

December 1969

ECAFE/UNICEF Workshop in Social Welfare  
In-Service Training

10 February - 6 March 1970

TEACHING METHODOLOGY AND TEACHING MATERIALS IN  
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SOCIAL WELFARE In-SERVICE TRAINING COURSES

1. This paper has been contributed by Mr. David Drucker, Lecturer, University College of Swansea, Wales, United Kingdom, who has been invited by the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East and the United Nations Children's Fund, East Asia and Pakistan Regional Office, to serve as a consultant for the Workshop. It does not necessarily express the view of the United Nations.

Teaching Methodology and Teaching Materials in  
Social Welfare In-Service Training Courses

1. Eduard C. Lindeman, writing in 1926, describes his personal experience:  
"My formal education began at the age of twenty-one after I had spent twelve years in various occupations and industries. I could, of course, speak the English language (at least, the Americanized version which workers used) but it was not my natural medium of communication. My initiation to formal education was, next to the unsuccessful attempt to adjust myself to automatic machines, the most perplexing and baffling experience of my existence. The desire somehow to free education from stifling ritual, formalism and institutionalism was probably born in those frantic hours spent over books which mystified and confused my mind. I had already earned my way in the world from the age of nine, had learned the ship-building trade, had participated in strikes, and somehow none of the learning I was asked to do seemed to bear even the remotest relation to my experience. Out of this confusion worse confounded (confounded confusion, some one has called it) grew the hope that some day education might be brought out of the college halls and into the lives of the people who do the work of the world. Later I came to see that these very people who perform productive tasks were themselves creating the experience out of which education might emerge."
2. In the first line of his book he says:  
"Education conceived as preparation for life locks the learning process within a vicious circle ..... to think of learning as a process which ends when real life begins will make no better use of intelligence than the elders who prescribed the system."<sup>1</sup>
3. Two Concepts of Education  
In 1942 Bertha Reynolds uses the term "advance preparation for living" to describe one of her two concepts of education:

"There are two concepts of education .... One is that it is advance preparation for living. Education is what the present generation wants to pass on to the coming one in the way of resources in knowledge and skills, as well as the heritage of its more or less sacred culture. This links the future back to the past, and has too often meant that the elders gave the young their own limitations. Nevertheless, the past is rich in values for any future, and each generation will always pass on what it can and foresee what it can of the needs of the coming years. The weakness of this concept of education is that it makes a break between education and the living for which it is supposed to prepare, and that the young too easily leave education behind, either because they have outgrown it or because they have ceased to grow.

"The other concept of education, which does not supersede the first but supplements it, follows the learner into life and helps him with more knowledge and the experience of others whenever he needs it. ....

"Any art or profession which demands constant growth needs to organise its education to provide for such interchange of learning opportunities. Social (...) work is itself a form of educational work in this dynamic sense because it follows people into life, at the point at which they need help, and brings them (.....) the use of knowledge and skills adapted to their particular problem. .... Social Work is, therefore, extraordinarily indebted to progressive education for its close parallels in method and approach, and social work needs to guard itself by all means against stereotyped forms of education which set teaching of academic subjects in opposition to the values of learning in an experience guided and interpreted by qualified teachers." <sup>2</sup>

4. It is clear that in social welfare we are concerned with people who are going to spend their working lives involved with people foundering, struggling, enduring, suffering, puzzling, persisting, resolving and hopefully surmounting the infinite variety of problems which are part of the human condition, in a world-wide situation of profound social change, with all that that implies. They find themselves faced with problems which, if not entirely unknown to their elders, are at least in new and bewildering combinations. For these the past can give only limited guidance as a storehouse from which we must intelligently choose materials to make over into tools for the present, in order to free ourselves to carefully examine our ongoing experience and thinking. In this

way we may determine something of the future in which others in turn will freely make over our contribution in ways that we can hardly hope to recognise, in response to their own quite different situations. This is not to depreciate the past but to start where we all are in the present and to emphasise the future as a series of on-coming presents from where others will be beginning.

5. Fine words, but it is the implications which are important. They suggest that the elders and the younger ones, the teachers and the learners in social welfare are sharers in a free exchange of experience, and set out jointly to give meaning to this experience and to fashion ways of reaching socially defined objectives.

6. The old relationship between the keepers and the receivers of knowledge gives way and the status of teacher changes - perhaps uncomfortably for those of us who painfully learned, earned or were given the right to become keepers. This also reflects change in an outmoded concept of welfare, that of "us" and "them" - the givers and the receivers - to a concept of we, the worker and his clientele being involved together, identifying the problems and using their experience, skills and resources jointly to reach agreed objectives.

#### 7. The Title of this Paper

Let us begin our process of sharing by focusing our attention on the title of this paper - a title, incidentally, derived from the needs you expressed in the answers to the questionnaires prepared for this Workshop.

8. "Social Welfare" involves a wide range of activities, but essentially suggests activities and relationships with people, such activities being structured and organised in agencies and service; training focuses on adults who bring to their task a wide range of experience, of education, and of abilities to work with people.

9. "In-Service" is self-explanatory, implying that ordinarily the trainees are already performing service or are temporarily relieved of that service with a generally clear idea of what service it is that they will be called upon to provide. Some writers, and indeed the United Nations in its publication "In-Service Training in Social Welfare, 1952" include educational leave (at home or abroad) as a method of in-service training. I am inclined to think that such leave, which is often for the purpose of professional education, should be seen within the wider context of staff development which one hopes will lead to better service in the long run, but is not in-service either in the sense of services being provided by the

It is rightly pointed out that professional education on its own does not fit a person for a particular job without subsequent in-service training.

10. We all know the depressing incidence of personnel given the opportunity for professional education who find themselves with infinitely increased job mobility and are lost at least to the agency and sometimes to the country who may have sponsored them and awaited their return eagerly.

"Educational leave requires careful planning both before and after. It should come at the right stage in the worker's personal development as well as at the right point in his service in the agency. He should have worked under good supervision and also himself have undertaken some relevant study before the course begins. When he returns after training he should be as carefully placed and supervised, in order that he may consolidate what he has learned, as any other newly-trained worker recruited to the agency. Moreover, educational leave should not be an isolated element in in-service training, but should be co-ordinated with every other part of the total scheme and planned, and granted in relation to the over-all arrangements for the continuous in-service training of the whole staff, and on the basis of an evaluation of each worker's present contribution and probable future performance ....

"Careful preparation beforehand and follow-up afterwards is almost more important here than in other forms of in-service training. Agencies sending staff members for study abroad will wish to do so in a carefully thought-out relationship to the total development of their service and to their in-service training plans as a whole. The selected staff members will find it essential to study in advance the history, customs and social services of the country of observation, more particularly the services they are going to observe. Otherwise they will not obtain the maximum benefit from the visit, will waste time and through lack of basic knowledge will be liable to misinterpret the meaning of what they see. Language study, particularly of technical terms, may also be necessary. The agency should plan to make full use of the workers' experience on their return,

through study groups, staff meetings, lectures and the discussion of written material. Where a worker has gone abroad in order to undertake new responsibilities or a new job on his return, it is axiomatic that plans shall be made to utilize to the full what he has gained and has to offer to the agency."<sup>3</sup>

#### Training is not Professional Education

11. The numbers who can be adequately educated to professional standards is small in any country, and although the demand is high and the few so educated precious (even decisive) the more important challenge and the one for discussion here is in the provision of personnel to do specific jobs in sufficient numbers at an adequate standard on<sup>a</sup>/non-professional level. Carol H. Meyer<sup>4</sup> makes a very strong case for giving up the idea that professional education is the eventual goal of many social workers. She acknowledges the reality that in competition with other professions and fields of higher learning, there will never be enough people who are academically suited for full professional education in social work nor would social work schools be able to handle such numbers even if they were available. This acknowledgment should diminish the impression given to those who spend their working life in practice that they are somehow second best or have not yet "arrived"; instead we must encourage them to concentrate on on-the-job training as an excellence in its own right.

12. Meyer, although writing from the point of view of the American public welfare agency, has much to say, I believe, of value to trainers in Asia. Speaking of staff development, she says:

"Our plan rests on the existence of certain conditions that there will be a clear definition of the function and tasks of all social workers in public welfare, professional as well as non-professional and that there will be supports reflected in the administrative practice of the agency for the staff development programme. The staff to be trained within the agency must not be perceived as pre-professional social workers but would occupy a career line as social work technicians."<sup>5</sup>

### Training Objectives are Administratively Determined

13. This is a fundamental matter. The objectives of training, which lead to a firm guide to the training content, arise from a detailed statement of agency objectives and clear job descriptions. There must then be a further close analysis of what and how the job is to be done and what knowledge, change in attitudes, development of skills is to be the purpose of training. This is emphatically a matter for administration to decide (in consultation with such people as social work educators, of course); it is connected with the job, and does not spring directly and primarily from broad educational objectives. Educational principles and methods will of course be used to reach the administratively defined objectives. These matters I am assuming will have to be explored fully in one of the earlier workshop papers.

### Differentiation Between Professional and Non-Professional Jobs.

14. Carol Meyer differentiates between the professional and non-professional job as follows:

"One of the ways of approaching this problem sensibly is to determine what the professionally educated social worker is actually trained to do. What it is necessary to save him for will then become clearer. Above all things he is trained to exercise judgement, to make decisions about case problems, to weight and synthesize evidence, evaluate significance, determine need, estimate strength and potentials, diagnose psychosocial problems, and use his personal resources consciously in his relationships with clients.

"No amount of agency training can develop the theoretical knowledge and the controlled practice skills which are acquired only through a long process of studious integration of classroom work and field practice.

"What, then, is left for the agency trained worker? There remain those tasks that are not practicable for the professionally trained workers to do as long as there are not enough of such workers and they must be conserved for functions more appropriate to their level. The agency trained worker can be instructed and supervised to secure information, to record data, to observe and identify problems that are apparent to him and will serve as clues to the professional worker, and to assemble facts. Moreover, he can be trained to interview and to take treatment

actions that are carefully defined in direction and aim. The professional worked may then devote his time to applying the knowledge and skills with which he is equipped by education, while his non-professional team-mate may supplement his own practice thereby, using skills that may be developed within the agency." <sup>6</sup>

#### Training the Responsibility of Agencies Not Schools of Social Work

15. She also argues that training programmes for social workers are not properly the responsibility of schools of social work and that the school staff do not naturally have the job competence, nor can they be as effective within the school, as training which is firmly placed in the administration of the agency or service itself.

"While schools of social work may be enlisted to supplement in-service training programmes, it is important to distinguish between professional education and in-service training, as only in-service training is conducted within the agency structure, accountable to its administration and subject to the strains and limitations of its organizational structure.

"It is important to make this difference clear, because the very location of in-service training within a bureaucratic public welfare agency modifies educational aims and values and imposes demands that would never be tolerated in an academic setting." <sup>7</sup>

16. The point to be emphasized here is that training is not primarily educational in aim (professional or otherwise) but is vocationally-related to a job of work, not to subjects or to theories.

#### Differentiation between Training and Professional Education

17. "In summary, field work for the graduate social work student is a creative, challenging experience with the chief objective of giving the student a controlled area in which to put his knowledge of theory to work; not to get the job done, although this might be serendipitous. Quite the reverse is true in the case of agency training, where the job must be done and any learning that may come of it secondarily is a "bonus" to the worker and the agency."



"Another significant aspect of professional education that differentiates it from agency training is the fact that it is generic in its focus; that is, it aims to educate the student across the lines of all fields of social work, certainly beyond the confines of particular agency practice, and even across the boundaries of particular methods."

"...we have come to view ... inservice training as fulfilling a different but supplementary role to ... graduate social work education."

"The definitions of education and training will help to orient us in our discussions of methods, for recognition of the difference between the two will be clarifying, and ultimately will affect the specific mode of agency training. The dictionary defines education as 'the totality of the information and qualities acquired through instruction and training, which further the development of an individual physically, mentally, and morally'. In differentiating education from training, the dictionary states further that while ... 'education is the general and formal word for schooling of whatever sort, especially as gained in an institution of learning, training suggests exercise or practice to gain skill, endurance, or facility'. Thus, education connotes an open-ended objective, best achieved through a process of unfolding, of developing the thinking processes. On the other hand, training is concerned with adapting to the needs of the situation. Clearly, therefore, a specific aim is involved in the training process which is not inherent in the educative process."<sup>8</sup>

18. This view firmly advocates knowledge as and when it is appropriate for staff use, suggesting more of a cafeteria-style of teaching than the more traditional formal set "meals".

#### The Question of Subjects

19. As a way of organising knowledge and adding to an intellectual "pyramid"

scholars have for convenience divided the whole conglomerate of reality into convenient subjects. But as Lindeman points out:

"Conventional education has somehow become enslaved to a false premise: knowledge is conceived to be a precipitation, a sediment of the experience of others; it is neatly divided into subjects which in turn are parcelled out to students, not because students express eagerness or interest, but because the subject fits into a traditional scheme - so much mathematics, so much history, so much language, etc., and above all so much regard for disciplinary values as to make even the study of interesting subjects an uninteresting task. Happy the student whose teacher knows more than his subject. And brave the teacher who dares to reveal his special subject in the context of the whole of life and learning.

"Subjects, we need to be reminded, are merely convenient labels for portions of knowledge to which specialists have given attention. Research is probably clarified by the departmentalising of knowledge; and the investigator who calls himself an economist will undoubtedly profit by delimiting the area of his enquiry, by specifying his problems. If, on the other hand, teachers assume that education can be achieved by the same procedure, they will ultimately succeed in reversing the true educative process; their students will be inclined to view education as mastery of subjects instead of mastery of life. After all, it requires no more than common insight to perceive that life does not present itself to us in the form of experience, some of which may be labelled economic, some physical, some social, some linguistic, etc."<sup>9</sup>

20. You will note that I have talked about 'convenient' subjects. The question is: convenient for what and for whom?

21. Convenient for the structuring of knowledge, but we cannot fail to observe that the subjects have a way of breaking into sub-subjects and reforming into new subjects, and in our time we are increasingly concerned about the fragmentation of knowledge. C.P. Snow goes as far as to suggest that knowledge has divided itself into two specific cultures and distinguishes between the cultures of science and art. But social workers need an integration of knowledge for use, derived both from the social sciences and from the art of human relations.

The Focus on Learners - Calls for New-Style Teaching

22. In the same way as in social welfare generally concentration on giving has moved to consideration of what this means in experience of the receiver, so teaching has moved from subjects to learners. How do learners learn? has become (or should have become) a major concern of teachers. Scholars and researchers adding to the sum total of knowledge are not necessarily good teachers, nor can they necessarily tell us how best to use that knowledge, and mastery of the subject should not be the sole criterion for teaching it. Reynolds observes:

"A beginning teacher has an almost irresistible need to demonstrate his command of subject matter by reciting it."<sup>10</sup>

23. What is being suggested here is that a clear relationship has to be worked out between subject and teacher, which will leave the teacher free to learn how the student(s) learn and to make the subject matter available when and in a way that the students can use it.

"The first requisite for teaching is to learn"<sup>11</sup> - to study the learners and "gaining from them the necessary clues to ways of best helping them in using subject matter, always in relation to what it could mean to these particular learners at this stage of their growth."<sup>12</sup>

24. Where there is great demand for social work teachers, there is a tendency to underestimate the nature of a teacher, and to assume that a high status, a relevant social service experience, the holding of a degree or a knowledge of a social science subject is all that is required. Examine the following: In Reynolds' chapter entitled: "Subject Matter in its Place", she says:

"A teacher who wants to find the point of living contact between each learner and the subject has a task which calls for all his alertness to what the learners are thinking and feeling. Subject matter which was very important to his own learning becomes secondary after he knows it well, to the problem of how to translate it into terms in which living people can use it."<sup>13</sup>

25. There is a parallel here between serving clientele and learners. It is not just the service or knowledge which count, but also who is receiving it and what positive use they can make of it. Such a concept is simple until it is lived against the familiar habits of outmoded educational practice and our own as yet primitive skills in making it a releasing and creative force. This focus on the learner is what we call the learner-centred approach.

"If a teacher can be guided by what is happening to the learner, he will be in a position really to teach what he has to give ..."<sup>14</sup>

### Principles of Learning

26. Ralph Tyler has listed eight principles of learning and the related characteristic learning experience.<sup>15</sup>

- A) The principle that 'learning depends on capacity' implies that an effective learning experience must be within the capacity of the learner, that the activities required in the experience are within the realm of his capabilities of performance.
- B) The principle that 'learning depends on past experience' implies that an effective learning experience builds on the past experiences of the learner. The learning experience neither duplicates what the learner has already experienced nor requires such a jump ahead that it is unrelated to the past, failing to utilize past experiences.
- C) The principle that 'learning depends on motivation' implies that an effective learning experience is interesting to the student so that he is deeply involved in it, not simply 'going through the motions' in a superficial way. It also implies that an effective learning experience is one in which the student obtains satisfaction from carrying on the kind of behaviour implied by the objectives.
- D) From the principle that 'learning depends on the search for meaning' it follows that an effective learning experience requires the student to seek and to find meaning. The experience must provide something which is meaningful in terms of the student's perception of himself and of his career. A purely routine practice is not enough.

- E) The principle that 'learning depends on perceiving relevant relationships' implies that an effective learning experience should be designed so that all the necessary aspects that bear on the situation are open to observation, and therefore the learner can bring the parts into meaningful relationship in order to construct the satisfactory 'whole'.
- F) The principle that 'learning depends on feedback' implies that an effective learning experience will give the student some indication of how well he is doing at that time, so that he can use this in guiding his learning. In the case of objectives involving 'understanding', for example, if he is beginning to understand the important concepts and principles, he realizes it, and pursues his activity in the way in which it has been 'paying off'. If, on the other hand, he is making errors in his effort to understand, the feedback gives him a clue to modify his efforts so as to try to get more accurate ideas.
- G) The principle that 'learning depends on satisfactory personal and social adjustments in the learning situation' requires that an effective learning experience be worked out in the context of good personal and social relations.
- H) From the principle that 'learning founded in the acquisition of meanings can be repeated and applied in new situations' it follows that an effective learning experience will involve a variety of situations in which the student has a chance to practice the desired behaviour, instead of having a single 'standard situation'. As the student has been finding meanings in his learnings he is able to see how the learning can be used in a different situation from the one in which he has acquired the meaning." <sup>15</sup>

27. These principles illustrate what we are now certain about - that learning is not just an intellectual process; the whole person, his feelings and attitudes are involved, and nowhere more keenly than when learning in the social welfare field.

Stages of Learning

28. Bertha Reynolds outlines five stages of what she calls "use of conscious intelligence" - the combination of intellect and life experience - which I think is particularly relevant to our thinking about how learners learn. She puts us further in her debt by suggesting what the teacher's role is in each stage.

29. Stage one:- The state of acute consciousness of self. This is the state in which, faced by unfamiliar situations, the person is unable to act. Fortunately, this is usually a comparatively short period. She tells us

"The role of the teacher in this stage of learning is security giving, helping the learner to find the solid ground of personal adequacy he already has ..."<sup>16</sup>

30. Stage two:- the state of sink-or-swim adaptation. This is the period in which the learner gets an inkling of what other people want of him - in which he is dependent upon approval or disapproval of those who seem at home in the situations. Bertha Reynolds says:

"Skilled teaching at this stage carries on the function of increasing security from mobilising the knowledge and skills the learner already has and encouraging him to trust and use his 'spontaneous responses'."<sup>17</sup>

31. Stage three:- The stage of understanding the situation without power to control one's own activity in it. This is the period in which the student thinks he has mastered the art and finds the practice of what he understands so well, still lagging behind. He understands what should be done but his ability to do it is very uneven.

"The learner can now, with help, think out for himself, after his spontaneous responses have apparently failed him, why they are inadequate and how his intellectual appreciation of what the situation demands can be turned to use in later trials of his skill. One can help a learner to say without loss of courage: 'I made a mess of that, didn't I, but now I understand where I didn't quite get hold and I am anxious to see if I can't better that point next time'."<sup>18</sup>

The author points out wisely:

"Our whole field of social work is only partially able even now to claim a clear understanding of what it is we are doing, to say nothing of being able to do as well as we know." <sup>19</sup>

32. Stage four:- The stage of relative mastery, in which one can both understand and control one own's activity in the art which is learned. The learner now knows he can deal with the experience and why, because he understands what it is and what its demands will be. He has related newly learned skills to his old acquired skills and to his natural responses to situations. The problem here is to prevent the student from becoming satisfied with his performznce, and the teacher's role is to bring new and challenging experiences to further the skills of the learner. Bertha Reynolds says:

"What is mastery today is apprenticeship tomorrow."

33. Stage five:- The stage of learning to teach what one has mastered.

"There is a prevailing idea that what one knows he can ipso facto teach. That idea comes from a subject-centred concept of education. When education is oriented to the person who is to learn plus the situation to be mastered, there is something more to teaching than proving to the learner that one knows the subject". <sup>20</sup>

34. She points out that the learner now as teacher may well find himself back at stage two, where he doesn't know what he is doing to help, but hopes students will learn somehow. It is expected at this stage that the learner will be freed from pre-occupation with subject matter so as to develop an ability to understand the difficulties of a person who is learning.

One of the ways to begin this process is through an educational diagnosis.

#### Educational Diagnosis

35. An educational diagnosis is the tool with which the teacher begins and continues to study the manner in which the learner functions in relation to his work and upon which the teaching progression is based. Such a diagnosis would include a description and relevant background information of the

learner; what are his goals and life situations; what motivations favour learning and what impedes it and must be outgrown; how does the learner best learn, and what holds up his learning; what has he already learned and what problems is he having at present in learning; what is clear to the student, still obscure, confusing; at what point is help needed and when does help get in the way; what does he do well and can be used as a base for security from which he can move into more difficult situations; how does he use the teacher's help and what does the teacher learn about the student's learning from the ongoing exposure to the work demands and the learning demands.

36. As he studies the learner and his work, the teacher selects content and as far as possible devises phased learning experiences for the student. We are not discussing here a therapeutic diagnosis in terms of the student's personality, but an educational diagnosis in terms of the way the student learns in relation to his working experience. Of course, the student's personality is of importance here, but it is his functioning in relation to the job which is the focus of the educational diagnosis.

37. Such careful work is of course best seen in supervision (to be discussed later) but a teacher must begin to think about the students in any group in this way and in addition, must understand the group as well as its individuals in establishing an educational diagnosis.

#### A summary

38. Until now I have emphasized the differences between education focused upon systematic structuring of knowledge and education for use and learning by doing. I have suggested that in-service training should be considered a specific use and that differentiation must be made between professional education and training. We must adapt educational principles and techniques to training programmes, and share our teaching experience. I have drawn attention to the learner-focused teaching as central to our efforts and offered a list of learning principles and stages of learning which I thought were particularly relevant to teaching social welfare in-service training programmes.

39. We must now turn to methods - a method being "an orderly systematic mode of procedure."



LECTURES

40. A definition:

"It is a process of verbal communication between one person and a group or assemblage of others where responsibility for that communication is carried and discharged by the one." <sup>21</sup>

41. Mrs. Perlman in a most compelling manner champions the lecture used in the proper way and proper place, and brilliantly explores all that lectures should be. Indeed, so exciting is her analysis that we hardly recognise that she is in fact discussing the very thing we are only too familiar with when we are subjected to or when we deliver (inflict upon others?) the ever-present lecture. Mrs. Perlman's paper is written as something of an antidote to the rising tide of disfavour of the lecture method continuing to play a prominent part in teaching, but even Mrs. Perlman argues within the context that:

"... the lecture must frankly be recognised and utilised as an auxiliary or supplementary method". <sup>22</sup>

Let her speak for herself. The lecture serves well, she says

1. to impart knowledge;
2. to organise and pattern knowledge so that relationships and significance may be seen which are the essence of understanding;
3. to interpret and illuminate knowledge which, though it may be in the student's intellectual possession, has not fully been savoured or digested.

A lecture

"may serve to provide such basic information as may not otherwise be available or accessible; to integrate and to make whole such portions of knowledge as have been culled from reading; to condense or telescope certain facts which need to be known at the time only in compact form. Such lectures perform the service of providing readied equipment with which the student may tackle their more important and compelling task - to use such knowledge in under-

standing, appraising, and coming to some conclusion about the problems at hand.<sup>23</sup>

"May set up for purposes of patterning or organizing that which the student has been learning or is about to undertake, may provide him a demonstration of ordered thinking and at least a temporary experience of security."<sup>24</sup>

42. For example

"The lecture with the purpose of organizing learning may take several forms. First among them is the lecture which sets the framework and essential structure of the course - what its scope, its bounds, its functions, and its means are - in short, its essential working anatomy. A major purpose of this lecture is to place squarely on the shoulders of the teacher the responsibility for formulating the bone and flesh of course content. When he has done this, he is ready to extract from it what will be useful to the student's beginning and continuing orientation. If the student's own efforts are to have direction and purpose, he must know - and he wants to know - what, in general, he will be expected to work at in this course, what problem areas will be covered, what focus will direct his learning effort, what responsibilities he will carry. Such a lecture, in whole or part, serves as preview or review of essential content seen within a steady frame of reference."<sup>25</sup>

"A brief periodic lecture may help him to take inventory. Such a lecture purports to take stock, to come to a full stop and to answer this question: Where are we, in relation to where we have come from and where we are bound for? No new ideas or knowledge are put forth here. Rather what the student has already learned and thought in small part is placed in some orderly relationship, either to other knowledge which he has or to some generalization of that knowledge. It is only as knowledge is ordered, related, and generalized that it is transferable from one situation to another and made usable to its bearer."<sup>26</sup>

"The lecture which organizes knowledge presents implicitly, and may well make explicit, a demonstration of a way by which that which has been perceived and thought about may be understood and used in further study. The student likes this, he wants it, because it is useful to him; it helps him make order out of what is often chaos for him."<sup>27</sup>

".... out of his own search for order, and, in part, out of his conscious or unconscious imitation of the instructor's ways of organizing subject matter, the student develops both responsibility and a greater capacity in making his knowledge manageable for use."<sup>28</sup>

43. A fascinating purpose of a lecture is discussed in what Mrs. Perlman calls "interpretation". She takes a quotation from John Cardinal Newman:

"The general principles of any study you may learn by books at home, but the detail, the colour, the tone, the air, the life which makes it live in us, you must catch all these from those in whom it lives already."<sup>29</sup>

"Beyond this plain need to make clear by definition and exposition is the need for interpretation which lights up the subject matter from within, which infuses it with qualities of feeling insight. All great teaching has this characteristic, but the humble among us recognize that greatness is not attained by will. Nevertheless, every teacher, if he is ready to be a teacher, is equipped in ways which should make it possible for him to impart some lighted vision of sweep and depth to his students."<sup>30</sup>

"So there are times when the student's energies or enthusiasms must flag, his vision becomes blurred, he begins mechanically to take the word for the spirit. Every teacher knows these "low spots" among his students. At such times the student needs the refreshment of the teacher's understanding, perspectives, and convictions. Perhaps this is the salient contribution which the teacher has to make to his students - not a more exact knowledge, or just the logical ordering of knowledge, or yet the brilliant play of ideas about it (for he may not be so gifted) but rather that, "having lived intimately with his subject, he can impart the colour, the tone, the air, the life".<sup>31</sup>

"So, then, what are the attributes of "good" lecture method? They are not essentially different from those of any good communication. The desire, the impelling wish, to relate one's self to another by speech comes first. In teaching, this desire takes on the added motivation of helpfulness - "I want to help you to know what you will find good" - and the fact that the student has chosen to be here bespeaks his partnership, though temporarily it may be a silent one. To communicate begins with a recognition of the one by the other. On the teacher's part it begins by his thinking about these particular students with whom he is to share his subject. ....

The basic essentials for good teaching <sup>hold</sup> for all: That the teacher knows his subject matter thoroughly and feelingly and that he relate to the learner with pleasure and respect. To these essentials the teacher must add his thought and clarity as to what specific purpose in furthering the student's learning his communication is to serve. When these elements combine, there is little relation between the lecture and exciting oratory or deadening pedantry. It may be seen for what, at best, it is: a means by which knowledge may be imparted, organized, and interpreted for its immediate use by the participating student." <sup>32</sup>

44. I have underlined these last words, for here the constant theme of this paper of participating students and knowledge for use is being emphasised. B. S. Bloom summarises as follows:

"It may be said that the lecture is especially successful in securing the attention of students to what is being said but that it evokes primarily those thoughts which are appropriate to the following and comprehending of information while the discussion is more successful in evoking complex problem-solving types of thought." <sup>33</sup>

#### 45. WRITTEN LECTURES

Perhaps a high proportion of lectures need not be delivered at all, but could be distributed after mimeographing or even printing, which would allow any number of students to read the material in their own time. It must be observed that where books or up-to-date material or duplicating equipment are not available, as occurs in some places, then the lecture is necessary but expensive in both staff and student time.

The United Nations Study Kit in Training for Community Development warns "... It has been found that lectures as such are not a very effective way of training field workers." <sup>34</sup>

#### 46. VISITING LECTURERS

All the problems are compounded when the lectures are brought in from outside of those immediately responsible for the training programme. T.R. Batten says:

"We have found that this is by no means easy, for, although we do not invite anyone to talk unless we are convinced that he has something really relevant and useful to say, we have often found either that he does not say it or, more often, says it in such a way that our group members do not grasp its full relevance and interest to themselves ... Thus however useful his knowledge may be, unless something is done to help him, much of the potential value of his talk may be lost. That this was actually happening was very forcibly brought home to us in discussion with the Course members. In their opinion some potentially useful talks had been largely a waste of time." <sup>35</sup>

47. Talking about specialists invited to lecture to a group, Dr. Batten goes on to suggest ways of combatting this problem:

- 1) .. get clear in our own minds just what we want the outside person for ...
- 2) Explain our purpose clearly and fully to the person concerned, including briefing him about the trainees and the programme period.
- 3) Brief the trainees about the speaker, what he has to offer, and the relevance of his material to the training.
- 4) Help the class draw out the speaker on the most relevant matters.

48. To get full value, the training staff must refer to and integrate the material as it becomes relevant in the course of the training programme. Bertha Reynolds makes a similar point:

".... What was wrong with the lecturing of the past was not that it was lecturing but that it was out of relation to what the learner could take and what he could make use of." <sup>36</sup>

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The emphasis is on the learner and on knowledge for use rather than subject; lectures must be the method of positive rather than automatic choice.

### SOME NEGATIVES

49. Let Mrs. Perlman have the last word:

"The problem aspects in the use of the lecture are obvious; they are the negative phase of all that is held to be positive and educationally valuable in discussion. In the course of the lecture the mind - or at very least the musculature - of the teacher is active and engaged. The activity of the student's mind cannot be known. He may actively be "taking in", he may actively be thinking of something else, or he may passively be letting the flow of words wash over him and drain off. Furthermore, the gaps or distortions in the student's reception cannot always be gauged, nor can the reactions and attitudes which may be roused in him and which may block or distort his reception immediately be known or dealt with. And not the least among the "negatives" of the lecture is the comfort it may provide for the instructor, not the comfort of feeling competent to work within a situation, but the too cosy comfort of having a situation which will work itself. ("Here it is, all written down, solid as Gibraltar, needing only my eye and voice to transmit it!")

50. Here lies the danger that the teacher falls more in love with his formulations than with his students, and the students, sensing this, reject both him and his love object." <sup>37</sup>

### LECTURES AND DISCUSSION

51. However good the lecture or the lecturer, the lecture is still a tool of the one to the many. However "caught up" the listener may be, his is the relatively passive role; in in-service training we are teaching for doing and must always aim to move from passive to active participation. In any event it is difficult to know whether and in which way the listeners have received the lecture and how, if at all, they are likely to be able to use what they have heard. \* "Learners are selective and transformative. Information which gets across and is used is never quite the same as was given ... Attitudes determine what information is taken in and how it is used". <sup>38</sup>

52. Mrs. Perlman in her exposition of the lecture method, sees this method "as auxiliary and supplementary" and makes it clear that

"it is a sometime thing. It is a communication which either sows or garners the fruits of discussion".<sup>39</sup>

52. We will be turning our attention to discussion as a teaching method in its own right shortly. Here we need only emphasise that a lecture can always be enhanced in its training objective by active participation. The lecturer must be prepared to answer questions of clarification, elaboration or on seemingly contradictions or possibly outright illogicalities. He should give illustrations or make further speculation, and so on. By encouraging orderly discussion within the audience and with the lecturer, and by seeking comment, different experiences, views or conclusions, or further illuminating what he has to say, the lecturer contributes much. If he can relate the way in which his content connects to other matters and focuses on the uses to which the content of the lecture can be put, he will be improving upon his presentation.

53. Like all discussion, it must be kept purposive and draw upon the material provided by the lecture. Some lecturers welcome questions of clarification or comment during the lecture - this gives some idea of what is being received. It does however interrupt the lecturer's idea of "flow". Questioners can be asked to 'hold' questions until the end of the lecture, but judgment must be used in handling these matters. A choice can be made, however, to invite and welcome "interruptions" or to leave discussion to the end.

#### DISCUSSION

54. "The discussion method of teaching has much virtue provided it has a predetermined objective, is contained within a prescribed time and is limited to the focus the teacher previously determines this subject, in this time, will have. This immediately suggests that the members of the group do not themselves elect to discuss what they want to talk about when they want to. Their talk



that is their thought, is channelled and directed in the way the teacher deems best. Within this restriction, however, all the dynamic elements of group activity can be allowed if not encouraged".<sup>40</sup>

55. There is no question that discussion methods in education are increasingly being used, explored, developed and found to be a valuable tool in reaching training objectives. Certainly discussions require an approach that differs both for those who traditionally sat at the feet of the wise ones and for those wise ones that merely seek to instruct. Discussion is a special kind of sharing in which both teachers and students actively participate, and this kind of participation is an important theme of this whole paper. It must not be thought that discussion in and by itself constitutes learning or constructive participation, or that it necessarily produces knowledge or skills in putting knowledge to use, nor does the deceptive ease with which the teacher often seems to be 'in retirement' during long periods of classroom discussion mean that discussion is simpler to conduct than is the preparation and presentation of a lecture. Indeed, keen preparation and control of the discussion are essential.

56. Discussion cannot be allowed to be about anything; considerations of time, of what needs to be learned, and what it is that the discussants bring with them to the experience will determine the nature of the discussion. Discussion cannot impart large quantities of information in a short time, as can a lecture, nor can it reasonably truly involve large numbers of people - though in classrooms or auditoriums uncondusive to this giving and taking there are techniques for breaking up groups into sub-groups occasionally in order to come to grips with this kind of problem. Discussion can be matched to the participants' needs, pace and background accurately because of the observable and ongoing feedback to the teacher of what and how the student is using the knowledge he is being given and the experience he brings. Indeed, discussion is a higher form of doing than a lecture can possibly be. Even so, the teacher must set the framework for

discussion, having supplied or made sure that the participants have appropriate and sufficient facts, ideas and experience to relevantly examine what has been set as the discussions's focus. The framework for the discussion must of course itself be part of the overall structure of the programme. The teacher needs to be sure that the participants understand and keep to the rules of the game - that discussion is not just self-expression but an opportunity to express ideas, question facts or assumptions, make different judgments and interpretations, pool experience, find that there is more than one way of looking at things - but all within the context of fact, terms of reference and theory, logic and reasoning; if there are differences of opinion, it must be clear what they are based on and preferences must be seen frankly as preferences rather than self-evident truths. Such an exchange gives students the habit of clear thinking and practice in organising their thought and communicating it, in sharing, in testing their ideas and synthesizing a variety of things into an order of importance and cohesive whole. These are the very essence of what the student needs in the world of social welfare, where there are clearly no unambiguous situations or single right answers.

### THE SKILLS

57. What of the roles and the skills of the discussion leader?

See how Mrs. Perlman describes preparation:

"He has set down his major teaching points. These are the points around which the student's learning is to spin itself. If discussion is to be the means toward that learning, then the questions which will provoke thinking in the desired direction can be formulated in advance. Immediately as this is done, possible student responses and reactions suggest themselves. In the quiet and safety of his own office the discussion leader may have that fantasy rehearsal which prepares him to expect even the unexpected and to be able to deal with it.

Perhaps it is needless to say that this is no rehearsal of the posture and the technique. It is the anticipation of the possible ideas which may be or need to be evoked by the central questions. It enables the leader to plan how stalemate might be avoided, how speculation can be encouraged or curbed, how movement may be propelled from generalization to the specific or the other way about, and so on. Finally, the discussion leader may prepare by setting down some rough formulations of the possible conclusions to which the class may come. By this means he has his goals in mind, and at the moment of summation he is not desperately dependent upon memory to serve him .... One danger may be inherent in such careful planning - the danger of over-planning and subsequent rigidity." <sup>41</sup>

58. There are times when the group suddenly takes hold of an aspect which is sometimes unexpected to the leader - something clicks; the leader must encourage the opportunity to let the students illuminate the subject in something of the truly spontaneous way that we mentioned in relation to lectures. Even if some major teaching points are temporarily set aside in pursuit of this illumination, we will plan to return to them in good time and in the meantime the teacher will have learned how the group is able to outreach, and learn excitingly for themselves. If the teaching points have been properly identified in relation to the group and to the material for discussion, it should not be difficult to find one's way into these matters again.

59. Bertha Reynolds puts it this way: (once again the emphasis is on learners - educational diagnosis - and for use):

"Since learning and teaching are both two-way processes, the teacher's learning experience with a group may be expressed as: learning to know the educational needs of the group and the way they can learn best; relating their expressed needs to the teacher's body of knowledge (theory and experience), and formulating an educational programme (a prescription, if you will) for this particular group; learning to give what will stimulate the group to use what is given in response;

adapting constantly to a running diagnosis of the group needs and to varied ways of illustrating the standard principles; learning to keep a unity in the midst of diversity of contribution from the members of the group; summing up what has been done, from time to time, and opening new vistas of what can be achieved." <sup>42</sup>

60. Auer and Ewbank, in a "Handbook for Discussion Leaders", <sup>43</sup> lists ten skills:

1. Getting the meeting started
2. Defining the question or topic
3. Keeping discussion on the track
4. Making occasional summaries in order to
  - a. Check needless repetition
  - b. Bring a random conversation back to the topic
  - c. Record apparent areas of agreement and disagreement
5. Encouraging general participation
6. Keeping the discussion from being one sided
7. Getting at the root of the matter
8. Remaining in the background
9. Concluding the discussion
10. Evaluating the discussion

61. Reynold likens the process to the squirrel running in and out of the branches but keeping his main path to the top. Perlman envisages the focus of discussion as the hub of the wheel and the leader rimming the spokes of the discussion; here is a selection of approaches in employing discussion.

#### CASE MATERIAL

62. Case material as the focus for group discussion is increasingly favoured. It brings to life what needs to be taught by the reality of the situation to be discussed. However, as in all such teaching, the material available should not ordinarily determine the educational objectives of the training programme. The objectives come first, and the material is clustered round these objectives; the objectives are of course what is selected to be taught, and are in a proper progression. The use of case material and its many-faceted and suggestive possibilities for discussion may well disturb

progression, but flexibility without neglect of general direction is the key here. However, let us be clear about what case material is. Each case should contain:

1. Sufficient background to the situation, such as sources of referral, agency concerned, family and cultural matters as relevant.
2. Some details as to the problems of and what had been done, and said by the client(s), group or community.
3. Some details about the worker's purposes and what he said and did.
4. Sufficient interrelation of (2) and (3) to show the responses and counter-responses of the persons and the worker concerned (this is what is called process).

63. The record should contain enough information to reduce conjecture and be pruned to eliminate irrelevant detail for the teaching purposes.

Case material obtained from the group members has a real advantage in being relatively simple to obtain; that is, it is derived from their practice and therefore immediate to the participants' concern. It has meaning for them, and perhaps most of all, it provides splendid diagnostic material from which the teacher can discern where the group is and what its educational needs are. There are of course dangers inherent in the use of this "happening now and to us" material upon which more will be said later, along with some of the training implications. For the moment it must be emphasized that the group discussion of the material is not used to solve the case (a focus more suited to the processes of supervision) but to draw out the general principles, concepts, ideas and techniques which are transferable to like situations - the knowledge, intelligence, imagination, skills and experience of the trainee being relied upon with the help of training to identify 'like' (and to what extent 'like') when he comes across it in classroom and in practice. It is in this sense that we use case material as knowledge for use; the material must be translated and modified appropriately, to bear upon a variety of situations. We are not concerned with the specific case situation that the material describes. Case material lends itself excellently to discussion in matters of observation and understanding of behaviour, simple diagnosis and plans of action, the illumination of social

work skills. The trainees should be able to identify with the worker in the case and feel that they themselves are faced with similar problems; they can be helped to think out realistically their conclusions and analyse what was actually done or alternatively suggest what might have been done to achieve different and possibly more effective (for what?) results.

#### CASE CONFERENCES

64. A case conference focuses upon the presentation of a 'case' for discussion by those persons closely concerned with the situation. This usually means people from different disciplines and with different responsibilities. It is a useful practice for trainees to prepare cases for presentation - giving clear and relevant information and offering opinions. It is also useful for them to hear and see how others view the situation, add other information, come to different conclusions and offer suggestions for action. A case conference aims at a consensus of opinion and an agreed and co-ordinated plan of action. A written account of the conference should be made and used for further discussion in the classroom.

#### BUZZ GROUPS AND BRAIN-STORMING

65. "The buzz-group is a term applied to the division of an audience into groups of six to ten persons so that on a limited subject everyone can feel more quickly involved in the total discussion period. It is most useful in rather large groups, especially after a lecture, so that everyone can get a chance to discuss the speaker's points. Brain-storming is a method used to develop thinking ability and to throw open the door for new, imaginative and unique ideas. Its emphasis is not on logical analysis but on spontaneously saying any thought that may come to mind in connection with a problem or subject. Brain-storming is an antidote to the "playing safe attitude"; it removes the barrier of timidity when the educator encourages the class to think freely, and even wildly. No evaluation or criticism is allowed of any idea while the storming process is going on. Judgment is suspended for the time being to encourage everyone to "think big"

by removing mental stoppers. Brain-storming should not be announced ahead of time. The success of "brain-storming" lies in the "storm". The number of ideas is important in brain-storming. Thus a list of about ten or fifteen ideas is produced, depending on the subject, the need, and the interest of the class. These ideas are then carefully examined by a committee - it is surprising how many have merit. In examining them the committee can ask the following questions:

1. Can it possibly be done this way?
2. Will the idea work?
3. Can this suggestion be advantageously combined with another idea on the list? <sup>44</sup>

#### ROLE PLAYING

66. In role playing, two or more members of the training group assume the position of persons in some agreed situation in which a problem is to be explored through the interaction of the persons involved, demonstrating their behaviour, feelings, purposes, attitudes, verbal and non-verbal communication. It is a mini-play in which the players adopt their own themes or rhythms (as in music) and the symphony of interaction of their individual themes is observed and listened to by the audience (the group). As in a play, film or music, many things can be happening at once, blending unwinding and reblending in a way that, by its nature, the spoken or written word hardly achieves because sentences - except in the hands of poets and novelists - (and social work materials are not specifically written by such, although we can put such works to our purpose as we shall see later) fail to convey the dynamic nature of relationships in which many things are happening with multi-dimensional meaning all at the same time. Experience has shown that role playing (once it has been accepted by the trainees) can lead to an

"astonishing degree of identification with the part being taken, which occurs quite spontaneously without any deliberate 'acting a part'. It may be used to demonstrate interviewing, what it feels like to be turned down for a job, to go into hospital, to be a handicapped person, to ask for help, or to be confronted

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with many other real life situations. Role playing may also be used to give realism to legal and administrative studies, for example by staging a court, or a board meeting to discuss a specific project. It thus gives an experience of group progress and of what it feels like to the individual to be faced with various stresses and demands. The 'play' is of course unscripted and develops spontaneously as the 'actors' become identified with their parts." <sup>45</sup>

67. The very force of this method suggests some of the dangers. The leader must now allow the role-playing to become drama for its own sake, but must keep it as a method of exploring situations and leading to full discussion. As in all discussions, some members may be tempted to reveal themselves in ways which they might come to regret, or which are irrelevant to the role playing purposes. It is common for a player to have performed with such conviction that he finds it difficult thereafter to have his fellows respond to him except "in character".

68. The leader must not wait for the play to be played out; he can stop the action at any point where he thinks enough material has been provided for discussion. Such social work activities as the following may be examined:

What has the worker(s) been hoping to achieve?  
 Has he succeeded or not?  
 What effect has the worker been having on the other players?  
 How and why has the worker succeeded or not?  
 What else might have been done?

68. This may lead to a re-enactment either by the same players or others. Sometimes in simple role playing the leader might suggest that the players switch roles, so that the worker becomes the client, and vice versa.

69. Occasionally less elaborate role playing might be temporarily adopted by the teacher. Perhaps he might say to the group: "Look, I am the mother" (the village leader, the Minister, etc.). "I'd like to ask you" (the worker) "Why' should my child ...." (this village, this programme, etc.).



This, in common with all role playing, forces the persons concerned into putting into 'normal' communication (conversation, tone, gesture, etc.) what he may have come to think about in jargon or rather vague terminology ("support", "help", "clarify", "interpret"). The teacher is here in effect asking "show me how you support".... etc. in this actual situation, and can turn to the client(s) and ask "Well, did you feel 'supported', etc.? "Why?" "Why not?" "What would have?", etc.

70. Much will depend on the skills of the teacher, especially in setting up the playing and the closing stage of consolidating and summarising what was learned from the role playing, and relating this to its applicability in, once again, "like" situations.

71. Enough has been said for you to see that role playing in the right hands and at the right time is a powerful tool for helping trainees towards sensitivity to people and situations, to tackle problem solving, and that it is excellent in the context of learning by doing.

72. Of course the group needs to feel secure in undertaking role playing and must be introduced to it with forethought and care. Role playing draws on group feeling and can both add to the group's ability to think clearly and deepen its cohesiveness. It has educational aims and should not in training be confused with role playing as therapy or used to put any of its members 'on the spot'. It is somewhat time-consuming and we must not be so intrigued with it as a technique that we forget to think about why we are using it, and at what point in the programme it is the method of choice. It is not enough for a good time to be had by all, although this helps - it must be good for something. That something must in most part be deliberately pre-planned.

73.

FIIMS AND PLAYS are a great source, though those specifically centered on social work themes are few in number. However, the richness of this material is enormous, which in fact is part of the problem, for the question of previewing, selecting, deciding on the specifics to be brought to the attention of the students, and focusing the discussion demands careful planning in the face of the dramatic and complex impact of the media.

I have known students so deeply moved by a film that they felt it undiscussable - at least immediately after seeing it.

74. Trainees might try producing their own films or radio scripts, or a series of photographs (film strips) to illustrate situations (see an example in Battan's "Training for Community Development").

### SUPERVISION

Definition: (It will be noted that the definition and objectives derive from supervision of professional students. For further definitions see Appendix I).

75. "Supervision may be defined as a disciplined tutorial process undertaken between two professional social workers, with the aim of helping one of them to gain a deeper understanding of himself in relation to his work so that he may be able to function more effectively as a Social Worker. Professional social work education, particularly in the area of social case work, has always relied very heavily on the contribution made by the field worker and the field work agency in providing the necessary supervision in the practical training of social workers. As with many other professions, notably medicine, the social work student is, at some stage in his training, provided with opportunity for direct personal involvement in the process of professional practice. This has been the case from the earliest days of professional education. Indeed, in the early days, training was provided wholly "on the job"...."<sup>46</sup>

### Objectives of Supervision

76. "The essential purpose of supervision is to help the student or beginning worker to apply his theoretical knowledge more quickly, more effectively and more consistently in respect of principles, diagnosis and treatment.

The supervisor seeks to clarify with the student, on the basis of the student's field experience, the way in which social work concepts, and theoretical material are applied in practice.

He does this by (1) identifying the learning needs of the student; (2) helping the worker to see what the client is really like, and what his situation really consists of; (3) helping the worker to recognise how his own reactions are influencing his judgements; (4) helping the worker to learn to observe and listen accurately, to know what information it is essential to secure and to weigh all these factors carefully in order to determine the type of individual and situation with which he is dealing; (5) assisting the worker to understand and to make discriminating use of community resources and of various methods of treatment and especially to make full use of the interview; (6) demonstrating to the worker, within the supervisory relationship itself, the same social work concepts and principles as the supervisor is stressing as important for the worker to have towards his clients.

These objectives are achieved by the establishment between the worker and supervisor of a mutual relationship which will make it possible for both to follow the student's work pattern closely, by means of an examination of the worker's recorded material and mutual discussion based upon this material. This requires in the supervisor a capacity for objectivity and an ability both to give and to receive constructive criticism in the interest of the student's professional growth".<sup>47</sup>

77. It is through the development of supervision as an educational method in the field of practice that social work has made its most distinctive contribution to learning as a whole. It is here that social work emphasis links with the concern of modern education for the learner and the way he learns, and here training is seen at its very best. It is of significance that one of the most outstanding teachers of social work, Charlotte Towle, entitled her truly monumental work: "The Learner in Education for the Professions", and in small print added: "as seen in education for social work".

The U.N. publication "In-Service Training in Social Work", in the chapter on Methods, states categorically:

"Educative supervision is really the heart of in-service training, for a new worker will waste a large part of his potential skills if he is plunged into the job to sink or swim. A good supervisor can, at the same time, be a continuing stimulus and a source of inspiration to experienced workers; for it is on the job itself that the worker really learns effectually to apply what he has learned - and this is the aim of all training. Good supervision may be a substitute for courses; but courses are never an adequate substitute for good supervision, for it is the method through which the best use of all other learning experiences may be made".<sup>48</sup>

Of importance to notice here is that supervision is described as "educative", for there is supervision of a narrow administrative kind.

"It is important to realise that the term, as used in current practice, has several different meanings. As used in many countries, it means supervision of a worker by his immediate superior, who is responsible for seeing that he carries out his duties efficiently within the prescribed code, neither exceeding his function nor leaving any loose ends in his work".<sup>49</sup>

Teaching and broad concepts of administration are included in the idea of supervision, and perhaps the United Nations 1952 Summing Up is of value here: "Supervision is a teacher-learning process rather than a checking one".<sup>50</sup>

78. There is a vast literature on supervision, much of it deriving from teachers of graduate students in professional social work and from highly developed agency practice in the West. There is no question that much can be and must be borrowed; however, much must be made over in relation to in-service training and in relation to the general social work educational resources in the Asia region. In most parts of the world, including the West, there is a gross scarcity of supervisors - those who have both vision and who are super. In this respect Carol Meyer's work seems to be of direct interest to the experience of the Region as it is reflected in the Bangkok Social Work Educators and Field Work Supervisors Report of 1966: She writes:

"What is the role of the immediate supervisor in this type of learning situation? The supervisor naturally must have the responsibility for the worker's practice, administratively and educationally. It is the supervisor who is present and on the spot, who knows

administrative supports and limitations of the worker's practice; it is the supervisor who knows, and is known best by, the worker. It would seem, therefore, that the supervisor is the primary source of learning as well as control of the untrained worker in practice in.....an agency".<sup>51</sup>

79. She recognises too, that supervisors are often those who hold such positions without their teaching ability looming very large in the promotion criteria to the post of supervisor. She says:

"How then can good practice habits be taught, particularly if the supervisory staff in the agency are the very ones who have been employed there the longest and may be the most tradition-bound group in the agency as far as practice is concerned? According to our conceptions of staff development as a process which must begin where staff are and involve them in all aspects of the programme, there is no choice but to accept the fact that the supervisors of practice are the core group to which in-service training must be directed. They are the ones who stay the longest, the crucial people when it comes to direct work with practitioners, the ones who know the agency's programme the best. They are the permanent foundation of the agency. That the agency's programme pivots on the supervisor group is particularly evident when the workers are untrained and transitory, and when case supervisors and other administrative staff are involved in keeping the bureaucracy going.

It has to be recognised that these characteristics of the first-line supervisors are the very ones that make it difficult to work with them. They often are not young, and usually have risen on the promotional ladder without professional education. Ordinarily they have an authority that stems from direct knowledge of the caseloads and the workers, to an extent that no other level of staff has in the agency. They are indispensable as is no other group to the ongoing work of public welfare. Therefore, it is obvious that the influence of the staff development programme needs to be felt first by the supervisors if the programme is to be effective.

The educational function of the supervisor is particularly crucial with respect to the untrained social work technician. Such a worker must have someone to tell him what to do and, perhaps equally important, to tell him what he has done so that intellectual connections will take place and learning will be transferred to later experiences. This is the educational component of supervision that points to the difference between when a social work technician is doing a routine job and performing tasks perfunctorily, and when he is deriving meaning and gratification from his practice. The supervisor is the only person under the hierarchical system found in most bureaucratic public welfare agencies who has sufficient access to the worker to help him find that meaning.

In-service training really rests, then, with the supervisor and not with the administrative unit of staff development personnel. The efforts of a staff development programme need to be directed to the enhancement of the supervisor's teaching skills, his knowledge of practice, and his constructive attitudes. Indirect as it may seem, the most direct way to affect the welfare of the client group is through training the supervisor of the workers who deal with the client".<sup>52</sup>

80. This matter states a position with such conviction that it might well be one of the most crucial issues for consideration in this Workshop. If, as has been my limited experience in the Region, there are countries in which the idea of an educator in social work is a strange concept because it is taken for granted that knowledge of procedures or a subject or even a straightforward status is sufficient background to instruct others, then it is likely that the idea of special teaching skills required for supervisors will come as an even stranger idea. Yet, according to Carol Meyer's view - towards which I lean - it is clear that it is precisely here that a breakthrough in service might be strategically best made.

81. What is required according to this view is that within staff development throughout the service structure the supervisors will be the key persons, being helped to turn their attention to the way in which the worker can best learn to do his job. A careful analysis exactly of what the job consists will provide the supervisor with a focus and a set of standards which the worker will be helped to achieve, and the supervisor by an ongoing examination jointly with the worker of his performance on the job will come to an "educational diagnosis" of the worker's present capabilities and will be able to plan for his ongoing educative supervision in a progressive manner. In a similar way to that in which the supervisor functions by concentrating on the worker's learning process in helping the service clientele, the supervisor must be helped by the available professionally trained educators to jointly examine the way in which he is understanding his particular worker's needs through the medium of job performance, and the manner in which the supervisor acts in trying to identify and meet them. The supervisor's experience in supervision will thereby become the focus for the development of supervisory skills and the growing sophistication of the method. It should be noted that in this arrangement the few well-trained educators are not working with the line workers. Quite apart from this being impractical in numbers and in time, the trained educator cannot really know the job, and in any case it is unlikely that he actually practised in a given service - and if he had, much is likely to be changed, as services change constantly to adapt to changing situations. The educator knows about teaching and learning, theory materials and subjects. It is the supervisor who knows the job and is responsible for work performance; he is now in Bertha Reynold's fifth stage, that is, "learning to teach what one has mastered". She says:

"To study learners to see what they bring to the learning experience and how they change as a group as well as individually in contact with the social forces playing upon them, calls for all the conscious intelligence we have as teachers and supervisors of field practice".<sup>53</sup>

82. It is with supervision that the specifics of a situation are examined in a way which does not take place in a group discussion and it is on the strength of the worker-supervisor relationship that the worker comes to openly discuss his performance in a way that is neither

efficient nor desirable in group situations. To say this is not to suggest that there are therapeutics involved; learning is the objective and although this involves the learner as a whole person and may subject him to many strains, the supervisor works within an educational diagnosis of a normally functioning adult and not within the more familiar psycho-social diagnosis of people in trouble or people beset by problems. However, it is this individual teaching - based upon the trainee's case records, careful examination of his functioning, and admittedly time consuming - which is the essence of supervision.

83. Charlotte Towle, in a paper on supervision, said:

"The student-supervisor relationship should not be a one-to-one relationship, but a twosome in which the two as one are continuously related to the agency and client. This relationship has been set up to serve the agency on behalf of the client, therefore these are kept in focus as a reality principle".<sup>54</sup>

#### TEACHING MATERIAL

84. Teaching material has been defined by the Council of Social Work Education Working Group as

"the medium through which a teacher (used in the broad sense to include all those who conduct staff development in-service training programmes) teaches and the student learns. Specific material may be visual in nature, such as books, articles, case records, excerpts, graphics; auditory, such as tapes or discs; audio-visual, such as films, film clips, kinescopes, film strips or slides; or action media, such as field trips, observation trips, role plays or dramatic presentations".<sup>55</sup>

#### Principles in Selection and Use of Material

85. Once more the underlying approach must be reiterated:

"That the teacher first determine the educational objectives to be achieved not only in the course of the training programme as a whole but in each phase of it; that he clearly defines the learning experience through which he plans to achieve them; and that he be in general clear in his own mind with respect to the behavioural changes



he aims to help the learner to effect in feeling, understanding and doing".<sup>55</sup>

86. Let us take feeling first. "Feelings" in social work are very important; they involve our fundamental values and our attitudes towards people, ideas about the inherent worth of human life and compassion for our fellows, tempered with the kind of dignity and humility which go with the feeling "there but for the grace of God go I", and the conviction that we are at least in part able to determine here on earth the human condition one for another. Within a training programme what materials could be used for this feeling component? Selected novels and stories, biographies and autobiographies arouse the talent for putting oneself imaginatively into another's place and extend our feelings into experiences we have not directly had, or make us know our feelings more sharply than we previously realised - the recognising feeling we have of "yes - that's the way it is".

87. In addition to the written word is that which is spoken - tape recordings, readings, songs, can catch the tones and hesitations, silences and nuance of sound (the cry, the whisper, the laugh, the shout, the scream, the sob, the cheer), tenderness, anger, joy, fear, tranquillity, and turbulence - the whole gamut of feeling conveyed by the human voice.

88. Visually, photographs,\* films, plays and role playing bring further dimensions, gesture, stance, garments, physical environment, movement, interaction, the juxtaposition of images, passage of time back and forth. Who can fail to be moved by old family portraits? All these are materials to engage the feelings and can be put to purposive use in training, if carefully selected and timed.

89. It has also been pointed out that the teacher is a powerful influence and he must attempt in every way to personify those attitudes and behaviours that he advocates. A child was heard to say: "How can I listen to what you say when what you are is ringing in my ears"? Here is the teacher as material for the trainees!

Understanding and knowing is the second area to be considered.

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\* see "The Family of Man", Māco Magazine Corporation, New York, 1955.

90. In a beautiful film, "Monsieur Vincent", St. Vincent de Paul immerses himself in the life of the poor. He calls out to his God in an anguish of coming to understand: "Forgive me, I did not know".

91. Books, research, charts, visual aids of all kinds and again the arts are repositories of knowledge. Information giving, lectures, bibliographies - not routinely but carefully and sensitively devised - are the easiest tools with which to give knowledge, but they are clumsy ones for making sure it has been creatively received.

92. Sending students to see, and to find out, and to report, are "doing" as well as "knowing" devices. What is it like there? What did the people you spoke to there think about it? Who are the people who try to deal with this problem? What resources do they have? Where do the resources come from? What is their experience of doing this? What did the pioneers in this work think and do? How did they change their view, approach, etc. and why? What different explanations, placing of blame, attitudes, services are there? How do we explain the differences? What did you feel? Think? what were the problems encountered in finding out? How typical was your experience? Was it the same elsewhere? How many, how much? How does this fit with...What are the possibilities in dealing with...? etc.

93. Lastly, 'doing'; that is, the skill behaviours.

We are reminded that:

"In selecting teaching materials for learning skill it is necessary to find a material moving from no skill to the level you are after. If the behaviour involved in learning the skill is too hard at this level of learning, the student may make a response that is not adequate. Learning means mastering; if the student cannot, he may get adjusted to inadequate responses and additional experience that is meant to reinforce his previous learning may reinforce his inadequate behaviour".<sup>57</sup>

94. Skills always depend on practice for their effectiveness. Even those fortunate enough to be 'naturals' in a skill improve with practice. Much practice can be devised before embarking on the 'real thing'. Even things like skiing and swimming can be anticipated to a certain degree without snow or water. Moontrips have been simulated, so too can social work - but of course in all cases so far and no further. This is well to be borne in mind by teachers who lose touch with practice but who continue to teach skills in the classroom. Ultimately the best skill learning is by actually doing, and to some degree the fundamental teacher is the clientele of the social worker. Amazing how thoughtful, considerate, patient, and painstaking they can be and how carefully they can explain, suggest and encourage in the face of all kinds of clumsy performance!

95. Pre-action materials are written and recorded interviews and situations that can be digested without immediate pressure to react, where one can "stop the action" and go back or imagine what is to (or should) follow. All good case recordings for teaching are of this type. A carefully graduated book of case records can take us from simple to complex. Observing others interviewing in person or sometimes with elaborate equipment like tape recorders or through one-way screens has great value but introduces self-consciousness to the worker and occasionally to the clientele (though less than thought at one time) if handled intelligently and considerately.

These are demonstrations and if related to the level of the learners, gives them goals to aspire to.

96. Role playing is also one way of the 'doing' approach where skills can be both displayed and developed.

The most effective and skilled and also time-consuming way of teaching skills that social work has devised is of course supervision. In athletics we know 'the coach', and in this sense the supervisor takes the learner back over his performance to improve upon for 'next time'. The material here of course is the student's record; the student/<sup>thus</sup>needs the preceding skill of being able to give an increasingly adequate account of his own performance in the particular case situation,

and is secure enough with the supervisor to share his thinking, feeling, and action inadequacies.

97. In many places the kind of record keeping we expect of students, especially process recording, is often superior to records produced by the actual practitioners. This 'don't do as we do - do as we tell you to' is obviously counter to the way in which students learn by identification with their mentors. This is also one of the problems in getting good case material from services for use in the classroom.

We shall now turn to the general problem of finding, refining or creating teaching material.

#### Methods of Developing Teaching Materials

98. You will recall that at the beginning of this paper I quoted Lindeman describing how he felt, with his background, towards the education he was subjected to; he added his understanding about education:

"Later I came to see that these very people who perform productive tasks were themselves creating the experience out of which education might emerge".<sup>58</sup>

This seems to me the crux of where teaching material is to come from - from those performing productive tasks. How can we persuade them to produce material for us?

99. Firstly, exactly what we want must be made clear, and this involves us deeply in educational objectives and diagnosis. But we must begin to spell out what we want for teaching in ways that the producers can fully understand. A nice example is Miss Yasas' "Guide Lines for Themes to be Sought in Asian Literature that Might be Useful for Teaching Material in Social Work". Our teaching colleagues or even students of literature might help us here - if they knew what we wanted.

100. The matter of editing materials goes for books, articles, journals, and so on. Especially where language translations are involved, it is not enough to put the original into the local words. Asian educators must begin to examine the written foreign materials that they recommend to their students and methodically (as part of staff and materials development) go through it paragraph by paragraph, giving local illustrations for those which are not readily understood or are likely to be ambiguous. The concepts and attitudes which do not reflect the culture of the country concerned should be rejected or modified where appropriate. There must be a substitution of local attitudes to make the same points as the original, or the differences from the original must be discussed. This procedure, which has been attempted on a small scale in the Region, not only supplies good indigenous material but could be contributing to the whole body of knowledge in this field.

101. Bibliographies should be annotated for student use, showing in what ways the written material can be put to local use. This does of course demand a high degree of sophistication. But books are expensive, scarce in many Asian countries and because of their relative abundance in the West, confusing to choose from.

102. Book reviews should be distributed from western journals and then re-reviewed for local relevance before investing scarce book-buying resources, and book-reading energies. Books must not be for adornment of the learned, but for use; they live only in relation to each other and within the 'culture' of readers. Those not in educational stratas where reading is wide and critical, and who are not experienced in extrapolating from one culture to another, should have a fair degree of predigestion done for them - without of course destroying curiosity, spontaneity and the sheer richness of written experience. Books unused make the saddest rooms in the world.

103. Someone must be responsible for the production of teaching materials. Of course all teachers should be expected to so produce, but a responsibility of all is often the responsibility of none. A council of social work educators or a professional organisation needs to spearhead and spell out requirements, appoint working parties, and bring pressure to bear to meet deadlines!

104. This paper has tended to argue that training should not be the responsibility of schools but of services and their staffs. It has supported, too, the idea that supervision is of paramount importance and should be carried out by practitioners. I also lean to the view that in conditions where poor practice prevails generally, teachers must retain or develop (if they don't already have) practical skills. There is time for division of labour between social work teachers and practitioners (if it is thought desirable) when there is a goodly supply of personnel; this division must be functional and not largely administratively determined or status conferring, and would-be teachers must show that they can or are able to learn to teach (one of the criteria here should be proven ability to produce relevant teaching materials!)

105. Broadly speaking, the development of teaching materials must be undertaken by teachers and schools of social work, of course in close collaboration with and based upon the experience of practitioners.

106. The Training Centre for Social Work Educators and Field Work Supervisors in Bangkok in 1966 had much to say in this matter, as did the 1964 working group on Developing Materials.

107. A wealth of material developed at the professional level gives one an opportunity for a rich selection to make over for training purposes. However, it seems likely to me that most training programmes of an in-service kind, both by pressure of work and the non-academic quality of its members, will not be able to spend much time in solid reading. Therefore what reading there is must count.

108. Where a training programme is to have fairly broad objectives, those responsible for training will need to look for a wide range of materials. Those training programmes keeping a strict focus upon "the job" must look to the job for their materials.

109. The staff of a training programme should therefore be expected and encouraged to produce case records from their own practice. Social workers must develop the faculty of self-expression and self-discipline and these attributes must begin to be felt in competent recording. That there are

great pressures to do without recording and its inherent and subsequent requirement for reflection is a very common feature of many services.

110. However, professionals have the responsibility to "go beyond" and this is one of the beyonds. Social workers in the field have a unique observation post. Knowledge of these conditions, these situations, these practices resides more or less exclusively in the hands of the practitioners and these hands must take up the pen.

111. Only when enough descriptive accounts of our observation, experience and activities in social welfare will be available, will we be able to begin to intelligently and validly construct universals and theories which in the social sciences at the moment seem heavily culturally based and give rise to suspicions and confusions for those Eastern-bred, Western-taught, and trying to deal with Eastern conditions.

112. Some organisations have offered prizes for the best records, the material submitted then being made over for teaching purposes.

113. The production of records should be written into a specific person's job description and both financial and status rewards should be devised to support that requirement. It should be self-evident that trainees who are expected to produce records for which there is no precedence from other staff members will both lack guidance and quickly abandon the practice after training, if this function has not been built into agency practice. Bad currency drives out good, but good practice will regenerate itself.

114. Moreover, it is well observed that if one relies only on student records -- better than nothing, to be sure -- one is restricted to a situation of the blind leading the blind, without providing models which will extend the students' capabilities.

115. Case records which reflect closely the agency practice are what we should be looking for. These records should show positive practice and a standard of practice which is at least acceptable from beginning workers.

116. A case record is of course the main tool of supervision. The supervisor must read and understand the record and in the course of supervision help the student record more effectively. The supervisor in turn should keep a record of the supervisory process. Both these records then become the basis for developing teaching materials. This

is only the basis - we must remember that case records are teaching materials more broadly speaking only when they have been edited and "translated" for teaching purposes. Dr. Batten<sup>59</sup> gives good examples of how to edit simple situations written up by trainees.

Some suggestions for 'doing' and obtaining written material for teaching

116. Field trips and visits of observation can provide material. They should not be go-as-you-please affairs, but prepared for by developing guide lines of the purpose of the visit, what to look for, by reading annual reports or literature if available about the agency or service to be visited, and a range of questions one will want to ask ought to be pre-thought before setting off. Group visits should always be thought of as group affairs in which the group takes pride in supplementing each other's exploration of the agency visited. They should practice skilled pursuance of supplementary questions and not be competing with each other to get their question in. Seeing behind the scenes must be practiced, at a given moment asking such questions as: "If you were starting all over again ...", "would you encourage your son/daughter to take up this work?", "with a 50% increase in budget/staff, how would you use it?...", "What kinds of things make you wonder if it is all worth it ...?" Not only must the visit be of value in and of itself, but it must develop a well-needed social welfare skill of summing up agencies/services sensitively, quickly and with acumen. Such visits should be recorded and be the basis for discussion, the teacher having prepared what he thinks are the salient matters. These records should be kept and made available for subsequent visiting groups and possibly as a resource for the agency.

117. Ask students to write a short essay: "How I learned to ...." Let them choose for themselves. It may be to ride a bicycle, swim, drive, cook. Tell them they must tell what they felt as they learned.

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Ask students to describe their feelings:

- applying for a job
- going to a doctor
- going into hospital
- being questioned by authority - the police, the army, the headmaster, etc.



In joining a group

- first day at school
- first day in the army
- first day in some residential situation, etc.

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118. Ask students to describe how their village/neighbourhood planned a ceremony, wedding, burial, visit of a dignitary; dealt with a local disaster or problem.

- - - - -

119. Ask the students to imagine they are a client coming to their agency. Ask them to write an account, to a close friend, of their feelings, observations and conclusions regarding their visit.

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120. Ask the students to describe briefly their most successful or unsuccessful case. (There is a tendency for students to choose the first! If this is markedly so in your group, discuss the reasons for this with them.) Is there an identifiably 'good' or 'bad' clientele arising from the students' accounts?

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121. Assign them for an hour to the waiting room or place in your agency as though they were a client. Get them to describe what the people waiting said and did.

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122. Devise an "illustration of the week" competition in which the staff are asked to submit samples of ... (whatever teaching point you want illustrated).

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123. Set up a notice board for trainees to keep up-to-date newspaper clippings and items of social welfare interest.

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124. Send students to a public place - a restaurant, a railway station, etc. Get them to select a small group or a family and without reference to each other write down what they observe. Then get the students to examine the two reports for discrepancies and differences of observation or interpretation.

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125. When you know the class well, one day when a student arrives a little late, wait for him to sit down and then ask him politely to go out again, knock at the door and then come in and go to his seat. When this is done ask the class why you asked him to do this. List all the reasons on the board. Then explain that it was an experiment in observation. (Apologise to the student for using him this way) and then get the group to describe the differences of behaviour between the student's first entry and the second. Point out the frames of reference that the students used in explaining the incident and show them how more information ("It is an experiment in observation" changes the meaning of the situation although observably the situation has not changed.

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126. Many schools set "long essays", "dissertations" or research projects as an academic exercise for students. Some of this material would lend itself for teaching purposes. However, it needs to be catalogued and classified by subject matter, summarised (this should be the student's responsibility when submitting his work), annotated by the examiner (teacher) and the titles and abstracts circularised in a school journal and the works kept available for those who wish to borrow them. These materials and all other literature should be incorporated in some inter-library loan system. Agencies might well ask professional schools to undertake simple research for them and to use the resulting material for teaching purposes.

#### CULTURAL INFLUENCES

127. Throughout this paper, whether discussing the philosophy and theory of learning, the role of the teacher, methods and materials or social work skills, I have drawn on writings and thought heavily weighted with Western influences.

128. It is an important task of this Workshop to scrutinise what has been offered and from the base of one's own culture make it over in appropriate ways for use in the situation in one's own country.

129. Our own social, cultural, economic and political conditions will determine both the nature of our social service practice and our teaching.

130. These culture-based influences need to be made more explicit than they are at present. Information and experience are required to know and understand these influences and to work out the specific skills to accommodate them properly. Fundamentally only the practitioners and

innovators in the Region can do these things and lead the way to a more balanced and truly world-wide social work profession.

131. But there is a long way to go. Participants in earlier Regional gatherings have mentioned a number of matters which seem to differ widely with social work experience in the West.

132. Here are a few of the matters mentioned:

- It is considered impolite to differ, particularly if the person with whom one differs is of higher status.

- A normal response to a demand or opinion to which one is opposed would be silence, withdrawal from the situation or surface appearance of agreement.

- One does not complain directly but resorts to a person's superiors.

- Appeasement of teachers is common.

- Silence and respect for elders is expected.

- One does not express one's real thoughts, so making it difficult for another to understand the true situation.

- There are very marked differences in marital and sexual statuses and expectations.

- There is a sensitivity to criticism and a variety of practices of self-criticism.

- The practice of "saving face" prevails.

133. It is true that cultural elements are used in a variety of ways, defensively and adaptively, and that matters like those mentioned above are to be found in Western societies. However, rarely is there the powerful reinforcement that makes these the 'normal' attitudes and behaviours in the East. There are also not yet strong sub-cultures as exist in the West, with which a person can identify and so mediate change.

134. This poses a real problem for the social work teacher who is trying to adopt some of the methods and techniques derived from Western experience. It also throws into serious question the validity of some of the most cherished ideas of social work.

135. In theory one emphatically respects the culturally determined elements in human behaviour. In practice, what kind of accommodation can be made between traditional attitudes and what we have been discussing?

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136. There may be out-and-out incompatibilities, and unlike the Asian tradition of accommodation, perhaps something will have to go. But what exactly?

137. I have no specific answers or suggestions. It is for the members of the Workshop to consider and suggest lines of advance.

Let us look at the idea of democratic participation which sits at the base of social work.

Dr. Nakamura from Japan has reported:

"Confucianism taught the Japanese not rational improvement of, but acquiescence in this world. Thus Japanese custom often demands too much politeness and submissiveness to authority even when they are in distress".

And later he says:

"...the caseworker has to become a kind of educator of democratic ideas to the client...as well as a technical helper." <sup>60</sup>

Dr. Banerjee from India reports:

"The student learner feels (that)...he, being an educated man, should be able to point out the right way to the client and guide him in doing the right thing...Since the client...comes from a lower economic class, often a paternalistic attitude imperceptibly develops..." <sup>61</sup>

He adds:

"...discussion method has certain limitations too. The general 'talkativeness' of American students adds to the success of the discussion method...Indian students are more restrained and inhibited and they are not used to this method during their 'liberal' education period. Suddenly they are exposed to this method..." <sup>62</sup>

138. It is true that both writers go on to champion the "democratic" basis of social work and its teaching, and Dr. Banerjee describes the steps he takes to valuable discussion periods, but it is interesting to note in the Report of the Working Group:

"Naturally prevailing Asian attitudes to the learning situation and the Asian concepts of the proper relationship between teacher and taught are not presented in texts designed primarily for Western consumption. The discussive, informal relationship between teacher and student does not generally prevail in this region, where the teacher is regarded as having a more didactic and authoritarian role. Also, the readiness of the Western student to challenge and debate his teacher's contentions, a characteristic which is encouraged throughout most of the Western child's school experience, is foreign to many Asians. Similarly, the Asian student is often not able to offer or receive criticisms even though these may be constructive in intent. Foreign text books, for example, offer no guidance/to the supervisor's role in countries having a cultural climate where "face-saving" devices are prevalent and widely accepted. Supervisors in this region have, therefore, somehow to be equipped in such a way as will elicit from the students that frankness which is so necessary to a fully co-operative student-supervisor relationship."<sup>63</sup>

It is the "somehow to be equipped" which provides the challenge.

139. What specifically, does one do both with client and with student within our actual traditional situations? Such difficulties demand more information - detailed information, please - before we can work out specific suggestions, recommendations and development<sup>of</sup> techniques.

It might be worth mentioning here that one consultant has commented that:

"Poverty as an observed cultural phenomenon in most Asian countries is striking because of its pervasive presence...Yet the handling of poverty...in Asian case records is more striking in its absence".<sup>64</sup>

140. Once again, more information please. From teachers to practitioners and practitioners to clients, we must all say: "Help us to help you; tell us and each other", - information and working experiences please. This is the raw material from which we can make appreciable advances in the future.

APPENDIX IDefinitions of Supervision

Virginia P. Robinson in 1936:

"Supervision can be defined as an educational process in which a person with certain equipment of knowledge and skill takes responsibility for training a person with less equipment". She goes on to mention a supervisory "... time structured process with a beginning, focus and ending and its utilisation for the movement of a relationship process." "The difference between 'a succession of conference discussions' and a time-structured process is crucial".

Wilson and Ryland in 1949:

"Supervision is a relationship between a supervisor and workers, in which the supervisor because of his knowledge and understanding of himself, of other human beings, of the agency function, and of the social situation, helps the workers to perform their functions and to co-operate in the accomplishment of the purpose for which the agency is organised".

Dimock and Trecker:

"Supervision is conceived as co-operative leadership and activities designed to improve the quality of experience and the growth of learning of participants in an agency's programme. Supervision is a process of leadership in the formulation of educational policies and objectives, in the planning and evaluation of the programme, in the selection and training of the workers, and in community planning and organisation".

Corinne H. Wolfe:

"Supervision is administrative leadership - a leadership which aims to develop the individual staff member's skill and knowledge and to direct activities of the staff in such a way as to bring about improvement in the agency services given to the client".

A. C. Abrahamson

"Social work supervision is a teaching and administrative process of leadership which enables the social worker to assess, plan and execute adequately responsible services to clientele who require and receive professional assistance from a social agency".

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