme by addressing the concept in the

supervisor practitioner relationship. The supervisor should initiate and encourage discussions on the authority issue with the practitioner.

4. Empathic Skills

- reaching for feelings
- acknowledging feelings
- articulating the client's feelings

The skill of reaching for feelings involves a practitioner listening to a client describe his/her concern and asking about the associated feelings.

The skill of acknowledging feelings involves a practitioner acknowledging and accepting the client's feelings.

The skill of articulating the client's feelings involves a practitioner being in tune with a client and able to sense how the client feels, even before the client says anything about it.

Supervisory Approaches: Supervisors can model empathic skills in their contact with practitioners.

5. Sessional Contracting

The practitioner asks the client at the beginning of each session what he/she would like to discuss. The practitioner does this at each interview, even when the practitioner has an agenda, as this process assures the client his/her concerns will be heard.

Supervisory Approaches: Supervisors can demonstrate this skill by contracting with practitioners as to what they would like to do in conferences, before dealing with the agenda.

6. Elaboration skills

- Containment
- Questioning
- Reaching inside silences
- Moving from the general to the specific

Some practitioners may feel that to be effective they have to solve their client's problems. Thus the practitioner may provide solutions before really understanding the client's concern. Containment helps the practitioner to resist providing a solution to a client's concern before the client has elaborated in some detail.

Practitioners should ask open-ended questions to acquire more information on the situation.

Practitioners should understand that silence is a form of communication. Practitioners can wait silences out, ask clients how come they have become silent, or if the practitioner has a hunch he/she can reach inside the silence and try to articulate the feeling. This often frees the client up to make the next move.

Practitioners should be aware that underlying most general comments of clients there is a very specific concern. Practitioners should reach for the specifics.

Supervisory Approaches: Supervisors can model the skills of elaboration in dealing with practitioners.

Behind a general question asked by a practitioner is usually a specific troubling incident. Supervisors should ask for the specifics, the details of the interaction. It is from the specifics of an interaction that one can understand the situation and make a plan of

action.

Supervisors can help practitioners deal with silence by discussing what silence means to them and how they feel in silence. As we become to understand the concept of silence and develop confidence in one's practice one is able to reach inside the silence.

7. Making a Demand for Work

- Partializing
- Holding the focus
- Challenging the illusion of work

There are many ways in which clients show resistance. Clients may not return to the agency, miss appointments, avoid following through on agreed upon plans. Practitioners may feel that some sessions are an illusion of work, lacking in substance and feeling. Resistance is a sign work is going well. Practitioners need to continue to make the demand for the client to do the work.

Practitioners can use the skill of partializing the client's problem so that they are more manageable.

Practitioners can hold the focus on a particular problem until it is solved, rather than going all over the place.

Practitioners can also challenge the illusion of work by bringing to the attention of the client that they have created an illusion of work and to explore how come.

Supervisory Approaches: Supervisors can discuss with practitioners their reasons for not making the demand for work. Reasons may be due to lack of confidence of helping the client in the work phase and fear of being too demanding.

Supervisors should demonstrate the demand for work in making clear to the practitioners what the expectations of the job are.

8. Sharing One's Own Feelings

Practitioners can express their feelings as long as they are related to the worker's function and purpose of the encounter.

Practitioners should develop the same capacity to express feelings as they demand of their clients.

Supervisory Approaches: Supervisors can teach the skills to practitioners by reviewing specific interactions with clients and asking practitioners how they felt and how sharing the feeling may have helped in a particular instance.

9. Sharing Data

Data includes information, fact, values and beliefs held by a practitioner that may be of help to a client. Practitioners should share their data with clients when it is related to the client's concern and leave the client free to use or reject the information.

Supervisory Approaches: Supervisors can assist practitioners by pointing out the difference between sharing information and trying to sell the idea.

Modeling the core practice skills in supervisory practice is an effective way of teaching their use in the practitioner client relationship (Schulman, 1982).

EVALUATION OF SESSION: EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION

Objectives of Session

The supervisors will:

- Gain increased knowledge of the specific tasks they perform in the educational function of supervision.

- Increase their knowledge base of the core practice skills in the helping process.

- Gain increased knowledge and techniques of how to teach the core practice skills to practitioners.

Please give your reaction to the following statements by checking (✓) the category that reflects your views:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Did the session meet the objectives as stated above?				
2. The information presented in this session will be of use to you in your work.				
3. The session was well presented.				
4. The presentation of the material was well organized.				
5. The content of the session was adequate.				
6. The material was presented at a pace that was suitable to you.				

7. All in all, I would rank the session as:

Useful

Somewhat useful

Not useful

8. Additional comments:

SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION

Objectives

The supervisors will:

- Gain increased knowledge of the specific tasks they perform in the supportive function of supervision.
- Increase their knowledge of the sources of stress for practitioners.
- Acquire additional information on stress management.

Agenda

Supervisory tasks in supportive supervision:

1. Sustain practitioners' morale.
2. Help with job related discouragement and discomfort.
3. Give practitioners a sense of worth as a professional.
4. Provide practitioners with a sense of belonging to the agency.
5. Provide practitioners with a source of security in their performance.

Supervisory interventions:

1. Provide reassurance, encouragement and recognition of achievement.
2. Express approval and confidence in practitioners' actions.
3. Engage in active listening which communicates interest and concern.

Sources of stress for practitioners:

1. Administrative supervision
2. Educational supervision
3. The supervisor-practitioner relationship
4. The client
5. The nature of the work
6. The agency's organizational structure
7. The attitude of the community toward practitioners

Signs of distress:

1. Refusal to take part in training
2. Failure to adapt to agency changes

3. Displaying boredom
4. Performing job in a depressed way
5. Cranky and irritable
6. Decline of work performance
7. Looking for a new job
8. Resting on the job

"Managing Stress" (movie):

Examines the productivity of various levels of stress, how to recognize undue stress and how to handle stress. (University of Manitoba film)

Supervisors can act too:

1. Remove practitioners from stress:

- Reduction of caseload
- Providing learning experiences
- Time off
- Delayed deadlines/temporary neglect of some responsibilities
- Change of tasks (files)

2. Help practitioners adjust to stress:

- Stress management workshops

Summary

Evaluation

SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION

Supervisory Tasks in Supportive Supervision

1. Sustain practitioners' morale.
2. Help with job related discouragement and discontent.
3. Give practitioners a sense of worth as a professional.
4. Provide practitioners with a sense of belonging to the agency.
5. Provide practitioners with a source of security in their performance (Kadushin, 1985).

Supervisory Interventions

1. Provide reassurance, encouragement and recognition of achievement.
2. Express approval and confidence in practitioners' actions.
3. Engage in active listening which communicates interest and concern. (Kadushin, 1985)

Sources of Stress for Practitioners

1. Administrative Supervision

Compliance to agency policies and procedure and receiving work evaluations are stressful for practitioners.

2. Educational Supervision

"Until a practitioner learns what they need to know they may feel helpless, confused, fearful out of lack of know-what, know-how, and know-why" (Towle, 1954, p. 33).

3. The Supervisor-Practitioner Relationship

The supervisor and practitioner are involved in an intensive, meaningful relationship that becomes infused with transference elements, ambivalence and resistance.

Also the supervisor has more control over the practitioner which can cause stress:

(a) The supervisor has administratively assigned and sanctioned authority over the practitioner.

(b) The supervisor mediates the relationship between the practitioner and the agency.

(c) The supervisor usually has a role to play in hiring and firing the practitioner.

(d) The supervisor controls the practitioner's salary increase and promotions and determines the kind of entries on his/her record.

(e) The supervisor invariably knows more about some things.

(f) The supervisor expects, if not requires, the practitioner to reveal much about him/herself in the supervisory relationship.

(g) The supervisor's influence extends beyond the practitioner's tenure on the job (Levy, 1983).

4. Clients as a Source of Tension

Practitioners deal with clients who are emotional and/or in crisis situations. Practitioners engage in empathic behavior with each client and hence feel their pain and hurt. The emotional experience is cumulative, hence the practitioner becomes emotionally depleted and exhausted.

Practitioners often have no sense of feeling that the work is

completed. There is always more work to do and usually with the same group of clients.

5. The Nature of the Work

Practitioners are given the responsibility of the job but not enough power and resources to do the job.

Techniques and approaches for helping clients are not well established so practitioners may not know what to do.

There is no observable concrete identification whether one's intervention was successful.

6. The Agency's Organizational Structure

Frequent reorganization and changes in rules and procedures, central decision making and elaborate rules and procedure are stressful for practitioners.

7. The Attitude of the Community Toward Practitioners

In the past, the community's attitude to practitioners was generally respectful and approving. Practitioners were seen as providing an effective service. In the last decade, demands for accountability of service has led to research in the social services. The results of this research is disappointing. Practitioners do not do as much good as we assumed they did. This has lessened the public's perception and confidence in their work (Kadushin, 1985).

Results of Stress

Burnout is the exhaustive reaction of constant emotional pressure associated with intense involvement with people over a period of time (Pines, Aronson & Kafrey, 1981, p. 15).

Signs of burnout include:

1. Refusal to take part in training.
2. Considerable use of sick time.
3. Failure to adapt to agency changes.
4. Display of boredom.
5. Performance of the job in a depressed way.
6. Cranky and irritable.
7. Decline of work performance.
8. Looking for a new job.
9. Resting on the job (Austin, 1981).

Not one of these factors by itself would constitute burnout, but several factors may indicate burnout.

Supervisors can act to:

1. Remove practitioners from stressful situations:
 - (a) Reduction of caseload.
 - (b) Provide learning experience--workshops/conferences.
 - (c) Time off/flex time.
 - (d) Delayed deadline and temporary neglect of some responsibilities.
 - (e) Change of assignment (doing files).
2. Help the practitioner adjust to stress:
 - (a) Stress management workshops. (Kadushin, 1985)

EVALUATION OF SESSION: SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION

Objectives of Session

The supervisors will:

- Gain increased knowledge of the specific tasks they perform in the supportive function of supervision.
- Increase their knowledge of the sources of stress for practitioners.
- Acquire additional information on stress management.

Please give your reaction to the following statements by checking (✓) the category that reflects your views:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Did the session meet the objectives as stated above?				
2. The information presented in this session will be of use to you in your work.				
3. The session was well presented.				
4. The presentation of the material was well organized.				
5. The content of the session was adequate.				
6. The material was presented at a pace that was suitable to you.				

7. All in all, I would rank the session as:

Useful

Somewhat useful

Not useful

8. Additional comments:

APPENDIX J

LETTER TO EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR RE:
"EVALUATION OF PRACTICUM" QUESTIONNAIRE

919 Selkirk Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R2X 0B9

February 25, 1988

Ms. Esther Seidl, Executive Director
Dakota Ojibway Child and Family Services
702 Douglas Street
Brandon, Manitoba
R7A 5Z2

Dear Ms. Seidl:

As per our telephone conversation, I am enclosing three copies of the questionnaire "Evaluation of Practicum." One copy is to be completed by a supervisor of your choice who attended the training session; one copy to be completed by Morris Merrick and one to be completed by you.

A self-addressed stamped envelope is enclosed in which the completed questionnaires can be mailed back to me.

I am now in the process of writing up my practicum report and will send you a copy of the first draft for your feedback. I expect the first draft to be completed in a couple of months.

I wish to thank you for your cooperation and support.

Sincerely,

Elaine Smith

Encls.

APPENDIX K

RESULTS OF THE "EVALUATION OF THE PRACTICUM" QUESTIONNAIRE"

SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISION:
A CUSTOM DESIGNED TRAINING PROGRAM BASED ON THE
NEEDS OF THE SUPERVISORY STAFF AT DOC&FS

1. I would rank the potential usefulness of the training program for the supervisors as:

Low				High	Unable to Assess	No. of Responses	Rating
1	2	3	4	5	0	3	3

- (a) Ability in conducting and facilitating productive group meetings:

Low				High	Unable to Assess	No. of Responses	Rating
1	2	3	4	5	0	2	3
						1	2

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|------|------------------|------------------|--------|
| Low | | | | High | Unable to Assess | No. of Responses | Rating |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 0 | 3 | 3 |

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|------|------------------|------------------|--------|
| Low | | | | High | Unable to Assess | No. of Responses | Rating |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| | | | | | | 1 | 4 |
| | | | | | | 1 | 5 |

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|------|------------------|------------------|--------|
| Low | | | | High | Unable to Assess | No. of Responses | Rating |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| | | | | | | 2 | 4 |

(e) Ability in delivering the training program:

Low				High	Unable to Assess	No. of Responses	Rating
1	2	3	4	5	0	2	3
						1	4

(f) Ability in evaluating the training program:

Low				High	Unable to Assess	No. of Responses	Rating
1	2	3	4	5	0	1	0
						1	2
						1 (no response)	

Comments: In reference to 2 a), Day 1 - p.m., "beefing session" unproductive - facilitator may have redirected group.

3. My impression of the student's (Elaine's) interactional human relation skills, as demonstrated through the following:

(a) Ability in developing open working relationships with the supervisors:

Low				High	Unable to Assess	No. of Responses	Rating
1	2	3	4	5	0	1	3
						2	4

(b) Ability to actively listen and understand staff concerns:

Low				High	Unable to Assess	No. of Responses	Rating
1	2	3	4	5	0	2	3
						1	4

(c) Ability in clearly communicating thoughts, ideas and feelings:

Low				High	Unable to Assess	No. of Responses	Rating
1	2	3	4	5	0	3	3

(d) Ability to elicit open communication from others:

Low				High	Unable to Assess	No. of Responses	Rating
1	2	3	4	5	0	1	3
						2	4

Comments: Good interactional skills. Developed good relationship with participants.

4. It is my impression that the student's (Elaine's) educational intervention was of use to the supervisory personnel who attended the training session.

Low				High	Unable to Assess	No. of Responses	Rating
1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2
						2	3

5. Taking all things into consideration, it is my impression that the training program developed by the student (Elaine) was of use to the agency.

Low					High	Unable to Assess	<u>No. of Responses</u>	<u>Rating</u>
1	2	3	4	5		0	1	2

Comments: Information provided to individual participants useful, however, agency implementation of such a training program would need to be addressed.

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