2022

Professional Social Work Supervision: The Relationship with Social Worker Retention and Self-Efficacy

Leesha Sh'Rae Moore
Walden University

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Leesha Sh'Rae Moore

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Sean Hogan, Committee Chairperson,
Social Work Faculty

Dr. Lindy Lewis, Committee Member,
Social Work Faculty

Dr. Alice Yick, University Reviewer,
Social Work Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2022

ABSTRACT

Professional Social Work Supervision:

The Relationship with Social Worker Retention and Self-Efficacy

By

Leesha Sh'Rae Moore

MSW, University of North Carolina at Charlotte, 2008

BSW, University of North Carolina at Charlotte, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Social Work

Walden University

March 2022

Abstract

Licensed social workers offer services including mental health, case management, hospice and palliative care, and community-based support services. However, research is limited regarding dynamics that promote social worker retention and continuous social service provision. Using self-efficacy theory, this study intended to examine relationships between supervision satisfaction, supervisor characteristics, employee self-efficacy, and retention among licensed social workers. This study was based on secondary data analysis and involved using a cross-sectional correlational survey design. Secondary data were retrieved from the National Association of Social Work Center for Workforce Studies. Licensed social workers were asked questions involving their satisfaction with supervision received, profession of supervisor, plans to remain within the profession, and their career as a licensed social worker. Availability of supervision and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisors had a significant relationship with level of self-efficacy. Other findings indicated no association between supervisor discipline and self-efficacy; therefore, it can be assumed that licensed social worker self-efficacy is related to availability of supervision and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisors, but not necessarily the profession of supervisors. Results of this study will contribute to knowledge regarding retention of licensed social workers and dynamics related to supervision within the social work profession.

Professional Social Work Supervision:

The Relationship with Social Worker Retention and Self-Efficacy

By

Leesha Sh'Rae Moore

MSW, University of North Carolina at Charlotte, 2008

BSW, University of North Carolina at Charlotte, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Social Work

Walden University

March 2022

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this project to my father, Eddie Lee Moore, and my grandfather, Robert Lewis Ealy who are not here physically but I know are forever watching over me. My angels, I hope I made you both proud!

Acknowledgements

"*When the world gives you lemons, make orange juice and leave the world wondering how you did it."-Tabitha Brown*

First, I would like to acknowledge anyone going through the dissertation/PhD process, keep at it…it will be worth it in the end. Next, I would like to thank my committee chair, Dr. Sean Hogan for his continued time, mentorship, and guidance in the completion of this dissertation. There were times I could not see the light at the end of the tunnel, but with your help I finally did it! To my committee members, Dr. Lindy Lewis and Dr. Alice Yick, thank you for your feedback and direction. To my "unofficial" mentor, Dr. Yvonne Ward, your support and advice throughout this process was invaluable. You will never know how much of a blessing you were.

To my mother, you can stop asking…I am finally done, now we can celebrate! To my sister, thank you for your love and support. To my niece Journey, I hope one day, when you are all grown up, you will look at me and feel proud and have the courage to follow all of your dreams! To my grandmother, aunts, uncles, cousins, my godson Thomas, and closest friends…you all have a special place in my heart, and I am grateful for each of you.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Historically, the social work movement was geared towards immigrants and those in low socioeconomic backgrounds (Dan, 2017). Today, social workers include persons who suffer from mental illness, substance use, poverty and the aging and dying. In these instances, effective self-care is important for social workers, and listening is also necessary and pertinent as professionals address critical and traumatic cases. The retention of social workers is a concern within the social work profession, and studies that address this topic are important for the ongoing sustainability of the profession. This study, in particular, involved assessing the use and effectiveness of professional supervision in terms of assisting with the retention of social workers. The study will continue efforts to address burnout, compassion fatigue, and appropriate supervision which require attention and further research. This study will produce positive changes in the social work profession by informing efforts and procedures to increase access to effective supervision, thereby increasing overall retention of professional social workers.

Overarching themes in this study are retention and supervision. Low job satisfaction and job engagement have been linked to an increase in social workers' plans to leave the profession (Calitz et al., 2014). While supervision has a clear relationship with retention in the social work profession, what remains unclear is how characteristics of the supervisor (such as type of discipline and years of supervisory experience) affect social worker retention.

Some research has been completed using self-efficacy (i.e., the professional confidence social workers have in delivering services) as a variable, however, the research has not specifically focused on licensed social workers or the issue of retention. In 2009, a study focusing on supervisor support, burnout, and therapist self-efficacy concluded low supervisor support was linked to increased burnout and low worker self-efficacy (Gibson et al., 2009). The research study was valuable in its implications; however, it only focused on school-based therapists that work with children on the autism spectrum (Gibson et al., 2009). Additional research examining the implications of effective supervision and social worker efficacy among public child welfare workers concluded Low levels of supervisor support correlated to low levels of reported self-efficacy (Collins-Camargo & Royce, 2010).

In Chapter 1, background information regarding retention and supervision within the social work profession is presented, as well as the problem statement and research questions. The purpose and theoretical framework are also introduced in this chapter, along with definitions regarding key concepts in this study. Also addressed in this chapter are the scope, limitations, and delimitations associated with the study.

Background

Several articles and studies relate to the history, uses, and purposes of social work supervision, as well as common trends and statistical information related to social work retention and self-efficacy. Articles related to the overall benefits of retaining social workers and improving self-efficacy are also important for this research study. While some agencies have enacted one-time programs or incentives to encourage employees to

remain, employee retention is an ongoing and continuous effort and should involve employees as well as members of leadership (Caillier, 2016; Gupta & Sharma, 2016). One important aspect of employee retention is identifying reasons for poor retention rates (Wermeling, 2013) and focusing on ways to keep employees and assist in the sustainability of the organization (Rubel et al., 2017).

In the field of social work, the use of professional consultation and supervision for decreasing turnover rates in private practice and child welfare arenas has been the focus of several research studies and literature reviews (Carney & Jefferson, 2014; De Sousa & De Sousa, 2015; Middleton & Potter, 2015). Additionally, Julien-Chinn and Lietz (2016) outlined a study conducted using child welfare workers as subjects to determine contributing factors of increased self-efficacy including supervision and program outcomes. Curtis et al. (2016) also presented alternative methods including reflective practice into the clinical supervision model to improve the practitioner's ability to gain self-efficacy and independence in practice.

While there has been some research targeted at ways to improve social work retention, a gap in knowledge remains regarding how factors such as supervision and self-efficacy can be used to address retention using data specifically provided by licensed social workers. I used data collected from licensed social workers regarding retention and documented causes of retention.

This study is needed to contribute to the growing body of knowledge. This research study has the potential to serve as a resource for organizations that employ social workers to use when addressing concerns regarding retention. Information provided in

this research study not only involves roles leaders and supervisors play in retaining social workers but also roles social workers play in terms of their own ability and intent to remain in the profession as efficient and healthy workers.

Problem Statement

Social worker turnover has been a long-discussed issue, with Loewenberg discussing reasons for turnover as far back as 1979. However, Loewenberg (1979) indicated that, at that time, social worker retention and turnover was not a widely researched problem and information was missing regarding effective ways to manage turnover and retention. Decades later, social worker retention and the efficient delivery of services continue to be concerns within the profession (Collins-Camargo, & Royse, 2010; Middleton & Potter, 2015; Wermeling, 2013). There continues to be a gap in literature involving specific aspects of supervision and their relationship with increasing social worker retention and professional self-efficacy. A further understanding of the relationship between supervision, self-efficacy, and retention can have substantial implications, including increased overall social work retention, and consequently, a strengthened professional workforce.

There has been a significant amount of research involving social work retention rates, employee turnover, and ways in which to address ongoing problems; however, there is a lack of research that focuses on factors of effective supervision and worker self-efficacy to understand retention rates or social workers' desire to remain within the profession (He et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2018). Therefore, I used quantitative analysis to address the gap in literature and understand if a relationship exists between these

variables and how this could be applied within the field of social work to address issues with retention. While retention may be traditionally applied to the employment field, it can also be applied to social work students who participate in field placement opportunities. Students are paired with supervisors as well, and supervisors' actions in the field placement setting can affect students' ability to learn and feel comfortable in future roles as social work professionals (Ketner et al, 2017).

Roles and responsibilities of a supervisor include several important tasks including improving professional development, increasing efficiency, and assessing overall worker competency (Dan, 2017; Vandette & Gosselin, 2019). However, some research indicates more emphasis should be placed how supervision impacts how well social workers are able to do their jobs (Sweifach, 2019; O'Neil & del Mar Fariña, 2018; Beddoe & Wilkins, 2019).

I found that although there was literature regarding retention, supervision, and self-efficacy as separate topics, a gap in literature exists in which these topics are presented interdependently. This study has individual implications for social workers; however, it also has organizational implications for agencies as well as the profession of social work as a whole, as the profession is contingent on the retention of social workers who are able to complete tasks and responsibilities effectively and with confidence.

Purpose

The purpose of this quantitative study was twofold. First, relationships between retention, supervision, and self-efficacy among a nationally representative sample of licensed social workers were identified. Second, the gap in understanding the impact of

supervisory support on improving social worker retention and professional self-efficacy was addressed. Of particular interest in this study is the professional background of the supervisor and how that may differentially affect outcomes related to social worker retention and self-efficacy. Information gained from this study will help social work professionals better understand the importance of social work supervision in terms of affecting the overall longevity of professionals, as well as quality of services that social workers provide. As a result of the added experience prompted by improved retention, social workers in general will be better prepared, more knowledgeable, and better equipped to practice and serve within the profession.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In this study, I answered the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the relationship between satisfaction with professional social work supervision, self-efficacy, and retention among social workers?

$H_0$1: There is no significant relationship between satisfaction with professional social work supervision, worker self-efficacy, and retention among social workers.

H_a1: There is a significant relationship between satisfaction of professional social work supervision, worker self-efficacy, and retention among social workers.

RQ2: What is the relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers?

$H_0$2: There is a significant relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers.

H_a2: There is no significant relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers.

The hypothesis for the first research question includes a subsequent positive correlation between perceived quality of supervision, reported self-efficacy and a social worker's plan to remain in the profession. It is also hypothesized that there will be a positive correlation between support provided from supervisor, reported self-efficacy, and reported plans for retention (remaining within the profession).

Theoretical Framework

Self-efficacy theory was presented by Bandura and Adams as a way to explain changes in one's fearful or avoidant behaviors given their personal beliefs about their abilities (Weibell, 2011). Numerous research studies have been performed using Bandura's theory as a tool to assess skill level and performance by understanding an individual's ability to take what they have learned and apply it directly (Iroegbu, 2015). Self-efficacy theory is at times paired with Bandura's social learning theory because it also involves assessing a person's ability to perform tasks based on that individual's personal beliefs about their abilities (Iroegbu, 2015).

Bachelor and master's level social work students participate in formal academic classes, field placement studies, shadowing, and supervision in order to promote and teach self-efficacy within the field of practice (Rawlings, 2012). However, in some instances, self-efficacy is not effectively reached, impeding the direct care professionals are able to provide and, at times, leading to increased turnover. Factors that lead to a decline in self-efficacy, including a lack of appropriate supervision (Rawlings, 2012).

Social work self-efficacy has been researched in areas of ensuring academic mastery (Simmons et al., 2017), assessing mental health professionals' self-efficacy when treating children (McMeel et al., 2017) and assessing self-efficacy of child welfare workers (Julien-Chinn, & Lietz, 2016); however, little research exists regarding understanding the correlation between self-efficacy and retention, which is a gap in literature.

Self-efficacy and turnover are related as they can both be directly correlated with the influence of adequate supervision (Pugh, 2016; Young, 2015). Burns and Christie (2016) said supervision can be directly linked to employee mobility within child welfare agencies which, at times, may be misconstrued with employee turnover and low retention. In instances of adequate supervision, an appropriate level of self-efficacy is achieved, and this will cause a higher level of retention among social workers (Young, 2015).

Nature of the Study

This study involved using a quantitative secondary data analysis of a nationally-representative sample of licensed social workers. Original data were gathered in the context of the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) and Center for Health Workforce Studies' National Study of Licensed Social Workers. The cross-sectional survey used for the original study contains questions related to the professional background of social work supervisors, the amount of time workers have been on their primary job, and workers' self-perceptions of their ability to help clients and deliver services efficiently. From this set of 14 questions, using factor and reliability analyses, a self-efficacy scale was constructed. Using descriptive and inferential statistics,

relationships between supervisor background, and social worker self-efficacy and retention were examined.

Definitions

Throughout the study, the following terms were used:

Burnout: State of emotional, mental, and often physical exhaustion brought on by prolonged or repeated stress (Gibson et al., 2009)

Field education: Opportunities for students to translate theoretical concepts, principles, and evidence into practice, applying these to work with individuals, families, groups, communities, and organizations (Zuchowski et al., 2019).

National Association of Social Workers: Largest membership organization of social workers; creates and maintains standards of social workers; advance policies related to social work (Arrington & Whitaker, 2008).

Retention: Remaining within a specific profession (Lizano & Mor Barak, 2012).

Self-efficacy: The belief that through social modeling, individuals build confidence in their own ability to complete tasks and responsibilities (Zahra et al., 2017).

Social work supervision: An accountable process which involves supporting, assuring, and developing the knowledge, skills, and values of an individual or group (Dan, 2017).

Assumptions

Data from the original study were collected by mail-in surveys. Surveys were mailed to intended respondents along with instructions regarding survey completion as well as objectives and a statement regarding anonymity of responses. It was assumed that

participants were honest and truthful in their responses. Because surveys were not completed in person, it was also assumed that responses were provided by intended participants. Due to the secondary nature of the data, it was assumed that the NASW and Center for Health Workforce Studies identified any possible biases and assessed the validity and reliability of scaling questions prior to distributing them to identified participants. Measurement reliability and validity from the original study instrument is preserved in the current study. Also, it was assumed that data collected in the original study allowed for secondary analysis to accurately answer research questions.

Scope and Delimitations

Research has increased regarding ways in which to keep social workers within the profession in order to ensure populations being served are able to receive diverse services provided by social workers. Social work participants identified supervision as an important part of their wellbeing, as well as one reason they remained within the profession (Chiller & Crisp, 2012). In addition to supervision, other factors have been identified as useful in terms of improving social work retention, including enhancing partnerships with field instructors (Zuckerman et al., 2017), improving in-service training initiatives (Searle & Patent, 2013), assessing quality of social work education (Wermeling et al., 2013), and overall salary considerations (Wermeling, 2013).

The population in this study was a random sample of NASW members who also identified as licensed social workers and volunteered to complete the survey. Non-NASW members and social workers who do not identify as licensed were excluded from the study. Due to the nature of random selection and volunteer status of all participants,

findings cannot be solely generalized for the entire population of licensed social workers. Per survey administrators, the study was targeted at licensed social workers as this population is most at risk for shortages within the profession (Arrington & Whitaker, 2008). As a result, the study sample is not representative of all professional social workers.

Issues related to internal validity can be understood in the context of secondary data analysis. The current study was constrained by the sampling strategy, instrument construction, data collection of the original study. My construction of a latent variable for self-efficacy from existing questions in the original instrument is also a delimitation of this study. Lastly, I did not assume participants did not already have plans to leave the profession aside from reasons beyond satisfaction with supervision or self-efficacy.

Limitations

The proposed study does have relevant limitations based on several factors. One of the identified limitations is in the identified participant group. The participants were limited to professionals who identified themselves as licensed social workers and are also members of NASW. This limited the pool of participants and did not include social workers who are not members of NASW.

The survey was completed using a Likert type scale in which the questions covered a range of topics, some of which were related to participant demographics. Some limitations in terms of external validity are present as results of the study can be generalized to include not only licensed social workers but non-licensed social workers and social workers who are considered direct care workers and receive some type of

professional supervision. There are also numerous confounder variables present when discussing retention of social workers such as age, highest degree earned, years of practice, and sector and area of practice.

Due to the secondary nature of the collected data, there are a few ways in which limitations were addressed. One way in which limitations were addressed was by reviewing data collection and processing procedures completed by the Center for Health Workforce Studies and NASW Center for Workforce Studies to ensure no potential for bias.

Significance

The research filled a gap in understanding by focusing specifically on the relationship between retention, supervisor support, and social worker self-efficacy. Results of this study highlighted the significance of supervisory support and social workers' perceived self-efficacy, as well as differential outcomes for retention and self-efficacy predicated on supervisor effectiveness. This study will assist social workers, supervisors, employers, and areas of academia in terms of formalizing relevant and practical workplace conditions for social work professionals. Providing social workers with appropriate professional support will strengthen the impact social workers have on client populations and their ability to focus on social change (Zuckerman et al., 2017).

Social workers are faced with several professional challenges including burnout, compassion fatigue, poor self-care, minimal self-care resources, and overwhelming workloads (Doherty et al., 2020). All of these can affect their performance and sustainability within the profession. Supervision is a method that can address these

challenges and should be considered a first line of defense for social work professionals (Cole, 2019).

Social change can be characterized as changes in rules of behaviors, value systems, or social organizations (Lechner et al., 2017). Historically, social workers have been charged with the task of focusing on and addressing issues that weaken social change within society. Ensuring social workers are properly trained, supervised, and able to remain in professional positions prolongs their capacity to bring about positive social change (Paske et al., 2017). Social workers may use information to advocate for themselves in the workplace in instances in which they feel they are not receiving adequate supervision. By addressing this gap in literature, more emphasis can be placed on ensuring social workers are receiving adequate supervision and provided with needed resources and information to continue their professional journey as social work practitioners.

Summary

Licensed social workers provide a number of services for underprivileged populations, and it is important that they receive needed support to remain within the field. To address the need for support and oversight, professional supervision has been used as a tool to improve retention rates and overall worker self-efficacy. Although there have been several research studies identifying a possible relationship between supervision and retention, a gap in literature exists regarding the role professional supervision plays when addressing retention and self-efficacy.

Chapter 2 includes additional information on the self-efficacy theory, including its foundations and how it can be used as a theoretical framework to address job performance and how this can be affected by other factors such as supervision. Chapter 2 includes literature related to concepts of supervision in several social work sectors and overall retention.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Historically, supervision, internship, and guided practice have been perceived as necessary within the profession of social work as means of professional development, improving problem solving, and increasing efficiency among social workers (Dan, 2017). A significant amount of research has involved reasons why social workers leave the profession (Chiller & Crisp, 2012; Middleton & Potter, 2015; Pugh, 2016; Wermeling, 2013); however, scarce research exists focusing on overall retention strategies.

Research in this area has grown; however, there continues to be a gap in literature involving specific aspects of supervision and their relationship with increasing social worker retention and professional self-efficacy. A further understanding of the relationship between supervision, self-efficacy, and retention can have substantial implications, including increased overall social work retention, and consequently, a strengthened professional workforce.

I examined current data highlighting the relationship between supervision and retention of social workers and improving overall self-efficacy. To better understand this, an extensive literature review was completed focusing on topics of social work retention, supervision, and self-efficacy with some emphasis on the history of supervision and its development as the social work field has evolved and progressed.

Despite ongoing attention and research regarding retention of social workers, concerns remain regarding effective ways in which to implement strategies that assist with increasing retention rates (Burns & Christie, 2013). Supervision not only plays a

major role in the development and fine tuning of social work practitioners; it can be beneficial in terms of the retention of social work child welfare professionals, social work students, and students in field placement settings. However, as the intent of supervisors is to develop efficient social work practitioners, it is also important that practitioners feel confident in their ability to complete tasks assigned to them. Self-efficacy theory highlights the correlation between effective supervision and the retention of social work practitioners by ensuring practitioners feel supported and confident in their ability to complete tasks and assigned responsibilities (Olson, 2011).

In this chapter, self-efficacy theory is addressed as a unifying framework for understanding the relationship between supervisory support and social worker confidence and retention. This is followed by a comprehensive review of literature related to the role of supervision in social work and social work field education, with an emphasis on child welfare. Past research on social worker self-efficacy, retention, and burnout is also presented.

Literature Search Strategy

Relevant peer-reviewed literature was located using the Walden Library and the following databases: Thoreau, PsychINFO, SocINDEX, and SAGE Journals. The literature review was limited to publications within the last 7-10 years; however, literature regarding self-efficacy theory tended to be dated due to its date of inception. The following key words were used: *retention*, *social work retention*, *student retention*, *child welfare workers*, *child welfare worker retention*, *supervision*, *social work supervision*, *self-efficacy*, and *self-efficacy in social work*.

Theoretical Foundation

Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy theory, which guides this research, was introduced by Bandura in 1977. Self-efficacy theory grew out of Bandura's social cognitive theory, which suggested that some of an individual's knowledge is derived from observing their peers in social interactions as well as the experiences of others and media influences (Qiang et al., 2018). Bandura's social cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory are aligned with the belief that a person will be more likely to learn from others if they experience a high level of self-efficacy (Basereh & Pishkar, 2016).

In a mixed-methods study of 220 female constituents reporting for jury duty, it was determined that, when assessing self-efficacy, the participants did not address their abilities, only the assurance that the tasks cold be completed (Umphrey, 2004). Self-efficacy theory relates to supervision as Bandura emphasized self-efficacy can be created through the experiences of social models in several ways including observing the successes of others in similar situations and having an influential person believe that you can succeed (Zahra et al., 2017).

Throughout the years, critics have argued the need for more clarification regarding self-efficacy and motivation (Williams & Rhodes, 2016). To address these critiques, self-efficacy measurements and scales have been altered to promote questions that suggest a can-do attitude versus a will do attitude (Bandura, 2006). Many of the scales that are used to measure self-efficacy are based on a Likert-type scale questions, which has also created some criticism as to what type of research studies can be

addressed based on the theory of self-efficacy (Ogden, 2016). One correlational research study related to academic success and social class in which a self-efficacy scale was used, indicated there was a positive correlation between those in high-income neighborhoods and academic achievement (Roman et al., 2009). However, a different quantitative research study using the same self-efficacy scale indicated a positive correlation between low-income neighborhoods and academic achievement suggesting some discrepancy among the scaling questionnaire (Scherbaum et al., 2006).

An assumption of self-efficacy theory is that people work in environments in which their beliefs regarding self-efficacy influence how they complete duties and responsibilities (Olson, 2011). Using a cohort-design, in a qualitative study with 16 entering BSW students and 16 exiting BSW students, Rawlings (2012) determined that, in some working environments, employees have minimal interest and stake within the agency; therefore, the importance of focusing on and improving self-efficacy is limited. One identified limit of self-efficacy theory is that it involves initial achievement of efficiency within the workplace; however, it does not address ongoing learning opportunities (Edgren, 2013).

Bandura argued self-efficacy theory was the key factor in terms of delivery and provision of services in social service agencies (Beauchamp, 2016). Bandura (1994) said a strong feeling of self-efficacy affects the manner in which people approach the tasks they are assigned. For this study, self-efficacy will be used as a correlation tool to assess any positive relationship between the use of supervision in assisting to build self-efficacy

among social workers and the social worker's ability or desire to remain in the profession.

Foundations of self-efficacy theory are based on several social and cognitive based theories as well as observing and understanding behavioral patterns (Bandura, 1977). According to Bandura (1977), human behavior is built by observing and modeling the behaviors of others. This can be completed during the supervision process in which supervisees are expected to observe the professional behaviors of supervisors and model those behaviors in order to demonstrate competency (Rawlings, 2012). Another important aspect of supervision is the feedback received during the supervision process. Bandura (1977) identifies this as a part of the cognitive process in which humans learn from consequential responses. Consequential responses are defined as strategies used to promote more beneficial outcomes which will in turn improve how professionals do their jobs (Bandura, 1977).

Since its theoretical inception, several instruments have been created to measure self-efficacy in various circumstances. Bandura's General Self-Efficacy Scale is a 10-question Likert scale measuring tool used for evaluating adaptation abilities for both stressful and non-stressful life events (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). The Self-Efficacy Survey is a 130-item Likert scale survey designed to evaluate 10 areas of life including intellectual, family, educational, professional, social, religious, erotic, moral, life, and health (Riopel, 2012). The Strengths Self-Efficacy Scale is a tool used to assess individual perceived abilities to build personal strengths (Tsai et al, 2014).

Research studies used to assess, clarify, and defend the use of self-efficacy theory have not been consistent based on design, methodology or population. For instance, some research studies were qualitative in nature and used undergraduate students enrolled in social work programs as prospective research participants, while other studies used a mixed-methods design and citizens from the community with no formal ties to the social work profession. This highlights the use of self-efficacy theory in varying settings and research designs.

Literature Review Related to Key Variables

Supervision

Dan (2017) defined supervision in terms of social work as an accountable process which supports, assures, and develops the knowledge, skills, and values of an individual or group. Other researchers define supervision as a bridge between education and practice, extensive training regarding the theories and practice of social work, as well as an avenue for direct service workers to give an account of their work (Leach & Paterson, 2010; Munson, 2002; Runcan & Călăuz, 2011). It is assumed that the supervision process will be led by a supervisor who is skilled in the practice area, readily available and prepared to provide supervision, as well as ethically competent and presents with a mutual respect and trust for supervisees (Barsky, 2013; Noble, 2013).

Historically, in the field of social work, supervision can be traced back decades to early academia in which educational trainers and field instructors were used to enhance the experience of students (Caras & Sandu, 2014). Plugaru and Ponea (2010) indicate the role of social work supervision has expanded to include administrative, managerial,

supportive, and clinical roles. A meta-analysis completed by Mor Barak et al. (2009) indicated social work supervision improves service delivery, helps social workers develop needed skills, increases job satisfaction and retention, as well as decreases burnout. However, as social workers have moved into interdisciplinary organizations where individualized social work supervision may not be available, concerns regarding efficiency and professional development have arisen (Sweifach, 2019).

Kadushin and Harkness (2014) said social work practice and supervision are collaborative efforts and cannot be separated; however, debates have emerged regarding the effectiveness of supervision (Maidment & Beddoe, 2012; Manthorpe et al., 2015). Recent shifts in supervision indicate a change from a supportive model to a more business approach within social work supervision, causing conflict among supervisors and supervisees (Harlow, 2013; O'Donoghue, 2015). Egan et al. (2016) indicated a business or managerial approach to supervision in which audits, efficiency, and productivity are measured, promotes a sense of managerial control which is counterproductive to workers. A recent exploratory study completed by Schmidt and Kariuki (2019) in which 27 bachelor and master level social work supervisors completed questionnaires and interviews, found that a majority of supervisors within child welfare agencies in Australia, identified as being assigned to their role as a supervisor, rather than choosing that role, underlining a need for more considered placement of supervisors.

The role of supervisor requires significant training and support, which at times may be overlooked to conserve time or decrease supervisor workload (Fareez, 2019). Changes, such as group supervision, cross-discipline supervision, electronic supervision,

and supervision outside the agency, have been implemented as means to address shifts and changes within the supervision model (Weld, 2012). Hair (2013) suggests conflicting research regarding the purpose of supervision, duration of supervision within a social worker's career, needed training, and discipline of supervisors continues to jeopardize the importance of supervision within the field. O'Neill and del Mar Fariña (2018) indicated a need for ongoing dialogue and critique regarding social work supervision to address intersecting identities, the importance of cultural patterns, and understanding the power and perceived privilege of supervisors. Recent data suggest much of the upcoming research surrounding social work supervision is related to how supervision affects the populations served by social workers, such as client outcomes rather than social workers themselves (Beddoe & Wilkins, 2019).

O'Donoghue and Tsui (2015) completed an extensive review of social work supervision research including experiences in supervision, the functions of supervisors, and the impact of supervision within child welfare. The emergence of clinical social work licensure also included the emergence of competence-based clinical supervision, which became a needed tool for learning and assessing competency (Vandette & Gosselin, 2019). In instances in which supervision was reported as "good or bad," the overarching theme was the supervisee's feelings that their professional development and learning was not primary, and supervisors were "incompetent and neglectful" (Beddoe, 2017).

The harmfulness of incompetent and neglectful supervisors increased conversation regarding the need to integrate trauma-informed care into social work education and field practice as a preparation for new graduates and practitioners (Bogo &

Sewell, 2019). Trauma-informed care has become part of social work practice as practitioners have to regularly provide service to clients who have experienced trauma. While addressing the trauma of others, social workers must also be prepared to cope with secondary trauma and burnout using self-care strategies (Wilke et al., 2018). These strategies can be taught and reviewed while participating in supervision sessions and are pertinent in decreasing burnout and improving retention amongst social workers (Dalphon, 2019).

In a qualitative study of 23 professional social workers across multiple social work practice settings, McCarthy et al. (2020) said doctoral-level students were open about the importance of shadowing social workers as an opportunity to observe and learn practice, however, indicated a lack of education regarding self-care and being able to successfully cope with the ethical challenges that may be faced while in practice. Supervision can be helpful in assisting supervisees and social work students with mitigating stress; however, a lack of education regarding appropriate self-care practices can be perceived as unethical on the part of the supervisor, as it ultimately impedes a social worker's ability to appropriately serve clients (Roulston et al., 2018).

Results of this conducted literature review indicate gaps in research in the development of an evidence-based supervision model, the impact of supervision on client outcomes, and a more complete understanding of supervision practice (O'Donoghue & Tsui, 2015). Wilkins and Jones (2018) indicated research concerns surrounding the concept of supervision as it is mostly collected by self-reporting, which presents questions regarding specificity, reliability, and validity. Sewell (2018) also indicated gaps

in literature related to evaluating models of supervision and an overall focus on workers, including retention, ongoing development of skills, worker self-care and oversight of practice.

Supervision in Child Welfare

Supervision within the child welfare sector has steadily increased and become more important in the retention of employees, among other things (Barbee et al., 2018). Saltiel (2017) suggested supervision has been essential in evaluating employees, improving accountability and decision making, as well as preventing unnecessary injury and death. Using attachment theory, Bowman (2019) was able to explain the importance of the supervisor-supervisee relationship and its use in decreasing turnover rates among child welfare workers. Quality supervision within child welfare has also been linked to increased productivity and high levels of self-value amongst workers (Quinn, 2017).

Zinn (2015) completed a quantitative, exploratory research study in which 1460 child welfare workers were interviewed, and results indicated a perceived positive supervisor-supervisee relationship improved overall job satisfaction and workplace environment, as reported by child welfare workers. A qualitative study of 45 child welfare case managers from various regions within the United States indicated child welfare workers reported reduced feelings of stress and job uncertainty while engaged in some form of professional supervision (Cooksey et al., 2013). While this may be the case, Wilkins et al.'s (2017) theory-oriented action research study surmised case discussions within child welfare supervision operated primarily for managerial oversight and

provided limited opportunity for workers to reflect on social work theory and practice, receive needed emotional support, or develop critical thinking skills.

Jacquet et al. (2008) completed a qualitative study of 765 MSW child welfare workers, in which results indicated support from supervision emerged as a leading factor in decreasing retention among child welfare workers. After completing an exhaustive qualitative study with identified supervisors in a community-based child welfare program, Rankine (2019) suggested one goal of the supervisor within the child welfare arena is ensuring workers are able to balance organizational and professional accountabilities. In a qualitative analysis by McCrae et al. (2015), respondents reported lower levels of job-related stress and burnout after receiving increased supervision, however, indications from a cross-sectional study by Weiss-Dagan et al. (2018) suggest there are instances in which levels of job-related stress and secondary trauma are too high for supervision to be effective as child welfare workers already feel “let down” and unsupported by supervisors. Turney and Ruch (2016) presented research regarding the use of cognitive interviewing to be used during supervision sessions to enhance critical thinking, assessing, and effective decision-making as a means to address and reduce the number of child deaths for children under the supervision of child welfare. Research implications from a qualitative study of 38 front-line child welfare workers concluded the importance of partnering newly hired workers with more seasoned workers to increase exposure to critical and realistic content along with needed support (Radey et al., 2019).

Although some research in child welfare has found a significant correlation between supervisor support, positive supervisor interactions, and child welfare worker

outcomes (Mor Barak et al., 2009); a qualitative study of 28 social work students planning to enter the field of child welfare by Turner-Daly and Jack (2017) found that a group of child welfare workers reported being dissatisfied about the supervision they were receiving. Respondents indicated dissatisfaction with supervision, citing supervision practices were predominately geared towards case management rather than using the session to reflect on practice and improving quality of practice (Turner-Daly & Jack, 2017). Bostock et al. (2019) found a statistically significant relationship between the quality of supervision (with quality being identified as education provided and emotional support) provided to child welfare employees and the quality of direct practice performed.

Even with current research indicating the positive connotations of supervision within child welfare, some debate is present regarding its overall effectiveness. An extensive systematic review completed by Carpenter et al. (2013) suggests there is little evidence to support the use of supervision in child welfare. A cross-sectional, mixed methods study of 209 child welfare employees by Boyas and Wind (2010), reported research findings that suggest a positive correlation between supervisory support and emotional exhaustion, with child welfare workers indicating they feel more burdened by supervisory support. Boyas and Wind (2010) suggest organizations implement tools to ensure supervisory support does not become intrusive or overwhelming for child welfare workers. To counteract such debates concerning the use of supervision, certain modalities have been implemented to improve overall effectiveness. Lietz and Rounds (2009) introduced strengths-based supervision, which focuses on employee resilience and

empowerment, group collaboration as a means of support, and encouraging creativity and diversity. Lietz et al. (2014) reviewed the concept of strengths-based supervision years later finding that respondents reported positive changes in the supervision they received as well as job performance after the implementation of the strengths-based supervision model.

Lietz (2018) indicated strengths-based supervision is as form of supervision in which clinically based criteria and child welfare supervision are used collaboratively to enhance clinical skills, promptly deeper analytical thinking. A mixed-methods study completed by Collins-Camargo and Millar (2010) determined a more clinical approach to supervising child welfare workers was linked to better client outcomes and an improvement in overall professional development.

While some theorize a redefined concept of the supervision model within child welfare is necessary, Wilkins (2019) suggested an effective model for supervision within the child welfare arena is much more complex. Historically, the client-focused supervision model has been used within the child welfare arena, which encourages workers to evaluate their practice and supervision received based on the individual and situational outcomes of their clients (Wilkins et al., 2018). Beddoe and Wilkins (2019) contend that a majority of social work supervision is directed towards students and newly qualified professionals, therefore causing “seasoned” practitioners and professionals at various stages in their careers to essentially be neglected. Bingle and Middleton (2019) offer some suggestions including focusing on systemic theory rather than human behavior in the child welfare field as well as limiting the use of group supervision as

practitioners tend to “mirror” the sentiments of their colleagues rather than challenging them or providing better solutions.

With the differing aspects regarding the use of supervision and varying supervision models currently being used within the child welfare arena, Radey and Stanley (2018) were able to draw several implications for practice following their qualitative study of first year child welfare workers including supervisees prefer a “hands-on” approach and frequent check-ins; periodic shadowing specifically during home visits; more agency approved training and check-lists to ensure all responsibilities are being completed, as well as more support for workers in their efforts to perform self-care. A cross-sectional quantitative study of 193 self-identified social workers suggested other resources including administrative support, adequate training, small team collaboration and consultation on cases, reflective group supervision, and a high ratio of supervisors to workers are also important factors in relation to reported lower levels of work-related stress and general anxiety from child service workers (Antonopoulou et al., 2017). Recommendations from child welfare supervisors include improving agency structure, addressing negative organizational culture and climate, and making an effort to reward and recognize direct care workers (Griffiths et al., 2019).

Supervision for Social Work Students in Field Placement

The use of field placement supervision in the context of an academic program has long been a practice within the field of social work (Kanno & Koeske, 2010). The use of supervision within academia assists students in preparedness as they transition into professional roles, seeks to decrease anxiety related to the transition, as well as helping

students learn to cope with potential burnout, compassion fatigue, or emotional exhaustion (Kanno & Koeske, 2010). Smith et al. (2015) indicated that, results of a quantitative research study of 263 social work students identified field education as the most useful learning tool overall. Nečasová (2018) indicated supervision provides a forum for students to build a confidential relationship with their supervisor and have a safe and supportive environment in which to reflect on their work and improve the overall quality of their work. Hirst (2019) outlined the importance of supervision in addressing and helping to alleviate burnout and compassion fatigue amongst social workers and highlighted the use of several therapeutic interventions including acceptance compassion therapy in supervision sessions.

Although the importance of supervision within field education has been identified, a mixed-methods research study of 12 first- and second year MSW students indicated there are some concerns, including large caseloads and limited availability of supervisors, lack of training for field supervisors, and a decrease in the value of student supervision (Everett et al., 2011). Tam et al. (2018) identified a number of other factors that has led to the decline of effective field placement supervision including a decrease in government and nongovernment funding for social services, discontinuation of some social service programs, and higher levels of stress and burnout amongst social work supervisors. A qualitative, cross-sectional research study of 263 undergraduate social work students from three separate college campuses indicated a shortage of available field education supervisors has led to cross-disciplinary supervision causing some concerns regarding the experiences of student learners (Cleak & Smith, 2012). Social

work students are now receiving supervision from primary care physicians, nurses, counselors, psychologists, and a variety of other professions (Shah et al., 2017). This has created an undervaluing of social work supervisors, as well as inadequately trained social work graduates (McPherson et al., 2016; Salm et al., 2016). Concerns regarding the content of supervision has also been discussed within recent research.

A study by Tarshis and Baird (2019) indicated social work students reported a low preparedness for addressing indirect trauma and compassion fatigue when servicing clients who experience intimate partner violence. Students suggested they were not prepared for the exposure of trauma, or the skills needed to cope with the exposure (Tarshis & Baird, 2019). Interventions related to addressing indirect trauma for social work students have been shared including utilizing role-plays in supervisions settings to learn and practice coping skills, training supervisees on applying theories and documenting client progress of goals as well as the use of performance-based feedback using technology and regular check-ins (Bird & Jonnson, 2020; McCorkle & Coogle, 2020; Southward & Pfeifer, 2019).

To address these concerns, several interventions have been put into place, including group supervision for students (LaPorte & Sweifach, 2011), reevaluating available field education sites (Cleak et al., 2016; Wiebe, 2010), and supervision via telecommunication services (Schmidt et al., 2015). The use of group supervision has been highly controversial with opponents stating students require a more individualized learning experience in order to adequately learn needed skills (Harvey et al., 2010). Those that agree with group supervision argue a group setting creates a supportive peer

environment that can be beneficial for students (Macgowan, 2010; Valentino et al., 2016).

Historically, supervision in social work field placement has been under the apprenticeship model in which students were expected to observe and mirror the more seasoned social worker (Cleak & Zuchowaki, 2019). At this time, the supervision models have changed and are no longer consistent across social work programs and universities (Zuchowski, 2016). A qualitative research study of 20 social work students and 20 social work supervisors, indicated students are reporting supervision is being completed by rotating supervisors, supervisors from outside of the field placement, and supervisors contracted by universities (Tsui, 2004). These factors have contributed to negative responses by students when asked about their satisfaction related to supervision received while participating in field placement (Manthorpe et al., 2015).

Due to inconsistencies and changes within the social work supervision model, it has been suggested that an evidence-based model for social work supervision be constructed (O'Donoghue et al., 2014). Wong and Lee (2015) suggest an evidenced based supervision model is "within reach," however, it must ensure it consists of the following aspects: focus on client issues and outcomes, focus on evidenced-based practice, professional ethics, cultural wisdom, and practice theory. Implications for an evidenced-based supervision model include, clarifying the roles and responsibilities of supervisors, addressing the professional and emotional needs of the supervisee, informing a true interactional process, and improving the supervisee's practice and client outcomes (Julien-Chinn & Lietz, 2015).

While much emphasis has been placed on the responsibilities of supervisors, supervisees also have a responsibility to be open and honest while in supervision sessions and disclose all pertinent information including treatment provided to clients, client outcomes, competency, and any field placement concerns (Cook et al., 2020). Students must be willing to engage in self-disclosure and actively participate in discussions regarding the supervisor and supervisee relationship, working competently with diverse clients and reviewing and understanding the social work code of ethics (Staples-Bradley et al., 2019).

The use of mobile technology and off-site supervision has sparked debate as well. Some researchers suggest supervisors should be "live" and maintain daily contact with students (Beddoe et al., 2011; Saltzburg et al., 2010). Schmidt et al. (2015) determined some of the benefits of mobile technologies for supervision include less time requirements for supervisors, keeping up with latest trends and providing students with more opportunities to access supervisors when needed. Jasper and Field (2016) argued that both forms were acceptable; however, weekly face-to-face meetings with supervisors are most appropriate as they give students a more realistic approach of what they are most likely to experience within the field.

With no sufficient evidence to support one supervision model is more effective than the other, as all present with strengths and limitations, Vassos et al. (2019) indicated a need for emphasis on pre-placement planning, field supervisor preparation, and supervisor and supervisee coordination for the most efficient field placement opportunity. Ross et al. (2019) also suggested increased support and efforts to improve field education

preparedness and coordination will improve supervisor's ability to work with culturally and professionally diverse students. The use of supervisory scales that measure supervisory competency and evaluate supervisor performance are also encouraged as a tool to improving supervision protocols and student outcomes (Moeller et al., 2020).

Retention in Social Work Field

The retention of social work professionals has become an increasingly critical topic of research within the past decade as predictions indicate a shortage of social workers may be imminent (Blosser et al., 2010). Successfully retaining social workers is important in ensuring the continuity of the profession and services provided (McKitterick, 2012). The inability to retain social work professionals has been linked to a number of factors including a lack of appropriate supervision, increased workloads and responsibilities, low salary and limited employee benefits, as well as overwhelming feelings of compassion fatigue, burnout and poor self-care (Evans & Huxley, 2009; Gopalan, 2015; McFadden et al., 2015). The results of a 3-wave longitudinal study of 335 child welfare workers, indicated that workers who report high levels of burnout are more likely to leave an organization as a way to prevent ongoing burnout, which in turn contributes to employee turnover and lowers retention rates (Lizano & Mor Barak, 2012).

Several studies have been completed to determine ways to improve retention of social workers including analyzing the quality of social work education, increasing support for supervisors, ensuring an appropriate organizational culture, and advocating for increased job satisfaction through policy administration (Agbényiga, 2009; Marmo & Berkman, 2018; Renner et al., 2009; Wermeling et al., 2013). Dalphon (2019) indicated

the need for much more specified training and individualized self-care plans for social workers to assist with improving overall retention. The Center for Rural Health in Alaska conducted a research study to determine successful retention strategies within the hospital sector (Gifford et al., 2010). The study outlined such strategies as annual raises, signing bonuses, and consistent supervision as strategies that created positive retention rates (State of Alaska Department of Health and Social Services Primary Care and Rural Health Unit, 2004).

Retention rates within the child welfare sector have become such a concern, individual states have begun conducting research studies to determine why social workers are leaving (Ellett et al., 2009). The Florida Study of Professionals for Safe Families conducted a longitudinal study of newly hired child welfare workers to determine factors related to low retention rates (Wilke, 2018). Similar factors regarding poor retention were reported including burnout, large caseloads, and poor supervision; however, other factors were found including perceptions of child welfare clients, any history of childhood maltreatment, and previous employment history (Benton, 2016; Griffiths & Royse, 2017).

A similar quantitative study conducted by the Tennessee child welfare system in which 927 child welfare workers completed a job satisfaction survey, found higher retention rates were attributed to smaller caseloads, higher salaries, and reported satisfaction in supervisor and co-worker relationships (Strand & Dore, 2009). Although the information gathered is prudent and can be used to address retention, it is flawed due to concerns regarding research participants. McGowan et al. (2010) indicated concern regarding research studies that use the terms “social work” and “social worker” as it has

been determined a majority of the research participants may not have degrees in social work. A quantitative research study of 12 master and 12 bachelor level child welfare workers determined child welfare, case managers and supervisors have different degrees and training; therefore, providing all respondents with the title of "social worker" can cause skewed results (Barbee et al., 2009).

While understanding the retention of social workers is important, the retention of social work supervisors is equally pertinent. Results of a quantitative research study in which 168 social work supervisors completed surveys regarding intentions to remain in the profession, report high numbers of social work supervisors often desire to leave the role of supervisor due to role overload, organizational changes, lack of time and space in which to adequately supervision, and ever-increasing workload (Freund & Guez, 2018).

Retaining Social Work Students

The studies for retention do not end at the social work profession. Research studies exist to address concerns regarding the decline in those graduating from social work programs (Agllias et al., 2016). Olcoń et al. (2018) indicated a lack of academic material that is specific to Hispanic culture has forced Hispanic students to rethink their interest in the area of social work. Theriot et al. (2006) indicated retention strategies for undergraduate social work students included a strong support system including parents, professors, and college advisors. Morley and Ablett (2017) completed two separate quantitative research studies involving 195 first-year social work students and 188 first-year social work students; in these studies, it was found that a student's ability to engage with other peers is also an indicator of high retention among first year students.

Internal and external factors are present when discussing the retention of social work students including family strain, financial loss, and lack of community partnerships along with lack of faculty supports and students not being prepared for the academic responsibilities of a college student (Holsey-Hyman, 2015). Social work programs have begun to enact several methods to improve retention rates including frequent check-ins with students via telecommunication, encouraging the use of peer support and group comradery, urging the use of self-care and trauma-informed care (Boath et al., 2018; Cortis et al., 2020; Rose & Palattiyil, 2021).

A 2015 qualitative study of 50 mental health professions by Slaughter and Hoefer sought to undercover possible causes related to the ongoing decline of students who chose to remain within social work and mental health programs. Results indicated that even though students report being attracted to the mental health field, they also reported a belief they will not make an impact in the world and believe they were not properly trained or prepared to address the challenges of the mental health field.

Professional Supervision and Retention

An exploratory research study completed by Chiller and Crisp (2012) found that a strong social work supervisor and social work peer group were important in a social worker's intention to remain within the social work profession. These findings were not expounded upon, and no further research implications were given to support or oppose the author's conclusions.

Hair (2013) determined, through a mixed-methods study of 636 social workers, that most research related to social work supervision operates on the assumption that both

the supervisor and supervisee are degreed social workers; however social work departments and supervisor roles continue to be eliminated at consistent rates. Perry (2006) indicated this is more common within the child welfare and hospital fields, as they employ a diverse set of professionals. Hair (2013) suggested the cross-discipline of supervisors creates a number of consequences including confusion for new professionals and graduates, ethical dilemmas, and a devaluing of social work values and skills. Using secondary data from a quantitative study completed by the National Child Welfare Workforce Institute, He et al. (2018) identified support from supervisors and peers as the primary source of determent of burnout for child welfare workers with research indicating workers are more likely to seek out support from peers rather than supervisors. External factors such as limited employee resources and limited access to client services and resources also contributed to job burnout (He et al., 2018).

An exploratory, quantitative study completed by Kim et al. (2018), took education into consideration, as well as supervisor support, when determining a child welfare worker's' intent to remain in the profession, however, the variable of education was limited to the employee rather than the supervisor. Kim et al. (2018) findings indicate child welfare workers with a degree in social work report higher levels of supervisor support but only during the first 1-2 years of employment. In this particular study, supervisors earned degrees in a number of fields including counseling, social work, criminal justice, education, sociology, and psychology (Kim et al., 2018).

Eisenberger et al. (2002) found that perceived supervisor support and perceived organizational support both contributed to a company's ability to retain employees;

however, the study was not specific in taking into consideration the profession of the supervisor. The study was quantitative in nature and included over 500 retail workers as well as approximately 450 college alumni who were engaged in a number of professions, which included but were not limited to nurses, educators, and human service workers (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

Brunetto et al. (2013) determined the supervisor-employee relationship was a contributing factor in commitment and retention; however, the study was specific to nurses and provided no direct correlation to licensed social workers or the profession of the supervisor. In a cross-sectional survey research design, Chenot et al. (2009) found that supervisor support played a crucial role in retaining child welfare workers during the first 3 years of employment. Peer support and organizational support were also found to contribute significantly to child welfare employee retention, however, not all subject participants had earned a degree in social work and the specific profession of the supervisor was not a part of the research process. Chenot et al. (2009) found that supervisor support was a significant predictor for retention in the child welfare agency ($t = 4.38$, $p < .01$) and the field in general ($t = 3.07$, $p < .01$).

Based on systematic review, Webb and Carpenter (2012) found supervision and support were major factors of retention; however, profession of supervisor was not a variable that was taken into account. A quantitative study completed by Hermon et al. (2018) determined supervisor satisfaction was a major factor in the intention of 502 California public child welfare workers to remain in the profession as opposed to those who planned to leave. The study, however, did not take into consideration the profession

of the supervisor although all research participants obtained a master's degree in social work.

When assessing the intentions of child welfare workers to remain in the profession, Collins-Camargo et al. (2009) identified supervisor support as a major theme. The supervisors engaged in the study participated in a clinical training to improve overall supervisory skills; however, the study did not identify the profession of the supervisors. The National Child Welfare Workforce Institute has developed several programs aimed at improving retention rates among child welfare workers through the use of intensive training for managers and supervisors, increased partnerships with universities and offering student stipends and distributing leadership responsibilities through the use of teams which prompted improvement of organizational climate and culture (Leake et al., 2020).

Although studies have been completed in recent years that identify some correlation between supervision and retention, the studies do not include ways in which the profession of the supervisor also contributes. Some of the studies also have some implications that may be prevalent to social workers, however, were more geared towards other professions such as nurses or educators. Due to focus of declining retention rates within child welfare, a majority of research has been directed towards that practice area.

Self-Efficacy in Social Work

Self-efficacy, within a professional context, most often refers to an employee's belief in their ability to perform duties and responsibilities adequately and efficiently (Pecukonis et al., 2016). One of the goals of supervision is to ensure the self-efficacy of

supervisees (Julien-Chinn & Lietz, 2016). A quantitative research study completed by Collins-Camargo and Royse (2010), using survey data collected from over 900 child welfare workers in Iowa, indicated there was a relationship between effective supervision and high self-efficacy; however, the study was limited to child welfare workers. Berlanda et al. (2017) indicated professional efficacy was predicted by two factors; including work relationships and employee age, however, it is also impacted by casework overload. Conclusions from a mixed-methods research study indicated senior social workers reported higher levels of emotion regulation and self-efficacy as opposed to younger social workers; however, again, the research study was limited to child welfare workers (Berlanda et al., 2017). A similar quantitative, cross-sectional research study completed by Kanno and Koeske (2010) including 144 master of social work degree students, determined a positive link between effective supervision of field placement supervisors and reported levels of self-efficacy among MSW students.

Aside from supervision, self-efficacy within the field of social work has been researched in several areas including academia. Social work programs at several colleges and universities have used self-efficacy as a research variable to determine effectiveness of instruction and field placement (Carter et al., 2018; Holden et al., 2017; Simmons et al., 2017). Gockel and Burton (2014) found that students participating in foundational classes reported a higher level of self-efficacy at the start of their practicum. A 2016 quantitative study, completed by Simons et al., indicated social workers within the gerontology field associated smaller caseloads as well as longer time in the field with higher levels of self-efficacy. Farchi et al. (2014) concluded levels of self-efficacy among

BSW graduates were reported at higher rates after their completion of a stress and trauma studies seminar prompting results that indicate stress and trauma studies would be beneficial if incorporated in undergraduate instruction.

Deck et al. (2016) utilized the Evaluation Self-Efficacy Scale to determine the level of research efficiency social work students reached after completing a research course that included a service-learning project not previously included in the curriculum. A second scale, the Evidence-Based Mental Health Practices with Children Efficacy Scale, involved comparing scoring levels of reported self-efficacy of master level students enrolled in a child mental health course beginning on the first day of class and on the last day of class (McMeel et al., 2017). Students who were knowledgeable in evidence base practice methods reported a higher level of self-efficacy (McMeel et al., 2017).

Variables outside of those causally related to practice also contribute to varying levels of self-efficacy. Robins et al. (2018) reported an association between levels of reported self-efficacy and burnout rates among social work students. Students who believed they were competent and efficient in their abilities as social workers reported lower levels of burnout. Oxhandler et al. (2015) observed a strong correlation between licensed social workers who integrate religion and spirituality into daily practice and their levels of self-efficacy.

Summary

The retention of social workers has long been a concern within the profession, with research investigating various solutions to increase overall retention rates. Smaller

caseloads, higher salaries, improving employee benefits and providing ongoing supervision are some of the interventions that have been determined to increase overall retention rates among social workers in multiple arenas. While research has been completed regarding retention and intervention strategies, there remains some gaps in literature regarding how these interventions can be implemented within agencies.

Several studies suggest leadership training for supervisors and more focus on self-care planning for workers would be beneficial; however, the role of high self-efficacy and retention amongst social workers continues to be an area that has remained limited in terms of research and understanding. This is an area that deserves more insight as the concerns regarding retention and well-being of social workers continues to be an area of concern. While reviewing various research studies focusing on topics of supervision, retention, and self-efficacy, the divergence of these studies is evident. Most of the studies appeared to be qualitative or quantitative in nature, however, some studies did emerge as mixed-methods, longitudinal, and theory-oriented. The sample size and sample characteristics varied tremendously as several studies were small in nature, producing 10-20 participants while others presented with research populations of 100-200 persons. It is beneficial to note that the topics of supervision, retention, and self-efficacy have been used in varying professional and academic settings to address several social problems.

In Chapter 3, the research design and rationale, methodology, and ethical procedures are described. Chapter 3 also includes additional insights regarding secondary data used for this study, as well as data collection, sampling, and instrumentation.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

As social workers strive daily to make a positive impact on the lives of others, the need for social worker support and supervision is also a concern. The purpose of this quantitative study was twofold. First, correlations between retention, supervision, and self-efficacy among a nationally representative sample of licensed social workers were addressed, as well as a gap in understanding the impact of supervisory support on improving social worker retention and professional self-efficacy. Information gained from this study will help social work professionals better understand the importance of social work supervision in terms of affecting the overall longevity of professional social workers and quality of services they provide. As a result of improved retention, social workers in general will be better prepared, more knowledgeable, and better equipped to practice and serve within the profession. This chapter includes information about the quantitative study design, including the research design and rationale, methodology, methods of participant selection, data collection, and instrumentation. Limitations and ethical considerations are identified and addressed.

Research Design and Rationale

Licensed social workers play integral parts in treating mental health and substance abuse issues. It is also important that social workers practice self-care and burnout reduction techniques, and ensure appropriate supervision and support is in place. In this quantitative study, I examined the relationship between social work supervision (i.e., supervisor background and worker satisfaction) and social worker job retention and self-

efficacy. Demographic information related to age, ethnicity, gender, social work degree held, practice area, and years of experience were used in my analysis of these relationships. The following research questions were addressed:

RQ1: What is the relationship between satisfaction with professional social work supervision, self-efficacy, and retention among social workers?

$H_0$1: There is no significant relationship between satisfaction with professional social work supervision, worker self-efficacy, and retention among social workers.

H_a1: There is a significant relationship between satisfaction of professional social work supervision, worker self-efficacy, and retention among social workers.

RQ2: What is the relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers?

$H_0$2: There is a significant relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers.

H_a2: There is no significant relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers.

These research questions were answered using a correlational nonexperimental quantitative survey design through the use of secondary data. Secondary data from the NASW Center for Workforce Studies National Study of Licensed Social Workers completed in 2004 were used for this study. Initial data were gathered using an electronic-based and random sample of NASW members across the country. In the original study, a total of 9,999 individuals were sent the survey; however, the total number of respondents to complete and return the survey was 4,489. This design is

consistent with the purpose of the study, which is to measure relationships between identified independent and dependent variables. The original survey instrument contained questions specifically related to supervisor background, supervisor availability and support, length of time on the job, intentions to change job, and worker self-efficacy.

Secondary data analysis is a method of data collection in which a researcher uses data that have already been collected to answer a new question or generate new insights from previously collected data (Church, 2001). Secondary data is the richest type of data because it covers a wide variety of topics and is appropriate in its ease of access and is, for the most part, "maintenance free" (Church, 2001, p. 34). The use of secondary data mitigates some issues related to time resources. Doolan and Froelicher (2009) indicated the reliability of secondary data can be tested by asking several questions about who collected the data and was known biases of entities compiling data.

This particular secondary dataset was collected and compiled by the NASW, which is a large, professional organization that has been in existence for a substantial number of years and adheres to a high level of ethical standards. I assumed data collected by this entity were reliable and unbiased. There have been several secondary studies that have utilized the dataset as part of the research study. In 2012, Bonifas et al. utilized the dataset to understand the relationship between perceived self-efficacy in gerontological social workers and client outcomes. The dataset was used in a research study and article completed by Simons et al. (2011) to assess the commitment of licensed social workers to continue working with the aging population. Sheridan (2004) also used the results of the dataset to assess the use of spiritually derived interventions in social work practice.

Methodology

Population

In 2004, there was an estimated 310,000 licensed social workers in the labor force, defined specifically as an individual who holds a license to practice social work. These individuals included licensed bachelor of social work, licensed master of social work, licensed clinical social worker-associate, licensed clinical social worker, and licensed school social worker. Licensed social workers were used in this study as they represent a major population of frontline workers who provide direct care services to underrepresented persons. Licensed social workers represent the largest population of social workers with an estimated 63% of all social workers in the US. Licensed social workers also tend have advanced educational and practice experience (Whitaker et al., 2006).

Data Collection and Sampling

Original Study

To participate in the original study, a database of approximately 255,000 social workers from state licensing boards were collected. The inclusion criteria was confined to licensed, certified and registered for social work practice, in their state. For this study, the term “licensure” is defined as an individual that holds any of the following: licensed bachelor of social work, licensed master of social work, licensed clinical social worker, licensed clinical social worker (associate), and licensed school social worker. The legal regulations involving licensure vary between states, and only 35 states recognize baccalaureate level licensure; therefore, the degrees earned, and experience levels of

Table 1

Sampling Rates for Census Regions

Census Region	Total Number	Percent	Number	Percent of Total
New England	14,436	5.67	1,111	7.7
Middle Atlantic	25,267	9.93	1,111	4.4
East North Central	57,174	22.46	1,111	1.9
West North Central	24,904	9.78	1,111	4.5
South Atlantic	56,265	22.11	1,111	2.0
East South Central	13,974	5.49	1,111	8.0
West South Central	25,040	9.84	1,111	4.4
Mountain	15,595	6.13	1,111	7.1
Pacific	21,859	8.59	1,111	5.1
Totals	254,514	100	9,999	100

respondents differed. It should also be noted that 7.8% of respondents reported having no social work degree; having no social work degree was not used as exclusion criteria.

Of the approximately 255,000 potential participants, a stratified random sampling of 9,999 participants were drawn with an equal number (1,111) from each of the nine census regions. These nine census regions were New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific regions. Stratified random sampling was effective for this study as

it allowed for an equal representation of respondents (see Table 1). Stratified random sampling is also used to highlight differences between groups within the sample population (Rubin, 1974). It can be argued, however, that a disadvantage of using stratified random sampling is that it is left to the researcher to determine which subgroups are chosen for the population. This can cause overlapping of some subjects because they may fall into multiple subgroups or strata (Rubin, 1974).

Potential respondents were given 3 months to complete the survey and return to the Center of Workforce Studies. Because many of the potential respondents' addresses were no longer valid, a number of surveys in the first mailing were returned undelivered. To compensate for this issue, a replacement sample was drawn. After matching undeliverable addresses to the Census division, an additional 692 surveys were mailed (Center for Health Workforce Studies & NASW Center for Workforce Studies, 2006).

Three mailings were sent to the social workers in the sample. The first mailing generated the highest percentage of responses (57%), 32% of the responses resulted from the second mailing, and 11% of responses occurred following the third mailing. Following completion of the surveys, the final sample size for the original study was 4,489 licensed clinical social workers (Center for Health Workforce Studies & NASW Center for Workforce Studies, 2006).

Of the 4,489 licensed social workers, a majority (83%) of the respondents were women. Also, a majority of the respondents (86%) identified as Non-Hispanic White. Other respondents identified in ethnic groups of African-American (6.8%), American Indian (0.5%), Asian American (1.4%), Hispanic (4.3%) and Other (1.4%). A large

number of the respondents (79%) indicated they held a master's degree in social work as their highest earned degree. The remaining respondents identified having a bachelor's degree in social work (12%), no degree in social work (8%) and a doctoral degree in social work (2%; Center for Health Workforce Studies & NASW Center for Workforce Studies, 2006).

Table 2

Response Rates by Census Division

Census Region	Total Number of Mailed Surveys	Total Responses Received
New England	1,261	476
Middle Atlantic	1,183	564
East North Central	1,204	471
West North Central	1,067	488
South Atlantic	1,205	469
East South Central	1,200	501
West South Central	1,135	504
Mountain	1,202	521
Pacific	1,191	495
Totals	10,648	4,489

Current Study

The current study includes 1,425 respondents from the original study. The number of respondents was concluded by excluding any respondents who identified themselves as currently not working as social workers. Other respondents excluded were those who denied any current direct service work as well as any respondents who identified themselves as not having a social work degree. Any respondent failing to completely answer all questions used for the self-efficacy scale were excluded. Finally, respondents who did not answer specific questions related to self-efficacy, retention, and supervision were also excluded. The sample size of 1,425 licensed social workers provides ample power for any of the possible inferential analyses in this study (i.e., independent t test, chi-square test, ANOVA). In a power analysis of the most restrictive statistical test, multiple linear regression, with a significance level of .05, a power coefficient of .95, effect size of .15, and 5 predictor variables, the minimum sample size indicated was 138 study participants.

The procedure to retrieving the secondary data set included completing the Application for Data Access Form, the Conditions for Use Form, and the Limitations of this Dataset Form. All forms must be completed and returned to the NASW Center for Workforce Studies along with a $100 user fee. After contacting National Association of Social Work, I was informed all fees for this dataset have been waived. The secondary data was then mailed in the form of a USB drive in SPSS format.

Instrumentation

Original Study

The original survey was developed by the Center for Health Workforce Studies in the School of Public Health at the State University of New York, Albany specifically for the NASW Center for Workforce Studies National Study of Licensed Social Workers. The original survey design was informed by focus groups and individual interviews with practicing social workers, from a number of specialized fields of practice including child welfare and family social work, social work with older adults, mental health and addictions, and medical social work. The final instrument was an 8-page, 75-item survey that respondents were asked to complete, place in the also enclosed envelope and return via mail. Respondents were asked to use a number 2 pencil, blue or black ink pen, and completely fill in the oval to the corresponding answer for the survey questions. The sections covered in the survey were respondent demographics, education and training, employment setting, wages and benefits, populations served, perspectives on social work practice and career plans.

Section I (Background Questions) covered demographic questions that were specific to age with respondents asked to identify from one of six age groups; “under 25”, “26-34”, “35-44”, “45-54”, “55-64”, and “65-and older.” The only two gender identifications posed were male and female; however, there were multiple categories for race including “Non-Hispanic White”, “African American”, “American Indian”, “Asian American”, “Hispanic”, and “Other.” Any current enrollment for a social work degree

and any collaborating certifications, as well as any current or pursuant trainings related to social work, were included.

The next section, Social Work Practice, contains questions regarding employment status, years of practice, hours worked per week, primary employment, and annual income. Section III. Services to Clients, posed questions include services provided to client populations, caseload size, caseload make-up, and conditions being treated.

The last section (Section IV), Workplace Issues, consists of questions regarding noted changes in employment and practice, satisfaction with client's access to services, satisfaction with the time devoted to clients, and career plans as well as possible influences to future career plans. Section III, Services to Clients, and two supplemental sections (Services for Older Adults/Services for Children and Families) that were only completed by respondents who specifically served those populations, were not used in the current study.

Current Study

For this study, retention will be captured using 3 questions, which asked specifically about the number of years worked for primary employer with categorical responses of less than 1 year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years and 16 years or more), plan to remain in current position (yes or no), and plan to leave social work but continue to work (yes or no) (See Appendix A). For the demographic qualifier of ethnicity, the original studies identified categories of Non-Hispanic-White (86%), African American (6.8%), Hispanic/Latino (4.3%), Native American (.5%), Asian (1.4%) and Other (1.4%). For the current study, the categories that elicited the least number of responses, Native

American, Asian, and Other, were combined and placed in the “Other” category. The larger ethnicity categories (Non-Hispanic-White, African American, and Hispanic/Latino remained.

Supervision will also be captured using 3 survey questions including identifying if the supervisor in primary position is a social worker, (yes or no), perceived availability of supervisor to social worker in the past 2 years (decreased, stayed the same or increased), and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor (disagree, neither, agree) (See Appendix B).

Lastly, worker self-efficacy will be measured by a 14 question, 5-point Likert scale related to job performance and satisfaction in professional ability into a cumulative self-efficacy scale. The Likert scale format, scored from 1-5, with 1 representing “Never” and 5 representing “Always” (See Appendix C). All associations between the individual questions were analyzed and deemed to have a correlational relationship. A principal components confirmatory factor analysis was used to construct the latent self-efficacy variable; factor loadings are indicated in Table 1. Reliability analysis for the 14-item cumulative self-efficacy scale resulted in a Cronbach’s alpha of .827 indicating the items on the scale have high internal consistency. Cronbach’s alpha is most commonly used to measure internal consistency, specifically to assess the reliability of a set of test scores or groups (Schrepp, 2020).

Data Analysis

Software to be used for analysis is Statistical Package of the Social Sciences or SPSS version 27. SPSS is a software package used for statistical analysis. Frequencies

will be run for all relevant demographic, independent, and dependent variables to ensure appropriate data cleaning and screening. Missing data values will be adjusted using mean or modal imputation.

Research questions to be answered and hypotheses are as follows:

RQ1: What is the relationship between satisfaction of professional social work supervision, self-efficacy, and retention among social workers?

H_01: There is no significant relationship between satisfaction of professional social work supervision, worker self-efficacy, and retention.

H_a1: There is a significant relationship between satisfaction of professional social work supervision, worker self-efficacy, and retention.

RQ2: What is the relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers?

H_02: There is a relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers?

H_a2: There is no relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers?

Pearson's correlation was used to test the association between continuous measures. Multiple linear regression was used to predict the effect of social work supervision on self-efficacy. Other statistical tests depended on the final shape of the data, levels of measurement, and number of groups for categorical outcome variables.

Table 3

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Loadings for Self-Efficacy Scale

Item	CFA Loading	Item	CFA Loading	Item	CFA Loading
1	.650	6	.490	11	.637
2	.647	7	.662	12	.479
3	.544	8	.626	13	.494
4	544	9	.587	14	.587
5	.476	10	.467		

Note. See Appendix C for item descriptions.

Threats to Validity

Although secondary data is a commonly used research tool, it does have disadvantages and possible threats to validity. One common issue regarding validity when using secondary data may be the scarceness of study design procedures and data collection. The Center for Workforce Studies was able to provide extensive procedural and methodological information regarding the collection of data and intended uses of all data collected. There may be some concerns regarding generalizability as the survey respondents and initial study was geared specifically towards licensed social workers and the results from respondents may not be applicable to those within other professions (Whitaker et al., 2006). Per the Center for Workforce Studies, the information was gathered for the specific reason to “support the development of effective workforce

policies and strategies to assure the availability of adequate number of frontline social workers prepared to respond to the growing needs of individuals, families, and communities in the United States" (Whitaker et al., 2006, p. 4).

Ethical Procedures

The initial survey was completed using names of licensed social workers retrieved from state licensures and registration lists. From that master list, a group of 9,999 licensed social workers was gathered, creating a list of equal representation from 9 census divisions. All survey responses were completed on a voluntary basis and no personal demographic information such as name, address or telephone number was asked of respondents. All data were de-identified and cannot be linked back to any of the initial survey participants.

A total of three mailings were sent out, the first to all potential respondents and the subsequent mailings were sent to those who did not initially respond. The three mailings gave participants ample time to submit responses. An incentive was also provided for each of the three drawings in which respondents were entered into a lottery and eligible for a cash prize ($1,000 for the first mailing, $500 for the second mailing, and $250 for the third mailing).

No ethical concerns were indicated during the initial study procedure. The University of Albany, School of Public Health were responsible for a number of opportunities for input including implementing the study, conducting the analyses and assisting with producing the executive summary, full report and all supplemental summaries.

All data were kept on an USB flash drive purchased by the student and kept in a desk at student's personal residence. Student's dissertation chair, committee chair and URR had access to any data collected and analyzed. Data was collected and kept until completion of dissertation project and subsequent completion of any other requirements related to dissertation. Since the current study is a secondary data analysis, approval was sought from Walden University's Institutional Review Board under the exempt review category.

Summary

The aim of this study was to identify correlations between retention, supervision, and self-efficacy among a representative group of licensed social workers. My goal was to fill a gap in understanding the impact of supervisory support on improving social worker retention and professional self-efficacy. The use of secondary data was important to this study as it was a resource in utilizing data that was previously collected and analyzed by NASW, Center for Workforce Studies and University of Albany. Data analysis was completed using SPSS and Pearson's correlation to test associations between continuous measures. Multiple linear regression was used to predict the effect of social work supervision on self-efficacy.

Prior to applying for access to secondary data sources, an application was submitted to the university's IRB for conditional approval. Ethical considerations were addressed throughout this process to ensure ongoing confidentiality of participants, and several applications were submitted to the Center for Workforce Studies to ensure access

to the dataset. In Chapter 4, the secondary data are analyzed and applied to research questions, and results of the study are detailed.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine several relationships between supervision, retention, and self-efficacy. Retention was measured using several questions involving years worked for primary employers, plans to remain in current positions, and plans to leave the social work profession. Supervision was measured using the following variables: supervisor profession (social work or not social work), perceived availability of supervisors, and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor. Lastly, worker self-efficacy was measured via a 14-item cumulative self-efficacy scale based on questions related to job performance and satisfaction in terms of professional ability.

In this chapter, a statistical analysis of data to answer the following research questions and hypotheses is presented:

RQ1: What is the relationship between satisfaction with professional social work supervision, self-efficacy, and retention among social workers?

$H_0 1$: There is no significant relationship between satisfaction with professional social work supervision, worker self-efficacy, and retention among social workers.

$H_a 1$: There is a significant relationship between satisfaction of professional social work supervision, worker self-efficacy, and retention among social workers.

RQ2: What is the relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers?

$H_0$2: There is a significant relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers.

H_a2: There is no significant relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers.

Direction of relationships between supervision, retention, and self-efficacy were not entirely clear. As a result, non-directional hypotheses were proposed.

This chapter includes an extensive review and explanation of data collection methods, statistical testing, and descriptive and inferential results.

Data Collection

The time frame for retrieving and cleaning the secondary data provided by the NASW Center for Workforce Studies was approximately 6 weeks. There was a minor change in Chapter 3 in that NASW did not charge a fee for access to the secondary data. The data set was received in the mail via a USB drive.

Sampling Procedure

All study participants for the current study were taken from the original NASW Center for Workforce Studies sample. Of the 4,489 original NASW Center for Workforce Studies participants, those who did not identify as actively working as direct care social workers under supervision were excluded. Study participants who failed to completely respond to all supervision, retention, and self-efficacy questions were also excluded from the current study. This resulted in a final sample size for secondary analysis of 1,425 social workers.

Study Participant Characteristics

Demographics

Among the remaining sample population, 84.8% (*n* = 1,209) identified as female, and 15.2% (*n* = *2*16) reported as male. In reviewing the categorical age responses, 32.6% of respondents were between the ages of 45 and 54 (*n* = 464). Other age categories are as follows: 21.9% (*n* = 312) of respondents were 34 and under, 26.3% (*n* = 375) were between 35 and 44, and 19.2% (*n* = 274) were 55 or older. For ethnicity, the largest reported group is White and Non-Hispanic with 84.4% (*n* = 1,202) of total respondents, followed by Black/African American respondents at 6.7% (*n* = 96), Hispanic/Latinos at 4.5% (*n* = 64), and those who identified as Other at 4.4% (*n* = 63; see Table 1).

All other demographic information was specifically related to educational and professional backgrounds, including highest social work degree, practice area, and years of experience. In terms of highest social work degree, 74.8% (*n* = 1,066) of respondents indicated having an MSW and 14.8% (*n* = 211) reported having a BSW, while 2% (*n* = 29) of participants reported having a DSW/PhD. In the study, 8.4% (*n* = 119) of respondents reported having no social work degree. Practice area was defined in terms of five categories: behavioral health, medical health, children and adolescents, aging, and other. Thirty percent (*n* = 427) of respondents indicated practicing in the area of behavioral health and 29.1% (*n* = 414) reported working with children and adolescents. Respondents working in the medical health field accounted for 14.5% (*n* = 206) of study participants while 9.7% (*n* = 138) of participants worked with aging populations. Lastly, 16.8% (*n* = 240) respondents reported working in another area (see Table 4).

Years of experience was also reported categorically. The largest number of respondents, 22.3% (*n* = 318), reported having 5-9 years of experience, followed by 18.8% (*n* = 268) who reported having 10-14 years. 14.5% (*n* = 206) of respondents indicated 25 or more years, 12.7% (*n* = 181) had 1-4 years of experience, and 12.6% (*n* = 180) reported 15-19 years of experience. Respondents with 20-24 years of experience were 11.5% (*n* = 164) or the fewest number of respondents, with 7.6% (*n* = 108), indicating less than 1 year of experience (see Table 4).

These demographic characteristics are consistent with demographic frequencies and percentages reported in the original study sample (*N* = 4,489; see Chapter 3 for demographics from the original sample).

Supervision, Retention, and Self-Efficacy

Variables of supervision, retention, and self-efficacy were measured. Retention was measured using interview questions that were specific to current employment and future career plans, beginning with years worked for primary employers. This question was measured categorically, with 38.7% (*n* = 552), indicating working for primary employer for 1-5 years. 12.1% (*n* = 172) of respondents reported working for primary employers for less than 1 year. This was followed by 21.4% (*n* = 305) of participants who reported working 6-10 years, 13.5% (*n* = 193) who worked 11-15 years, and 14.2% (*n* = 203) who indicated working 16 years or more. Plan to remain in current position was assessed via yes or no responses with 68.4% (*n* = 975) stating yes and 31.6% (*n* = 450) indicating no. Plan to leave the social work profession was also answered this way, with 4.9% (*n* = 70) reporting yes and 95.1% (*n* = 1,355) indicating no.

Table 4

Study Participant Demographics (N = 1,425)

	f	%		*f*	%
Gender			**Practice Area**		
Male	216	15.2	Behavioral health	427	30.0
Female	1209	84.8	Medical health	206	14.5
Ethnicity			Child welfare	414	29.1
Black/AA	96	6.7	Aging	138	9.7
Hispanic/Latino	64	4.5	Other	240	16.8
White/Non-Hispanic	1202	84.4	**Experience**		
Other	63	4.4	Less than 1 year	108	7.6
Age			1-4 years	181	12.7
34 and under	312	21.9	5-9 years	318	22.3
35-44 years	375	26.3	10-14 years	268	18.8
45-54 years	464	32.6	15-19 years	180	12.6
55 years or older	274	19.2	20-24 years	164	11.5
Highest SW Degree			25 years or more	206	14.5
No SW degree	119	8.4			
BSW	211	14.8			
MSW	1066	74.8			
DSW/PhD	29	2.0			

Supervision was measured using several variables including supervisor profession, perceived availability of the supervisor, and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor. The question of supervisor profession specifically asks if the respondent's supervisor identified as a social worker, requiring a "yes or no" response. A slightly larger number of participants 51.6% (n = 736) indicated a response of "no," their supervisor was not a social worker and 48.4% (n = 689) reported "yes." Perceived changes in availability of the supervisor was answered using "decreased", "stayed the same", or "increased." Most respondents 59.3% (n = 845) reported availability of supervisor stayed the same, followed by 24.8% (n = 354) who indicated availability of supervisor decreased, and 15.9% (n = 226) reported availability of supervisor increased. Lastly, for the variable of supervision, respondents used "disagree", "neither", or "agree" to answer, "I am satisfied with support and guidance received from supervisor." The largest number of participants, 64.6% (n = 920), indicated they agreed with statement, followed by 18.8% (n = 268) reporting they neither agree or disagree, and 16.6% (n = 237) of respondents indicated they disagree with the statement (see Table 5).

Worker self-efficacy was measured by a 14-item cumulative self-efficacy scale based on questions related to job performance and satisfaction in professional ability. The 14 items were in a 5-point Likert scale format, with 1 representing "Never" and 5 representing "Always." The mean for the cumulative self-efficacy scale variable is 52.74 with a standard deviation of 7.03. Scores on the self-efficacy scale ranged from 28 to 70 points.

Table 5

Supervision, Retention, and Self-Efficacy Variables

	Frequency	Percent
Years worked for primary employer		
Less than one year	172	12.1
1-5 years	552	38.7
6-10 years	305	21.4
11-15 years	193	13.5
16 or more years	203	14.2
Plans to remain in current position	975	68.4
Plan to leave social work profession	70	4.9
Supervisor is a social worker	689	48.4
Perceived ability of supervisor		
Decreased	354	24.8
Stayed the same	845	59.3
Increased	226	15.9
Satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor		
Disagree	237	16.6
Neither	268	18.8
Agree	920	64.6

Results

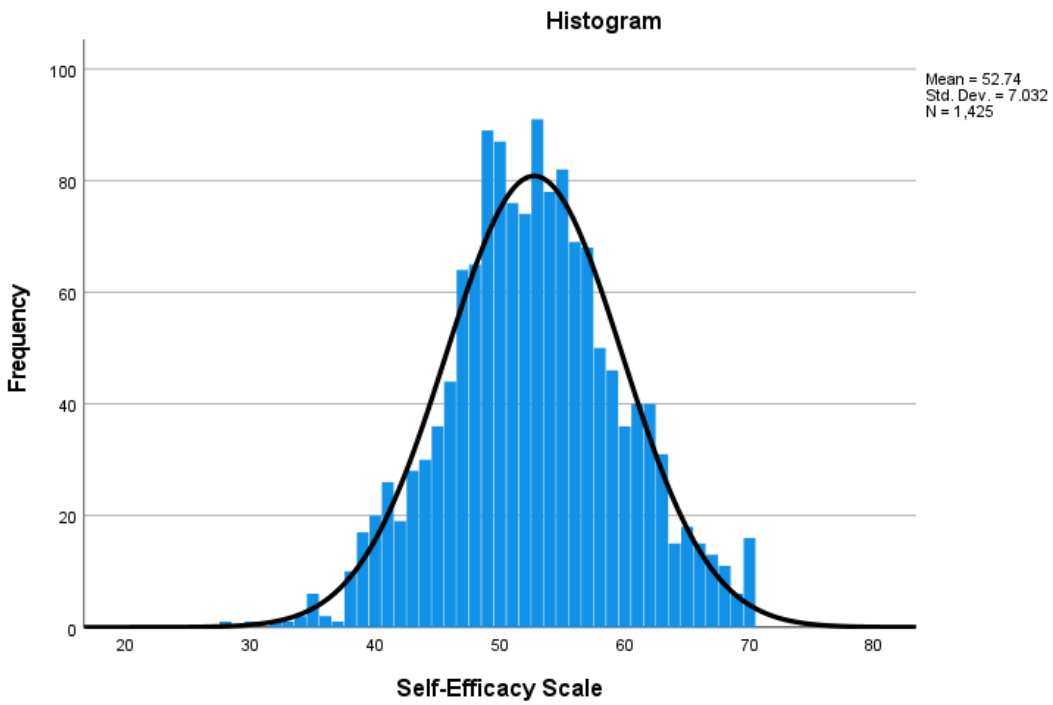
Inferential Analysis Testing Assumptions

Statistical tests for inferential analysis were primarily predicated on the level of measurement of each variable and the distribution of the self-efficacy scale (i.e., normal or skewed). Relationships between nominal- and ordinal-level categorical retention and supervision variables were analyzed using chi-square tests of association; Cramer's *V* statistics were used to indicate the strength of associations in significant chi-square results (Abu-Bader, 2021).

Measures of skewness (0.03, *SE* = .065) and kurtosis (-0.03, *SE* = .130) support the approximation of a normal distribution for the self-efficacy scale (Mishra et al.,

Figure 1

Self-Efficacy Scale Histogram



2019). Figure 1 shows the distribution and histogram of the self-efficacy scale. The normally distributed dependent scale variable indicated the use of independent t-tests and one-way ANOVA for comparisons of categorical groups (Abu-Bader, 2021).

Research Question 1

What is the relationship between satisfaction of professional social work supervision, self-efficacy, and retention among social workers?

This research question was analyzed using a number of statistical analyses that examined several differences and associations. The variable of self-efficacy was analyzed to determine the association amongst other variables including plan to remain in current position, years worked for primary employer, plan to leave social work but remain in the workforce, availability of social work supervision and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor.

Retention and Self-Efficacy

An independent-samples *t* test was calculated comparing the mean self-efficacy scale score of participants who identified themselves as planning to remain in current position to the mean self-efficacy score of participants who identified themselves as planning not to remain in current position. A significant difference was found ($t(1,423) = 2.065$, $p = .039$). The mean on the self-efficacy scale of study participants who indicated they do plan to remain in current position ($M = 53.00$, $SD = 7.046$) was significantly different from the mean on the self-efficacy scale of study participants who indicated they do not plan to remain in current position ($M = 52.17$, $SD = 6.976$). Study participants

who plan to remain in their current position have significantly higher self-efficacy than study participants who do not plan to remain in their current position (see Table 6).

The mean self-efficacy score of study participants from five different groups reporting years worked for primary employer was compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(4, 1{,}420) = .272$, $p = .896$). The reported levels of self-efficacy from the five groups did not differ significantly. Study participants who have worked for primary employer for less than a year had a mean self-efficacy score of 52.47 (*SD* = 6.74). Study participants who have worked for primary employer between 1-5 years had a mean self-efficacy score of 52.77 (*SD* = 6.72). Study participants who have worked for primary employer 6-10 years had a mean self-efficacy score of 52.65 (*SD* = 7.14). Study participants who have worked for primary employer between 11-15 years had a mean self-efficacy score of 53.17 (*SD* = 7.04) and those who have worked for

Table 6

Retention and Self-Efficacy

		Mean self-efficacy (*SD*)	Mean difference	*t*	*p*
Plan to remain in current position	Yes	53.00 (7.05)	0.827	2.065	.039
	No	52.17 (6.98)			
Plan to leave social work	Yes	49.36 (7.89)	-3.557	-4.150	< .001
	No	52.91 (6.94)			

Note. Comparisons made using independent *t* tests.

primary employer for more than 16 years had a mean self-efficacy score of 52.62 (*SD* = 7.90).

An independent-samples *t* test was calculated comparing the mean self-efficacy scale score of participants who identified themselves as planning to leave the social work field but remain in the workforce to the mean self-efficacy score of participants who identified themselves as not planning to leave the social work field. A significant difference was found ($t(1,423) = -4.150$, $p < .001$). The mean on the self-efficacy scale of study participants who indicated they do plan to leave the social work profession but remain in the workforce ($M = 49.36$, $SD = 7.889$) was significantly different from the mean on the self-efficacy scale of study participants who indicated they do not plan to leave the social work profession ($M = 52.91$, $SD = 6.94$). Study participants who plan to leave the social work profession have significantly lower self-efficacy than study participants who do not plan to leave social work (see Table 3).

Supervision and Self-Efficacy

A one-way ANOVA comparing the mean self-efficacy scale of study participants reporting availability of social work supervision decreased, stayed the same, or increased was computed. A significant difference was found among availability of supervision groups ($F(2, 1,422) = 12.48$, $p < .001$). Bonferroni's post hoc test was used to determine the nature of the difference between responses. This analysis revealed the study participants who reported changes in availability of supervision had significantly different levels of self-efficacy. Study participants who reported decreased availability of social work supervision had lower self-efficacy ($M = 51.58$, $SD = 6.98$) than study

participants who reported availability of supervision remained the same (M = 52.74, SD = 6.91, p = .025). Study participants who reported an increase in availability of social work supervision (M = 54.54, SD = 7.23) was significantly different from both of the other two respondent groups (p < .01) (see Table 4).

A one-way ANOVA comparing the mean self-efficacy scores of participants and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor was computed. A significant difference was found support and guidance from supervisor groups (F(2, 1,422) = 21.71, p < 0.001). Bonferroni's post hoc test was used to determine the nature of the difference between respondent groups. This analysis revealed the study participants who reported satisfaction with support and guidance from their supervisor had significantly higher self-efficacy (M = 53.60, SD = 6.89), when compared to study participants who had a neutral response to support and guidance from their supervisor (M = 51.73, SD = 7.07, p < .001), and study participants who did not have support and guidance from their supervisor (M = 50.55, SD = 6.94, p < .001). Study participants who neither agreed or disagreed with satisfaction of support and guidance received from supervisor were not significantly different from study participants who did not have support and guidance from their supervisor (p = .168) (see Table 7).

Supervision and Retention

Variables of supervision and retention were analyzed using a number of chi-square tests and variables including availability of social work supervision, years worked for primary employer, plan to remain in current position and plan to leave social work but remain within the workforce. Based on a chi-square test, there was no significant

Table 7

One-Way ANOVA for Supervision and Self-Efficacy: Mean Differences (SE)

Availability of supervision has changed	Decreased	Stayed the same	Increased
Decreased	-----	-1.167 (.442)*	-2.968 (.594)***
Stayed the same	1.167 (.442)*	------	-1.801(.522)**
Increase	2.968 (.594)***	1.801 (.522)**	-----
Satisfied with support and guidance from supervisor	**Disagree**	**Neither**	**Agree**
Disagree	-----	-1.183 (.618)	-3.048 (.505)***
Neither	1.183 (.618)	-----	-1.865 (.481)***
Agree	3.048 (.505)***	1.865 (.481)***	-----

Note. All comparisons made using Bonferroni post hoc test. *** p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05

association between availability of social work supervision and years worked for primary employer ($\chi^2(8) = 10.33$, $p = .243$). A higher proportion of study participants indicated availability of supervision stayed the same (59.2%): the majority reported working for their primary employer between 1-5 years (38.7%). In contrast, a low proportion of study participants reported working for their primary employer between 11-15 years (13.5%) and indicated an increase in availability of supervision (15.9%).

Based on a chi-square test, there was no significant association between availability of social work supervision and an intention to remain in one's current employment ($\chi^2(2) = 1.31$, $p = .521$). A higher proportion of study participants reported availability of supervision remained the same and the majority indicated they do plan to remain in current position (41.3%). In contrast, a low proportion of study participants indicated availability of supervision increased however they do not plan to remain in the current position (5.3%). Of the 1,425 participants, 257 (18.0%) reported availability of social work supervision stayed the same; however, they do not plan to remain in their current position.

A chi-square test was calculated comparing the frequency of availability of social work supervision with a plan to leave social work but continue in the workforce. A significant association was found ($\chi^2(2) = 7.57$, $p = .023$), while a Cramer's *V* statistic suggested a weak relationship (0.073). Study participants who reported a decrease in availability of supervision (19.0%) planned to leave the profession at a higher rate than those who reported no change (2.5%) or increased availability of supervision (0.6%). Participants who reported availability of supervision stayed the same were significantly more likely not to plan to leave social work (56.8%). In contrast 218 (15.3%), study participants who reported an increase in availability of social work supervision do not plan to leave social work.

Reported support and guidance received from supervisor was also analyzed using a number of Chi-square tests using variables of years worked from primary employer, plan to remain in current position and plan to leave social work profession but remain in

the workforce. Based on a chi-square test, there was no significant association between satisfaction of support and guidance received from supervisor and years worked for primary employer category ($\chi^2(8) = 9.71$, $p = .286$). The majority of study participants (25.3%) who have worked for their primary employer between 1-5 years indicated receiving support and guidance from their supervisor. In contrast, study participants who neither agree or disagree that they receive support and guidance from their supervisor have worked for their primary employer for less than 1 year (1.75%). Of the 1,425 study participants, 191 (13.4%) reported receiving support and guidance from their supervisor and have worked for their primary employer between 6-10 years.

A chi-square test was calculated comparing the satisfaction of support and guidance received from supervisor and plan to remain in current position. A significant association was found ($\chi^2(2) = 37.19$, $p < 0.001$), while a Cramer's *V* statistic suggested a moderate relationship (0.16). Study participants who receive support and guidance from their supervisor plan to remain in their current position at a higher rate than expected (47.2%). In contrast, 247 (17.3%) study participants who also agree with receiving support or guidance from supervisor plan to leave their current position. Of the 1,425 of study participants, 125 (8.8%) indicated they do not receive support of guidance from their supervisor however they plan to remain in current position.

A chi-square test was calculated comparing the satisfaction of support and guidance received from supervisor and plan to leave social work but continue in the workforce. A significant association was found ($\chi^2(2) = 23.31$, $p < 0.001$), while a Cramer's *V* statistic suggested a moderate relationship (0.13). Study participants who

receive support and guidance from their supervisor do not plan to leave the profession when compared to study participants who report not receiving support and guidance from their supervisor. A majority of study participants, 889 (62.4%), indicated receiving support and guidance from their supervisor and do not plan to leave social work versus 31 (2.2%) study participants who agree they also receive support and guidance from their supervisor but do plan to leave social work but continue in the workforce. Study participants who indicated they do not receive support and guidance from their supervisor but do not plan to leave social work totaled 211 (14.8%) versus 26 (1.8%) of participants who indicated they do not receive support and guidance from their supervisor but do plan to leave social work and remain within the work force (see Table 8).

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and professional self-efficacy and retention among social workers?

Professional Social Worker as Supervisor and Retention

The relationship between having a professional social worker as a supervisor and retention was analyzed using a number of chi-square tests. Based on a chi-square test, there was no significant association between profession of supervisor and years worked for primary employer ($\chi^2(4) = 3.21$, $p = .524$). A higher proportion of study participants (19.4%) reported working between 1-5 years and stated their supervisor is not a social worker. Similarly, (19.3%) of study participants reported working 1-5 years also indicated their supervisor is a social worker. In contrast, (5.8%) of study participants who reported working less than 1 year and reported their supervisor is a social worker. Of the

Table 8

Chi-Square Results for Retention and Supervision

	Satisfied with support and guidance from supervisor			χ^2	*p*
Retention indicator	Disagree	Neither	Agree		
Plan to leave social work					
No	211	255	889	23.31	<.001
Yes	26	13	31		
Plan to remain in current position					
No	112	91	247	37.19	<.001
Yes	125	177	673		
Years of experience					
Less than 1 year	32	25	115	9.71	.286
1-5 years	94	98	360		
6-10 years	46	68	191		
11-15 years	25	35	133		
More than 15 years	40	42	121		

	Availability of supervision has changed			χ^2	*p*
Retention indicator	Decreased	Stayed the same	Increased		
Plan to leave social work					
No	327	810	218	7.57	.023
Yes	27	35	8		
Plan to remain in current position					
No	118	257	75	1.31	.521
Yes	236	588	151		
Years of experience					
Less than 1 year	40	98	34	10.33	.243
1-5 years	150	310	92		
6-10 years	71	185	49		
11-15 years	46	127	20		
More than 15 years	47	125	31		

1,425 study participants, 159 (11.2%) reported 6-10 years working for their primary employer and indicated their supervisor was not a social worker.

Based on a chi-square test, there was no significant association between profession of supervisor and plan to remain in current position ($\chi^2(1) = 1.41$, $p = .254$). A higher proportion of study participants (36.1%) reported not having a social worker as a supervisor indicated plans to remain in their current position. In contrast, 222 (15.6%) study participants reported their supervisor is not a social worker and indicated they do not plan to remain in their current position. Of the 1,425 of study participants, 461 (32.4%) reported having a social worker as a supervisor and reported plans to remain in current position.

Based on a chi-square test, there was no significant association between profession of supervisor and plan to leave social work but continue working in the workforce ($\chi^2(1) = .205$, $p = .713$. The highest proportion of study participants (49.0%, $n = 698$) reported their supervisor is not a social worker but have no plan to leave social work. In contrast, only 38 (2.7%) study participants reported their supervisor is not a social worker but do plan to leave social work. Of the 1,425 study participants, 657 (46.1%) reported having a supervisor that is a social worker and have no plan to leave social work.

Professional Social Worker as Supervisor and Self-Efficacy

Finally, an independent-samples *t* test was calculated comparing the mean self-efficacy scale of participants who were asked to identify if the supervisor in their primary position is a social worker. No significant relationship was found ($t(1423) = -.235$, $p =$

.815). The mean on the self-efficacy scale of study participants who indicated their supervisor is a social worker (M = 52.69, SD = 7.24) was not significantly different from the mean on the self-efficacy scale of study participants who reported their supervisor is not a social worker (M = 52.78, SD = 6.84).

Summary

The relationship among variables satisfaction of professional social work supervision, self-efficacy and retention among social workers was the focus of Research Question 1. Several of the inferential analyses yielded no significant association among these variables; however, other inferential analyses were able to provide positive associations. For the variables of retention and self-efficacy, inferential analyses determined study participants who plan to remain in the profession subsequently reported higher levels of self-efficacy. Regarding supervision and retention, study participants who report being satisfied with the support and guidance provided by their supervisor indicated higher retention rates. Finally, for variables of supervision and self-efficacy, study participants who indicated satisfaction with support and guidance received from their supervisor also indicated higher levels of self-efficacy, when compared to study participants who report not being satisfied with support and guidance receive from their supervisor.

From these inferential analyses results, it can be surmised that there are some relationships between the variables of worker self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision when it comes to ensuring social workers remain within their current positions as social workers and within the profession.

Within the inferential analyses completed for Research Question 2, no significant associations could be concluded. Therefore, it is surmised that supervisor characteristics do not differentially affect professional self-efficacy or retention. Study participants identified no relationship between desiring to remain in the field and the profession of their supervisor being characterized as a social worker or not a social worker. Study participants also identified no relationship between their level of professional self-efficacy and if their supervisor identified as a social worker or within a different profession.

In Chapter 5, a more in-depth interpretation of the inferential analysis and findings is reported including how the current findings are compared with those in previous research studies. Limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, and implications for positive social change are also reported within the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify relationships between retention, supervision, and self-efficacy and fill a gap in understanding of supervisor support and social worker retention and self-efficacy. Additional emphasis should be placed on understanding how supervision impacts worker self-efficacy (Beddoe & Wilkins, 2019; O'Neil & del Mar Fariña, 2018; Sweifach, 2019). Aside from themes of supervision and worker self-efficacy, retention rates among licensed social workers were also assessed within the study. As social work turnover continues to be a concern within the profession, understanding contributing factors of retention and decreasing turnover rates is increasingly important. While research in this area has grown, there continues to be inconsistencies among research studies, thereby creating a need for further research and understanding.

Through secondary data analyzed via multiple ANOVA and chi-square and independent t-tests, I found licensed social workers indicated an association between satisfaction with support and guidance received from their supervisors and planning to remain within the social work field. Results from inferential analyses also indicated licensed social workers who reported decreased availability of supervision planned to leave the profession at higher rates than their counterparts. In this chapter, findings are interpreted and explained, limitations of the research study are identified, and recommendations and implications for further research and practice are clarified.

Interpretation of Findings

This study was guided by two research questions involving relationships between satisfaction with supervisors, supervisor support, worker self-efficacy, and retention. I used secondary data from a sample of 1,425 licensed social workers originally collected by the NASW Center for Workforce Studies. I hypothesized that the study would yield positive relationships between satisfaction with supervisor support and retention or planning to remain within the profession as well as satisfaction with supervisor support and increased worker self-efficacy. I identified positive relationships between satisfaction with supervisor support and increased retention rates, as well as satisfaction with supervisor support and increased levels of self-efficacy. However, I was unable to highlight any statistically significant relationships between having professional social workers as supervisors and increased levels of retention and self-efficacy.

Findings from this quantitative study confirm and extend findings from previous research. Olson (2012) was able to utilize self-efficacy theory to identify correlations between effective supervision and social work retention, which mirrored findings observed in this research study. A study conducted by the Center for Rural Health in Alaska (2004) determined consistent supervision is also a strategy that creates positive retention rates; the current study supported these findings.

A quantitative study completed by Strand and Dore (2009) found correlations between retention rates and reported satisfaction with supervision, which also mirrored findings within the research study; however, it was limited to child welfare workers. Similarly, the National Child Welfare Workforce Institute also identified support from

supervisors as a factor for deterring burnout and subsequently retaining social workers, which is consistent with findings from this research study (He et al., 2018).

Although some similarities were found between this study and previous studies, there was also some inconsistencies. While Hair (2013) found that supervision from a cross-discipline of supervisors creates consequences, this study indicated no significant associations between supervisor discipline and reported worker retention or self-efficacy. There may be some reasons for this result. One reason for this unexpected result is that the study participants in this study were all licensed social workers, which may indicate they have received more intense training and continuing education, which may decrease their reliance on ongoing supervision from other social work professionals. Also, the majority of study participants identified as between ages 45-54 and reported years of experience as between 5-9 or 10-14, which may indicate these participants were more comfortable in their individual professional roles.

Another reason for these results may involve inclusiveness of multidisciplinary teams in social work practice. Social workers have worked in multi-disciplinary teams for many years and appear to understand their roles and responsibilities within those teams (Boland et al., 2021). It may be inferred that, Due to social workers' continued inclusion in multidisciplinary teams, they have become content with not only working alongside other professionals and disciplines but also being supervised by them in professional capacities.

Findings and Self-Efficacy Theory

Bandura's theory of self-efficacy was the theoretical framework that guided this study. Bandura's self-efficacy theory has been used as the foundation for assessing performance by understanding a person's confidence in their abilities (Bandura, 1982). Levels of self-efficacy can not only determine an individual's confidence in their ability to complete tasks, but also in their decision to remain in at their current position and in the workforce (Cashwell & Dooley, 2001). Findings from this study indicate participants who indicated higher levels of self-efficacy or confidence in their abilities as workers, also reported planning to remain in their current positions at higher rates compared to their counterparts. Findings from this study also suggest that participants who report an increase in availability of supervision also report higher levels of self-efficacy. Similarly, participants who report satisfaction with support and guidance received from their supervisor also reported significantly higher levels of self-efficacy. Based on these findings, it can be inferred that availability of supervision and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisors has a significant relationship with level of self-efficacy.

Based on these findings, along with results of Research Question 2, which indicated no association between supervisor discipline and self-efficacy, it can be assumed that licensed social worker self-efficacy is strongly related to availability of supervision and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisors, but not necessarily professions of supervisors. Bandura (1984) indicated self-efficacy involves employee observations and modeling of behaviors of supervisors, as well as feedback

received during the supervision process. Findings of this study have similar implications as they also indicate self-efficacy is guided by actions and support of supervisors.

Limitations

This study has some limitations. The study participants were limited to licensed clinical social workers. This may infer that the findings in this particular study will not apply to social workers who are not licensed. With further analysis, results could be applied to other social work practice areas and assessed for similar findings.

Another limitation involves use of self-reported data. Self-reported data is often looked at as a limitation due to human influence (Iparraguirre & Ma, 2015). Self-reported data is solely relied on the study participants' interpretation of the context. This can impact how participants answer questions and can at times result in underreporting or over reporting of personal experiences. It can also result in social desirability bias, in which study participants tend to provide answers that are socially desirable rather than reporting their true feelings, which can also skew study results (Larson, 2019).

Another limitation involves use of secondary data. Secondary data can have limits because it is not initially collected by the researcher and therefore cannot be controlled. In this context, this can alter the research questions in which the researcher intended to ask. Also, because data are not collected by the researcher, it cannot be stated with certainty how data were collected, although most times the collection process is provided (Richter et al., 2021).

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the analyses, there are several relationships and variables that could be recommended for future research studies. There were no significant relationships between the variables of years worked for primary employer and self-efficacy when assessing their relationship among licensed social workers. It would be beneficial for future research to understand in what capacities years worked for primary employer would be significant among social workers in regard to self-efficacy and confidence in their abilities to complete work-related tasks. Additional research could be recommended to clarify any potential relationships between years worked for primary employer and self-efficacy.

There was also no relationship indicated between years worked for primary employer and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor among study participants. There was, however, significant relationships between satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor and worker self-efficacy as well as satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor and plan to remain in current position indicating it is a variable that has some impact on licensed social workers. Recommendations for future research may focus on the variable of satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor in other contexts such as specific qualities that characterize “satisfaction” or “dissatisfaction.” More descriptive information could be helpful in understanding factors that influence a social worker’s decision to identify supervision received as satisfactory of unsatisfactory.

There were several analyses conducted using the variable of having a professional social worker as a supervisor; however, it concluded no significant relationships with variables years worked for primary employer, plan to remain in current position, plan to leave social work but remain in the workforce or worker self-efficacy. Recommendations for future research may focus on the relationship of the variable, having a professional social worker as a supervisor with other variables such as field of practice, desire to complete higher education or career path.

Following the completion of inferential analyses and results, literature from Chapter 2 has not been clarified and there remains conflicting ideas regarding supervision within the social work field. Results from the inferential analyses suggest no indications that having a professional social worker as a supervisor has no significant relationship with tested variables, however Sweifach (2019) indicated concerns regarding the professional development of social workers while being supervised by interdisciplinary organizations. Hair (2013) also came to a similar conclusion suggesting discipline of supervisor jeopardizes the importance of supervision among social workers.

Implications for Positive Social Change

This research study has several implications for positive social change. First, the research study highlights the importance of recognizing factors that could potentially lead to the professional success of licensed social workers such as availability of social work supervision, satisfaction with support, and worker self-efficacy. These factors are important to understand as social workers are able to continue with the mission of serving underserved and underprivileged populations when they receive adequate support,

guidance, and supervision. As self-efficacy or confidence in abilities to complete tasks is improved, it can be assumed professional success will grow as well prompting social workers to remain in current positions and remain within the profession longer. This leads to increased service to populations served, increased advocacy, and increased social change at micro and macro levels.

At the micro level, it will hopefully seek to increase the knowledge base of the importance of licensed social workers receiving access to reliable and appropriate supervision in terms of remaining within the profession. Although retention is important, it is also pertinent that the use of supervision as an overall support for licensed social workers is addressed and understood. As licensed social workers continue to confront and address issues related to mental health, medical healthcare, child welfare, and aging, it is important that social workers are aware of supports and these supports are accessible and are providing the guidance needed. As licensed social workers practice self-care techniques, it is equally important that they are provided with appropriate supports as well.

At an organizational level, retention and support of licensed social workers is key to the longevity of social support agencies and to the populations that rely on the social workers for assistance. As agencies are able to retain social workers, clients can continue to receive services consistently without concerns such as a possible gap in needed service provision or dissolution of services. It is important that agencies are aware and knowledgeable of the contributing factors that can be put into place to not only retain

social workers but provide them with the support and guidance needed to remain in their current positions.

These implications also continue at larger, societal levels. As social workers provide services to the most underserved populations, it is important that topics of self-care, employee support, retention, and self-efficacy need to continue to be addressed. Social workers not only provide individual services for underserved populations, but they also work on state and national levels to advocate for legal and social changes that have the potential to affect many. Understanding factors that contribute to the healthy and enduring professional careers of social workers having several implications in a multitude of areas.

Further implications and recommendations for practice suggest a continued effort to provide licensed social workers with professional supervision that is available and accessible. Implications also indicate a need to focus on the satisfaction of the supervision received rather than the discipline or profession of the supervisor. It may imply that agencies should examine the satisfaction of supervision received on a consistent basis, perhaps through surveys or “check-ins” with social workers. Examining satisfaction of supervision being received will ensure licensed social workers are receiving the support and guidance they need, therefore improving desire to remain within the profession and remain within their current position. Examining satisfaction with supervision will also increase overall self-efficacy, allowing social workers to become more confident in their ability to complete tasks of providing services to assigned populations.

Based on results from Research Question 2, it can be implied that professional supervision is not contingent on the discipline of the supervisor, however, is more geared towards the availability, and support and guidance received from the supervisor. This may also imply that agencies should put more effort into ensuring social workers are satisfied with the supervision received and ensure supervisors contain a strong clinical background and professional expertise as opposed to focusing on the professional discipline of the supervisor.

Conclusion

This quantitative research study set out to examine the relationship between several variables including worker self-efficacy, retention, and supervision. This study's results indicated several significant relationships between self-efficacy and a licensed social worker's plan to remain in their current position, availability of supervision, and satisfaction with support and guidance received from supervisor. The recognition and implementation of these results at both micro and macro levels can assist in retaining licensed social workers and improving the overall longevity of the profession.

The need for ongoing research and increased knowledge of retention, self-efficacy, and supervision is evident as factors such as burnout, compassion fatigue and low job satisfaction continue to threaten the longevity of social workers. Ongoing research can strengthen the results and implications of this research study in an effort to continue to highlight the need for increased attention to the professional needs of licensed social workers.

References

Agbényiga, D. L. (2009). Child welfare employee recruitment and retention: An organizational cultural perspective. *Child Welfare, 88*(6), 81-104. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20695293/

Abu-Bader, S. H. (2021). *Using statistical methods in social science research: With a complete SPSS guide* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Agllias, K., Howard, A., Cliff, K., Dodds, J., & Fields, A. (2016). Students' experiences of university and an Australian social work program: Coming, going, staying. *Australian Social Work, 69*(4), 468-480. https://doi.org/10.1080/0312407X.2015.1090464

Antonopoulou, P., Killian, M., & Forrester, D. (2017). Levels of stress and anxiety in child and family social work: Workers' perceptions of organizational structure, professional support and workplace opportunities in children's services in the UK. *Children and Youth Services Review, 76,* 42-50. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2017.02.028

Arrington, P., & Whitaker, T. (2008). *Overview of survey participants.* NASW Membership Workforce Study. National Association of Social Workers.

Bandura, A., & Adams, N. E. (1977). Analysis of self-efficacy theory of behavioral change. *Cognitive Therapy & Research, 1*(4), 287-310. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01663995

Bandura. A. (1982). The assessment and predictive generality of self-percepts of efficacy. *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry*, *13*(3), 195–199.

https://doi.org/10.1016/0005-7916(82)90004-0

Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V.S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behaviors* (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). Academic Press.

Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T. C. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 307–337). Information Age.

Barbee, A. P., Antle, B., Sullivan, D. J., Huebner, R., Fox, S., & Hall, J. C. (2009). Recruiting and retaining child welfare workers: Is preparing social work students enough for sustained commitment to the field? *Child Welfare, 88*(5), 69-86. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20187563/

Barbee, A., Rice, C., Antle, B. F., Henry, K., & Cunningham, M. R. (2018). Factors affecting turnover rates of public child welfare front line workers: Comparing cohorts of title IV-E program graduates with regularly hired and trained staff. *Journal of Public Child Welfare*, *12*(3), 354-379. https://doi.org/10.1080/15548732.2018.1457589

Barsky, A. (2013). Ethics alive! Ethical concerns in social work field supervision. *New Social Worker*, *20*(4), 4–5. https://www.socialworker.com/feature-articles/ethics-articles/ethics- alive-ethics-in-social-work-field-supervision/

Basereh, N., & Pishkar, K. (2016). The relationship among self-efficacy beliefs, self-directed learning, and critical thinking: A case of advanced EFL learners. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research, 3(2*), 19–27. http://www.jallr.com/index.php/JALLR/article/view/267/pdf267

Beauchamp, M.R. (2016). Disentangling motivation from self-efficacy: Implications for measurement, theory-development, and intervention. *Health Psychology Review*, 10*(*2), 129–132. https://doi.org/10.1080/17437199.2016.1162666

Beddoe, L. (2017). Harmful supervision: A commentary. *Clinical Supervisor, 36*(1), 88–101. https://doi.org10.1080/07325223.2017.1295894

Beddoe, L., Ackroyd, J., Chinnery, S.A., & Appleton, C. (2011). Live supervision of students in field placement: More than just watching. *Social Work Education, 30*(5), 512-528. https://doi.org/10.1080/02615479.2010.516358

Beddoe, L. & Wilkins, D. (2019). Does the consensus about the value of supervision in social work stifle research and innovation? *Aotearoa New Zealand Social Work Review, 31*(3), 1-6. https://doi.org/10.11157/anzswj-vol31iss3id643

Benton, A. (2016). Understanding the diverging paths of stayers and leavers: An examination of factors predicting worker retention. *Children and Youth Services Review, 65*(1), 70–77. https://doi.org10.1016/j.childyouth.2016.04.006

Berlanda, S., Pedrazza, M., Trifiletti, E., Fraizzoli, M. (2017). Dissatisfaction in child welfare and its role in predicting self-efficacy and satisfaction at work: A mixed-method research. *BioMed Research International*, 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/5249619

Bingle, L., & Middleton, A. (2019). From doing to being: The tensions of systemic practice in social work – group reflective supervision in child protection. *Journal of Family Therapy, 41*(3), 384–406. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6427.12256

Bird, B. M., & Jonnson, M. R. (2020). Have a seat: Supervisee perspectives on using

chair-based role plays in clinical supervision. *Journal of Psychotherapy Integration, 30*(1), 25–35. https://doi.org/10.1037/int0000178

Blosser, J., Cadet, D., & Downs, L. (2010). Factors that influence retention and professional development of social workers. *Administration in Social Work, 34*(2), 168-177. https://doi.org/10.1080/03643101003609396

Boath, E., Simcock, P., Watts, R., Thomas, N., Evans, J., Taylor, L., & O'Connell, P. (2018). Stay with the 'FLO': Evaluating a mobile texting service to enhance social work student retention while on placement. *Social Work Education, 37*(7), 909–923. https://doi.org /10.1080/02615479.2018.1459537

Bogo, M., & Sewell, K. M. (2019). Introduction to the special issue on field education of students. *Clinical Social Work Journal, 47*(1), 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10615-018-0696-z

Boland, J., Abendstern, M., Wilberforce, M., Pitts, R., Hughes, J., & Challis, D. (2021). Mental health social work in multidisciplinary community teams: An analysis of a national service user survey. *Journal of Social Work, 21*(1), 3–25. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468017319860663

Bonifas, R., Gammonley, D., & Simons, K. (2012). Gerontological social workers' Perceived efficacy for influencing client outcomes. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work, 55*(6), 519–536. https://doi.org/10.1080/01634372.2012.690837

Bostock, L., Patrizo, L., Godfrey, T., & Forrester, D. (2019). What is the impact of supervision on direct practice with families? *Children and Youth Services Review, 105*(10), 1-7. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2019.104428

Bowman, M. E. (2019). Attachment theory, supervision, and turnover in child welfare. *Child Welfare, 97*(1), 1–19. Available at https://www.cwla.org/child-welfare-journal/

Boyas, J. & Wind, L.H. (2010). Employment-based social capital, job stress, and employee burnout: A public child welfare employee structural model. *Children and Youth Services Review, 32*(3), 380–388. https://doi.org./10.1016/j.childyouth.2009.10.009

Brunetto, Y., Shriberg, A., Farr-Wharton, R., Shacklock, K., Newman, S., & Dienger, J. (2013). The importance of supervisor-nurse relationships, teamwork, well-being, affective commitment and retention of North American nurses. *Journal of Nursing Management, 21*(6), 827-837. https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.12111

Burns, K., & Christie, A. (2013). Employment mobility or turnover? An analysis of child welfare and protection employee retention. *Children & Youth Services Review, 35*(2), 340-346. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2012.11.014

Caillier, J. G. (2016). Do transformational leaders affect turnover intentions and extra-role behaviors through mission valence? *The American Review of Public Administration, 46*(2), 226-242. https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074014551751

Calitz, T., Roux, A., & Strydom, H. (2014). Factors that affect social workers' job satisfaction, stress and burnout. *Social Work, 50*(2), 153-169. https://doi.org/10.15270/50-2-393

Center for Health Workforce Studies. (2004). *A study of the roles and use of licensed*

social workers in the United States. https://aspe.hhs.gov/system/files/pdf/125736/rulsw_0.pdf

Caras, A., & Sandu, A. (2014). The role of supervision in professional development of social work specialists. *Journal of Social Work Practice, 28*(1), 75-94. https://doi.org/10.1080/02650533.2012.763024

Carney, J. & Jefferson, J. (2014). Consultation for mental health counselors: Opportunities and guidelines for private practice. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling*, *36*(4), 302-314. https://doi.org/10.17744/mehc.36.4.821133r0414u37v7

Carpenter, J., Webb, C. M., & Bostock, L. (2013). The surprisingly weak evidence-base for supervision: Findings from a systematic review of research in child welfare practice (2000–2012). *Children & Youth Services Review, 35*(11), 1843-1853. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2013.08.014

Carter, K., Swanke, J., & Stonich, J. (2018). Student assessment of self-efficacy and practice readiness following simulated instruction in an undergraduate social work program. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 38*(1), 28-42. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841233.2018.1430095

Cashwell, T., & Dooley, K. (2001). The impact of supervision on counselor self-efficacy. *The Clinical Supervisor*, *20*(1), 39–47. https://doi.org/10.1300/J001v20n01_03

Chenot, D., Benton, A. D., & Kim, H. (2009). The influence of supervisor support, peer support, and organizational culture among early career social workers in child

welfare services. *Child Welfare, 88*(5), 129-147. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20187566/

Chiller, P., & Crisp, B. R. (2012). Professional supervision: A workforce retention strategy for social work? *Australian Social Work, 65*(2), 232-242. https://doi.org/10.1080/0312407X.2011.625036

Church, R. M. (2001). The effective use of secondary data. *Learning and Motivation, 33*(1), 32–45. https://doi.org/10.1006/lmot.2001.1098

Cleak, H., & Smith, D. (2012). Student satisfaction with models of field placement supervision. *Australian Social Work, 65*(2), 243-258. https://doi.org/10.1080/0312407X.2011.572981

Cleak, H., Roulston, A., & Vreugdenhil, A. (2016). The inside story: A survey of social work students' supervision and learning opportunities on placement. *British Journal of Social Work, 46*(7), 2033-2050. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bcv117

Cleak, H., & Zuchowski, I. (2019). Empirical support and considerations for social work supervision of students in alternative placement models. *Clinical Social Work Journal, 47*(1), 32–42. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10615-018-0692-3

Cole, M. (2019). Social work supervision in Malta: A specialism in the making. *Clinical Supervisor, 38*(2), 326–344. https://doi.org/10.1080/07325223.2019.1582393

Collins-Camargo, C., & Millar, K. (2010). The potential for a more clinical approach to child welfare supervision to promote practice and case outcomes: A qualitative study in four states. *The Clinical Supervisor, 29*(2), 164-187. https://doi.org/10.1080/07325223.2010.517491

Collins-Camargo, C., & Royse, D. (2010). A study of the relationships among effective supervision, organizational culture promoting evidence-based practice, and worker self-efficacy in public child welfare. *Journal of Public Child Welfare, 4*(1), 1-24https://doi.org/10.1080/15548730903563053

Collins-Camargo, C., Sullivan, D. J., Washeck, B., Adams, J., & Sundet, P. (2009). One state's efforts to improve recruitment, retention and practice through multifaceted clinical supervision interventions. *Journal of Child Welfare, 88*(5), 87-107. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20187564/

Cook, R. M., Welfare, L. E., & Jones, C. T. (2020). Incidence of intentional nondisclosure in clinical supervision by pre-licensed counselors. *Professional Counselor, 10*(1), 25–38. https://doi.org/10.15241/rmc.10.1.25

Cooksey-Campbell, K., Folaron, G., & Sullenberger, S. W. (2013). Supervision during child welfare system reform: Qualitative study of factors influencing case manager implementation of a new practice model. *Journal of Public Child Welfare, 7*(2), 123–141. https://doi.org/10.1080/15548732.2012.740441

Cortis, N., Seymour, K., Natalier, K., & Wendt, S. (2021). Which models of supervision help retain staff? Findings from Australia's domestic and family violence and sexual assault workforces. *Australian Social Work, 74*(1), 68-82. https://doi.org/10.1080/0312407X.2020.1798480

Curtis, D. F., Elkins, S. R., Duran, P., & Venta, A. C. (2016). Promoting a climate of reflective practice and clinician self-efficacy in vertical supervision. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 10*(3), 133-140.

https://doi.org/10.1037/tep0000121

Dalphon, H. (2019). Self-care techniques for social workers: Achieving an ethical harmony between work and well-being. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 29*(1), 85–95. https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2018.1481802

Dan, V. (2017). An exhaustive view on supervision in social work: History, evolution, current trends. *Social Work Review, 2*(1), 147-159. Available at www.swreview.ro

Deck, S. M., Platt, P. A., & McCord, L. (2016). Engaged teaching-learning: outcome evaluation for social work students in a graduate-level service-learning research course. *Advances in Social Work, 16*(2), 233-248. https://doi.org/10.18060/18302.

De Sousa, A., & De Sousa, A. (2015). Setting up private practice in psychiatry. *Mens Sana Monographs, 13*(1), 3-15. https://doi.org/10.4103/0973-1229.153289

Doherty, A. S., Mallett, J., Leiter, M. P., & McFadden, P. (2020). Measuring burnout in social work: Factorial validity of the Maslach Burnout Inventory—Human Services Survey. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 37*(1), 6-14. https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759/a000568

Doolan, D. M., & Froelicher, E. S. (2009). Using an existing data set to answer new research questions: A methodological review. *Research and Theory for Nursing Practice: An International Journal, 23*(3), 203–215. https://doi.org/10.1891/1541-6577.23.3.203

Edgren, S. K. (2013). Bandura's self-efficacy theory . . . something is missing. *Clinical Simulation in Nursing, 9*(9), 327-328. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecns.2013.07.001

Egan, R., Maidment, J., & Connolly, M. (2016). Supporting quality supervision: Insights for organizational practice. *British Journal of Social Work, 46*(6), 1617-1635. https://doi.org/10.1177/0020872816637661

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 565-573. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.873.3.565

Ellett, A. J., Ellett, C. D., Ellis, J., & Lerner, B. (2009). A research-based child welfare employee selection protocol: strengthening retention of the workforce. *Child Welfare, 88*(5), 49-68. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20187562/

Evans, S., & Huxley, P. (2009). Factors associated with the recruitment and retention of social workers in Wales: employer and employee perspectives. *Health & Social Care in the Community, 17*(3), 254-266. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2524.2008.00818.

Everett, J.E., Miehls, D., DuBois, C., & Garran, A.M. (2011). The developmental model of supervision as reflected in the experiences of field supervisors and graduate students. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 31(*3), 250–264. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841233.2011.580245

Farchi, M., Cohen, A., & Mosek, A. (2014). Developing specific self-efficacy and resilience as first responders among students of social work and stress and trauma studies. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 34*(2), 129-146. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841233.2014.894602

Fareez, M. (2019). Narrative tools in social work supervision: The supervisor life certificate and supervisee's journey tools. *International Journal of Narrative Therapy & Community Work, 4*, 64–73. https://dulwichcentre.com.au/product/narrative-tools-in-social-work-supervision-the-supervisor-life-certificate-and-supervisees-journey-tools-mohamed-fareez/

Freund, A., & Guez, G. (2018). Intentions to leave supervision among social work supervisors: Contributing factors. *Social Work Education, 37*(4), 458–471. https://doi.org/10.1080/02615479.2017.1422487

Gibson, J. A., Grey, I. M., & Hastings, R. P. (2009). Supervisor support as a predictor of burnout and therapeutic self-efficacy in therapists working in ABA schools. *Journal of Autism & Developmental Disorders, 39*(7), 1024-1030. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10803-009-0709-4

Gifford, W.A., Squires, J.E., Angus, D.E., Ashley, L.A., Brosseau, L., Craik, J.M., Domecq, C.M., Egan, M., Holyoke, P., Juergensen, L., Wallin, L., Wazni, L., & Graham, I.D. (2018). Managerial leadership for research use in nursing and allied health care professions: a systematic review. *Implementation Science, 13*(127), 1-8. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13012-018-0817-7

Gockel, A., & Burton, D. L. (2014). An evaluation of prepracticum helping skills training for graduate social work students. *Journal of Social Work Education, 50*(1), 101-119. https://doi.org/10.1080/10437797.2014.856234

Gopalan, G., Fuss, A., & Wisdom, J. P. (2015). Multiple family groups for child behavior

difficulties: Retention among child welfare-involved caregivers. *Research on Social Work Practice, 25*(5), 564-577. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731514543526

Griffiths, A., Desrosiers, P., Gabbard, J., Royse, D., & Piescher, K. (2019). Retention of child welfare caseworkers: The wisdom of supervisors. *Child Welfare, 97*(3), 61–83. Available at https://www.cwla.org/child-welfare-journal/

Griffiths, A., & Royse, D. (2017). Unheard voices: Why former child welfare workers left their positions. *Journal of Public Child Welfare, 11*(1), 73-90. https://doi.org/10.1080/15548732.2016.1232210

Gupta, N., & Sharma, V. (2016). Exploring employee engagement—A way to better business performance. *Global Business Review, 17*(3 suppl), 45S-63S. https://doi.org/10.1177/0972150916631082

Hair, H. J. (2013). The purpose and duration of supervision, and the training and discipline of supervisors: What social workers say they need to provide effective services. *British Journal of Social Work, 43*(8), 1562-1588. https://.doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bcs071

Harlow, E. (2013). Coaching, supervision, and the social work zeitgeist. *Social Work in Action, 25*(1), 61-70. https://doi.org/10.1080/09503153.2013.775237

Harvey, V. S., Amador, A., Finer, D., Gotthelf, D., Hintze, J., Kruger, L., Li, C., Lichtenstein, B., Rogers, L., Struzziero, J., & Wandle, C. (2010). Improving field supervision through collaborative supervision institutes. Communique, 38(7), 22–24.

He, A. S., Phillips, J. A., Lizano, E. L., Rienks, S. & Leake, R. (2018). Examining

internal and external job resources in child welfare: Protecting against caseworker burnout. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 81,* 48-59. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2018.04.013

Hermon, S. R., Biehl, M., & Chahla, R. (2018). Views on workplace culture and climate: Through the lens of retention and Title IV-E participation. *Journal of Public Child Welfare, 12*(3), 380-397. https://doi.org/10.1080/15548732.2018.1431172.

Hirst, V. (2019). Burnout in social work: The supervisor's role. *Aotearoa New Zealand Social Work Review*, *31*(3), 122–126. https://doi.org/10.11157/anzswj-vol31iss3id653

Holden, G., Barker, K., & Kuppens, S. (2017). Self-efficacy regarding social work competencies. *Research on Social Work Practice, 27*(5), 594-606. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731515586466

Holsey-Hyman, M. E. (2015). *Perceptions of retention among bachelor of social work graduates at a historically Black college and university*. ScholarWorks. Available at https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations

Iparraguirre, J. L., & Ma, R. (2015). Efficiency in the provision of social care for older people. A three-stage data envelopment analysis using self-reported quality of life. *Socio-Economic Planning Sciences*, *49*(1), 33–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seps.2014.10.001

Iroegbu, M. (2015). Self-efficacy and work performance: A theoretical framework of Albert Bandura's model, review of findings, implications and directions for future

research. *Psychology and Behavioral Sciences, 4(*4), 170-173. https://doi.org/10.11648/j.pbs.20150404.1

Jacquet, S. E., Clark, S., Morazes, J., & Withers, R. (2008). The role of supervision in the retention of public child welfare workers. *Journal of Public Child Welfare, 1*(3), 27-54. https://doi.org/10.1300/J479v01n03_03

Jasper, C., & Field, P. (2016). An active conversation each week in supervision': Practice educator experiences of the professional capabilities framework and holistic assessment. *British Journal of Social Work, 46*(6), 1636-1653. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bcv113

Julien-Chinn, F. J., & Lietz, C. A. (2016). Permanency-focused supervision and workers' self-efficacy: Exploring the link. *Social Work, 61*(1), 37-44. https://doi.org/10.1093/sw/swv043

Kadushin, A., & Harkness, D. (2014). *Supervision in social work* (5th ed.). University Press.

Kanno, H., & Koeske, G. F. (2010). MSW students' satisfaction with their field placements: The role of preparedness and supervision quality. *Journal of Social Work Education, 46*(1), 23-38. https://doi.org/10.5175/JSWE.2010.200800066

Ketner, M., VanCleave, D., & Cooper-Bolinskey, D. (2017). The meaning and value of supervision in social work field education. *Field Educator, 7*(2), 1–18. https://fieldeducator.simmons.edu/article/the-meaning-and-value-of-supervision-in-social-work-field-education/

Kim, J., Park, T., Pierce, B., & Hall, J. A. (2018). Child welfare workers' perceptions of

supervisory support: A curvilinear interaction of work experience and educational background. *Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance, 42*(3), 285-299. https://doi.org/10.1080/23303131.2017.1395775

LaPorte, H.H., & Sweifach, J. (2011) MSW foundation students in the field: reflections on the nature and quality of group work assignments and supervision. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 31*(3), 239-249. https://doi.org/ 10.1080/08841233.2011.580240

Larson, R. (2019). Controlling social desirability bias. *International Journal of Market Research, 61*(5), 534-547. https://doi.org/10.1177/1470785318805305

Leach, J., & Paterson, M. (2010). *Pastoral supervision: A handbook.* SCM Press.

Leake, R., de Guzman, A., Golieb, K., & Rienks, S. (2020). Workforce development strategies: A model for preparing the workforce to support transformational systems in child welfare. *Journal of Public Child Welfare, 14*(1), 19–37. https://doi.org/10.1080/15548732.2019.1674233

Lechner, C. M., Obschonka, M., & Silbereisen, R. K. (2017). Who reaps the benefits of social change? Exploration and its socioecological boundaries. *Journal of Personality, 85*(2), 257-269. https://doi.org/10.1111/jopy.12238

Lietz, C. A. (2018). Infusing clinical supervision throughout child welfare practice: Advancing effective implementation of family-centered practice through supervisory processes. *Clinical Social Work Journal, 46*(4), 331–340. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10615-018-0672-7

Lietz, C. A., & Rounds, T. (2009). Strengths-based supervision: A child welfare

supervision training project. *Clinical Supervisor, 28*(2), 124-140. https://doi.org/10.1080/07325220903334065

Lietz, C. A., Hayes, M. J., Cronin, T. W., & Julien-Chinn, F. (2014). Supporting family-centered practice through supervision: An evaluation of strengths-based supervision. *Families in Society, 95(*4), 227-235. https://doi.org/10.1606/1044-3894.2014.95.29

Lizano, E.L., & Mor Barak, M. E. (2012). Workplace demands and resources as antecedents of job burnout among child welfare workers: A longitudinal study. *Children and Youth Services Review, 34*(9), 1769-1776. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2012.02.006

Loewenberg, F. M. (1979). The causes of turnover among social workers. *The Journal of Sociology & Social Welfare, 6*(5), 622-642. https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/jssw/vol6/iss5/5

Macgowan, M. (2010). Finding and integrating the best available evidence into the group work field practicum: Examples and experiences from MSW students. *Social Work with Groups, 33*(2-3), 210-228. https://doi.org/10.1080/01609510903366178

Maidment, J., & Beddoe, L. (2012). Is social work supervision in 'Good Heart'? A critical commentary. *Australian Social Work, 65*(2), 163–170. https://doi.org/10.1080/0312407X.2012.680426

Manthorpe, J., Moriarty, J., Hussein, S., Stevens, M., & Sharpe, E. (2015). Content and purpose of supervision in social work practice in England: Views of newly

qualified social workers, managers and directors. *British Journal of Social Work, 45(*1), 52–68. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bct102

Marmo, S., & Berkman, C. (2018). Social worker's perceptions of job satisfaction, interdisciplinary collaboration, and organizational leadership. *Journal of Social Work in End-of-Life & Palliative Care, 14*(1), 8-27. https://doi.org/10.1080/15524256.2018.1437590

McCarthy, L. P., Imboden, R., Shdaimah, C. S., & Forrester, P. (2020). "Ethics are messy": Supervision as a tool to help social workers manage ethical challenges. *Ethics & Social Welfare, 14*(1), 118–134. https://doi.org/10.1080/17496535.2020.1720265

McCorkle, L. S., & Coogle, C. G. (2020). Technology-enhanced performance-based feedback in teacher preparation. *Teacher Educators' Journal, 13*, 105–123. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1247287

McCrae, J. S., Scannapieco, M., & Obermann, A. (2015). Retention and job satisfaction of child welfare supervisors. *Children & Youth Services Review, 59*(11), 171-176. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2015.11.011

McFadden, P., Campbell, A., & Taylor, B. (2015). Resilience and burnout in child protection social work: Individual and organizational themes from a systematic literature review. *British Journal of Social Work, 45*(5), 1546-1563. https://doi.org/bjsw/bct210

McGowan, B. G., Auerback, C., Conroy, K., Augsberger, A., & Schudrich, W. (2010). Workforce retention issues in voluntary child welfare. *Child Welfare, 89*(6), 83-

103. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21877565/

McKitterick, B. (2012). Recruiting, retaining and making the best use of social workers in adult social care. *Social Care & Neurodisability, 3*(3), 116-121. https://doi.org/10.1108/20420911211268731

McMeel, L. S., Leathers, S. J., & Strand. T. C. (2017). Evidence-based mental health practices with children self-efficacy scale: Development and preliminary findings. *Journal of Social Work Education, 53*(1), 3-17. https://doi.org/10.1080/10437797.2016.1237914

McPherson, L., Frederico, M., & McNamara, P. (2016). Safety as a fifth dimension in supervision: Stories from the frontline. *Australian Social Work, 69*(1), 67-79. https://doi.org/10.1080/0312407X.2015.1024265

Middleton, J. S. & Potter, C. C. (2015). Relationship between vicarious traumatization and turnover among child welfare professionals. *Journal of Public Child Welfare, 9*(2), 195-216. https://doi.org/10.1080/15548732.2015.1021987

Mishra, P., Pandey, C. M., Singh, U., Gupta, A., Sahu, C., & Keshri, A. (2019). Descriptive statistics and normality tests for statistical data. *Annals of Cardiac Anaesthesia, 22*, 67-72. https://doi.org/10.4103/aca.ACA_157_18

Moeller, S. B., Rosenberg, N. K., Hvenegaard, M., Straarup, K., & Austin, S. F. (2020). A new tool for rating cognitive behavioural supervision—Preliminary findings in a clinical setting. *The Cognitive Behaviour Therapist, 13,* E2. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1754470X2000001X

Mor Barak, M. E., Travis, D. A., Pyun, H., & Xie, B. (2009). The impact of supervision

On worker outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Social Service Review, 83*(1), 3–32. https://doi.org/10.1086/599028

Morley, C. & Ablett, P. (2017). Designing assessment to promote engagement among first year social work students. *E-Journal of Business Education & Scholarship of Teaching, 11*(2), 1-14. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1167329

Munson, C. E. (2002). *Handbook of clinical social work supervision* (3rd ed.). Hawthorne Press.

Nečasová, M. (2018). Teaching social work supervision to part-time students of distance studies: Challenges and opportunities. *Social Work Education, 37*(6), 731–745. https://doi.org/10.1080/02615479.2018.1487549

Noble, C. (2013). Mastering social work supervision. *Child & Family Social Work, 18*(4), 507–508. https://doi.org/10.1111/cfs.12017

O'Donoghue, K. (2015). Issues and challenges facing social work supervision in the twenty-first century. *China Journal of Social Work, 8*(2), 136-149. https://doi.org/10.1080/17525098.2015.1039172

O'Donoghue, K., & Tsui, M. (2015). Social work supervision research (1970-2010): The way we were and the way ahead. *British Journal of Social Work, 45*(2), 616-633. https://doi.org/bjsw/bct115

O'Donoghue, K., Ju, P. W. Y., & Tsui, M. (2018). Constructing an evidence-informed Social work supervision model. *European Journal of Social Work, 21*(3), 348–358. https://doi.org/10.1080/13691457.2017.1341387

Ogden, L. (2016). Fostering practice self- efficacy: An exercise to promote student self-

efficacy and evidence- based practice. *The Journal of Baccalaureate Social Work,* 21(*1*), 23-31. https://doi.org/10.18084/1084-7219.21.1.23

Olcoń, K., Pantell, M., & Sund, A.C. (2018). Recruitment and retention of Latinos in social work education: Building on students' community cultural wealth. *Journal of Social Work Education, 54*(2), 349-363. https://doi.org/10.1080/10437797.2017.1404530

Olson, M. D. (2011). Self-efficacy, curriculum content, practicum experience, and the interest of social work students in gerontology. *Educational Gerontology, 37*(7), 593-605. https://doi.org/ 10.1080/03601271003716051

O'Neil, P., & del Mar Fariña, M. (2018). Constructing critical conversations in social Work supervision: Creating change. *Clinical Social Work Journal*, *46(*4), 298–309. https://doi.org /10.1007/s10615-018-0681-6

Oxhandler, H., Parrish, D., Torres, L., & Achenbaum, W. A. (2015). The integration of clients' religion and spirituality in social work practice: A national survey. *Social Work, 60*(3), 228-237. https://doi.org/10.1093/sw/swv018

Paske, M. H., Filip-Crawford, G., & Cook, J. E. (2017). Identity concealment and social change: Balancing advocacy goals against individual needs. *Journal of Social Issues, 73*(2), 397-412. https://doi.org/10.1111/josi.12223

Pecukonis, E., Greeno, E., Hodorowicz, M., Park, H., Ting, L., Moyers, T., Burry, C., Linsenmeyer, D., Strieder, F., Wade, K., &. Wirt, C. (2016). Teaching motivational interviewing to child welfare social work students using live

supervision and standardized clients: A randomized controlled trial. *Journal of the Society for Social Work & Research, 7(*3), 479-505 https://doi.org/10.1086/688064

Pugh, G. L. (2016). Job satisfaction and turnover intent among hospital social workers in the United States. *Social Work in Health Care, 55*(7), 485-502. https://doi.org/10.1080/00981389.2016.1186133

Qiang, R., Han, Q., Guo, Y., Bai, J., & Karwowski, M. (2018). Critical thinking disposition and scientific creativity: The mediating role of creative self-efficacy. *Journal of Creative Behavior, 54(1),* 90-99. https://doi.org/10.1002/jocb.347

Quinn, F. (2017). Factors affecting perceptions of self-value among employees of child welfare agencies. *Child Welfare, 95*(5), 39–58. Available at https://www.cwla.org/child-welfare-journal/

Radey, M., Schelbe, L., & King, E. A. (2019). Field training experiences of child welfare workers: Implications for supervision and field education. *Clinical Social Work Journal, 47*, 134-145. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10615-018-0669-2

Radey, M., & Stanley, L. (2018). "Hands on" versus "empty": Supervision experiences of frontline child welfare workers. *Children and Youth Services Review, 91*, 128–136. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2018.05.037

Rankine, M. (2019). The internal/external debate: The tensions within social work supervision. *Aotearoa New Zealand Social Work Review, 31*(3), 32–45. https://doi.org/10.11157/anzswj-vol31iss3id646

Rawlings, M. A. (2012). Assessing BSW student direct practice skills using standardized clients and self-efficacy theory. *Journal of Social Work Education, 48*(1), 553–576. https://doi.org/10.5175/JSWE.2012.201000070

Renner, L. M., Porter, R. L., & Preister, S. (2009). Improving the retention of child welfare workers by strengthening skills and increasing support for supervisors. *Child Welfare, 88(*5), 109-127. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20187565/

Richter, G., Borzikowsky, C., Hoyer, B. F., Laudes, M., & Krawczak. M. (2021). Secondary research use of personal medical data: patient attitudes towards data donation. *BMC Medical Ethics*, *22*(1), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12910-021-00728-x

Robins, T. G., Roberts, R. M., & Sarris, A. (2018). The role of student burnout in predicting future burnout: Exploring the transition from university to the workplace. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *37*(1), 115-130. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2017.1344827

Roman, C. G., Knight, C. R., Chalfin, A., & Popkin, S. J. (2009). The relation of the perceived environment to fear, physical activity, and health in public housing developments: Evidence from Chicago. *Journal of Public Health Policy, 30*(1) 286-308. https://doi.org/ 10.1057/jphp.2008.62

Roulston, A., Cleak, H., & Vreugdenhil, A. (2018). Promoting readiness to practice: Which learning activities promote competence and professional identity for student social workers during practice learning? *Journal of Social Work Education*, *54*(2), 364–378. https://doi.org/10.1080/10437797.2017.1336140

Rose, S., & Palattiyil, G. (2020). Surviving or thriving? Enhancing the emotional resilience of social workers in their organisational settings. *Journal of Social Work, 20*(1), 23–42. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468017318793614

Ross, B., Ta, B., & Grieve, A. (2019). Placement educators' experiences and perspectives of supervising international social work students in Australia. *Australian Social Work, 72*(2), 188–205. https://doi.org/10.1080/0312407X.2018.1557230

Rubel, M. R. B., Rimi, N. N., & Walters, T. (2017). Roles of emerging HRM and employee commitment: Evidence from the banking industry of Bangladesh. *Global Business Review, 18*(4), 876–894. https://doi.org/10.1177/0972150917692223

Rubin, D. B. (1974). Estimating causal effects of treatments in randomized and nonrandomized studies. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 66*(5), 688–701. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0037350

Runcan, P. L. & Călăuz, A. F. (2011). Supervision, a form of continuous training in the field of social work. *Social Work Review, 10*(4), 117-127.

Salm, T. L., Johner, R., & Luhanga, F. (2016). Determining student competency in field placements: An emerging theoretical model. *Canadian Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 7*(1), 1-18. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1104438.p

Saltiel, D. (2017). Supervision: A contested space for learning and decision making. *Qualitative Social Work, 16*(4), 533-549. https://doi.org/10.1177/1473325016633445

Saltzburg, S., Greene, G. J., & Drew, H. (2010). Using live supervision in field education: Preparing social work students for clinical practice. *Families in Society, 91*(3), 293-299. https://doi.org/10.1606/1044-3894.4008

Scherbaum, C. A., Cohen-Charash, Y., & Kern, M. J. (2006). Measuring general self-efficacy: A comparison of three measures using item response theory. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 66*(6), 1047-1063. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164406288171

Schmidt, G., & Kariuki, A. (2019). Pathways to social work supervision. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 29*(3), 321–332. https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2018.1530160

Schmidt, M., MacSuga G., Nicholas, A., Cox, P., & McLeskey, J. (2015). Bringing the field to the supervisor: Innovation in distance supervision for field-based experiences using mobile technologies. *Rural Special Education Quarterly, 34*(1), 37-43. https://doi.org/10.1177/875687051503400108.

Schrepp, M. (2020). On the usage of Cronbach's alpha to measure reliability of UX scales. *Journal of Usability Studies, 15(*4), 247–258. https://uxpajournal.org/cronbachs-alpha-reliability-ux-scales/

Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-Efficacy scale. In J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston (Eds.). *Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio* (pp. 35-37). NFER-NELSON.

Searle, R., & Patent, V. (2013). Recruitment, retention and role slumping in child protective services: The evaluation of in-service training initiatives. *British Journal of Social Work, 43*(6), 1111-1129. https://doi.org/bjsw/bcs043

Sewell, K. M. (2018). Social work supervision of staff: A primer and scoping review (2013- 2017). *Clinical Social Work Journal, 46*(4), 252–265. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10615-018-0679-0

Shah, A., Wharton, T., & Scogin, F. (2017). Adapting an interprofessional training model for social work field placements: An answer for better mental health care outreach for older adults in primary care. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 37(*5), 438-453. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841233.2017.1381215.

Sheridan, M. J. (2004). Predicting the use of spiritually-derived interventions in social work practice: A survey of practitioners. *Journal of Religion & Spirituality in Social Work, 23*(4), 5–25. https://doi.org/10.1300/J377v23n04_02

Simmons, C., Fisher, A. K., & Barnard, M. (2017). Exploring self-efficacy among entry-level and advanced BSW students. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 37*(4), 369-384. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841233.2017.1324550

Simons, K., Bonifas, R., & Gammonley, D. (2011). Commitment of licensed social workers to aging practice. *Health & Social Work, 36*(3), 183–195. https://doi.org/10.1093/hsw/36.3.183

Simons, K., An, S., & Bonifas, R. (2016). Professional and practice characteristics associated with self-efficacy in assessment and intervention among social workers in aging. *Social Work in Health Care, 55*(5), 362-380.

https://doi.org/10.1080/00981389.2016.1147514

Slaughter, J., & Hoefer, R. (2019). The impact of internships on recruiting and retaining mental health workers: Views from students and their supervisors. *Journal of Social Work Education, 55*(3), 489–503. https://doi.org/10.1080/10437797.2019.1603127

Smith, D., Cleak, H., & Vreugdenhill, A. (2015). "What are they really doing?" An exploration of student learning activities in field placement. *Australian Social Work, 68*(4), 515-531.https://doi.org/10.1080/0312407X.2014.960433

Southward, M. W., & Pfeifer, B. J. (2019). Do as I say and as I do: Reflections on three methods of evidence-based clinical supervision of graduate-level trainees. *The Behavior Therapist, 42*(2), 50–53. http://www.abct.org/docs/PastIssue/42n2.pdf

Staples-Bradley, L. K., Duda, B., & Gettens, K. (2019). Student self-disclosure in clinical supervision. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 13*(3), 216–221. https://doi.org/10.1037/tep0000242

State of Alaska Department of Health and Social Services Primary Care and Rural Health Unit. (2004). *Status of recruitment resources and strategies.* http://www.hss.state.ak.us/dph/healthplanning/publications/assets/SORRASreport.pdf

Strand, V. C., & Dore, M. M. (2009). Job satisfaction in a stable state child welfare workforce: Implications for staff retention. *Children & Youth Services Review, 31*(3), 391-397. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2008.09.002

Sweifach, J. S. (2019). A look behind the curtain at social work supervision interprofessional practice settings: critical themes and pressing practical challenges. *European Journal of Social Work, 22*(1), 59–68. https://doi.org/10.1080/13691457.2017.1357020

Tam, D. M. Y., Kwok, S. M., Brown, A., Paz, E., & Birnbaum, R. (2018). Challenges faced by Canadian social work field instructors in baccalaureate field supervision. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 38*(4), 398–416. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841233.2018.1502228

Tarshis, S., & Baird, S. L. (2019). Addressing the indirect trauma of social work students in intimate partner violence (IPV) field placements: A framework for supervision. *Clinical Social Work Journal, 47*, 90-102. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10615-018-0678-1

Theriot, M. T., Betz, P. D., & Spicuzza, F. J. (2006). Retaining social work majors: Targeting the "influential." *The Journal of Baccalaureate Social Work, 11*(2), 29-39. https://doi.org/10.18084/1084-7219.11.2.28

Tsai, C. L., Chaichanasakul, A., Zhao, R., Flores, L. Y., & Lopez, S. (2014). Development and validation of the strengths self-efficacy scale (SSES). *Journal of Career Assessment, 22*(1), 221-232. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072713493761

Tsui, M. S. (2004). Supervision models in social work: From nature to culture. *Asian Journal of Counselling, 11*(1&2), 7-55. https://www.hkier.cuhk.edu.hk/journal/document/AJC/ajc_v11n1-2_7-55.pdf

Turner-Daly, B. & Jack, G. (2017). Rhetoric vs. reality in social work supervision: The experiences of a group of childcare social workers in England. *Child & Family Social Work, 22*(1): 36-46. https://doi.org/10.1111/cfs.12191

Turney, D., & Ruch, G. (2016). Thinking about thinking after Munro: The contribution of cognitive interviewing to child-care social work supervision and decision-making practices. *British Journal of Social Work, 46*(3), 669–685. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bcv001

Umphrey, L. R. (2004). Message defensiveness, efficacy, and health-related behavioral intentions. *Communication Research Reports, 21*(4), 329-337. https://doi.org/10.1080/08824090409359997

Valentino, A. L., LeBlanc, L. A., & Sellers, T. P. (2016). The benefits of group supervision and a recommended structure for implementation. *Behavior Analysis in Practice, 9*(4), 320-328. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40617-016-0138-8.

Vandette, M. P., & Gosselin, J. (2019). Conceptual models of clinical supervision across professions: A scoping review of the professional psychology, social work, nursing, and medicine literature in Canada. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie Canadienne, 60*(4), 302–314. https://doi.org/10.1037/cap0000190

Vassos, S., Harms, L., & Rose, D. (2018). Supervision and social work students: relationships in a team-based rotation placement model. *Social Work Education, 37*(3), 328–341. https://doi.org/10.1080/02615479.2017.1406466

Vassos, S., Harms, L., & Rose, D. (2019). The value of mixing it up: Student experiences

of a multi-modal approach to supervision on placement. *British Journal of Social Work, 49*(5), 1274–1295. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bcy105

Webb, C. M., & Carpenter, J. (2012). What can be done to promote the retention of social workers? A systematic review of interventions. *British Journal of Social Work, 42*(7), 1235–1255. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bcr144.

Weibell, C. J. (2011). Principles of learning: A conceptual framework for domain-specific theories of learning. *All Theses and Dissertations*. 2759. https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/etd/2759/

Weiss-Dagan, S., Ben-Porat, A., & Itzhaky, H. (2018). The contribution of role characteristics and supervisory functions to supervision effectiveness. *Clinical Social Work Journal, 46*(4), 341–349. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10615-018-0675-4

Weld, N. (2012). *A practical guide to transformative supervision for the helping professions: Amplifying insight.* Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Wermeling, L. (2013). Why social workers leave the profession: Understanding the profession and workforce. *Administration in Social Work, 37*(4), 329-339. https://doi.org/10.1080/03643107.2012.693057

Wermeling, L., Hunn, V., & McClendon, T. (2013). Social work education's effect on retention. *Journal of Social Work Education, 49*(2), 222-234. https://doi.org/10.1080/10437797.2013.768111

Whitaker, T., Weismiller, T., & Clark, E. (2006). *Assuring the sufficiency of a frontline workforce: A national study of licensed social workers. Executive summary.* National Association of Social Workers.

Wiebe, M. (2010). Pushing the boundaries of the social work practicum: Rethinking sites and supervision toward radical practice. *Journal of Progressive Human Services, 21*(1), 66-82. https://doi.org/10.1080/10428231003782517.

Wilke, D. J., Radey, M., King, E., Spinelli, C., Rakes, S., & Nolan, C. R. (2018). A multi-level conceptual model to examine child welfare worker turnover and retention decisions. *Journal of Public Child Welfare, 12*(2), 204-231. https://doi.org/10.1080/15548732.2017.1373722

Wilkins, D. (2019). Social work supervision in child and family services: Developing a working theory of how and why it works. *New Zealand Social Work, 31*(3), 7-19. https://doi.org/10.11157/anzswj-vol31iss3id644

Wilkins, D., Forrester, D., & Grant, L. (2017). What happens in child and family social work supervision? *Child & Family Social Work, 22*(2), 942–951. https://doi.org/10.1111/cfs.12314

Wilkins, D., & Jones, R. (2018). Simulating supervision: How do managers respond to a crisis? *European Journal of Social Work, 21*(3), 454–466. https://doi.org/10.1080/13691457.2017.1366429

Wilkins, D., Lynch, A., & Antonopoulou, V. (2018). A golden thread? The relationship between supervision, practice, and family engagement in child and family social work. *Child & Family Social Work, 23*(3), 494–503. https://doi.org/10.1111/cfs.12442

Williams, D. M., & Rhodes, R. E. (2016). The confounded self-efficacy construct:

Conceptual analysis and recommendations for future research. *Health Psychology Review, 10*(2), 113-128. https://doi.org/10.1080/17437199.17432014.17941998.

Wong, P. Y. J., & Lee, A. E. Y. (2015). Dual roles of social work supervisors: Strain and strengths as managers and clinical supervisors. *China Journal of Social Work, 8*(2), 164-181. https://doi.org/10.1080/17525098.2015.1039168

Young, S. (2015). Understanding substance abuse counselor turnover due to burnout: A theoretical perspective. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 25*(6), 675-686. https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2015.1013658

Zahra, T. T., Ahmad, H. M., & Waheed, A. (2017). Impact of ethical leadership on innovative work behavior: Mediating role of self-efficacy. *Journal of Behavioural Sciences, 27*(1), 93-107. http://pu.edu.pk/images/journal/doap/PDF-FILES/6_v27_1_17.pdf

Zinn, A. (2015). A typology of supervision in child welfare: Multilevel latent class and confirmatory analyses of caseworker–supervisor relationship type. *Children & Youth Services Review, 48*(1), 98-110. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2014.12.004

Zuchowski, I. (2016). Getting to know the context: The complexities of providing off-site supervision in social work practice learning. *British Journal of Social Work, 46*(2), 409-426. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10615-018-0692-3

Zuchowski, I., Cleak, H., Nickson, A., & Spencer, A. (2019). A national survey of Australian social work field education programs: Innovation with limited

capacity. *Australian Social Work, 72*(1), 75–90. https://doi.org/10.1080/0312407X.2018.1511740

Zuckerman, R. L., Levine, A. S., & Frey, J. J. (2017). Enhancing partnerships with field instructors: Identifying effective retention strategies. *Field Educator, 7*(1), 1-13. https://fieldeducator.simmons.edu/article/enhancing-partnerships-with-field-instructors-identifying-effective-retention-strategies/

Appendix A: Retention Questions

1. Years worked for primary employer?

   _____ Less than 1 year

   _____ Between 1-5 years

   _____ Between 6-10 years

   _____ Between 11-15 years

   _____ 16 years or more

2. Plan to remain in current position?

   _____ Yes

   _____ No

3. Plan to leave social work but continue to work?

   _____ Yes

   _____ No

Appendix B: Supervision Questions

1. Is your supervisor in your primary position a social worker?

   _____ Yes

   _____ No

2. To what extent has the practice of social work changed in the past two years in your primary employment setting?

   Availability of social work supervision

1	2	3
Decreased	Stayed the Same	Increased

3. Please indicate your agreement with the following: I receive support and guidance from my supervisor.

1	2	3
Disagree	Neither	Agree

Appendix C: Self-Efficacy Questions

Self-Efficacy Scale

1. Indicate your agreement with the following statements.

	1 Never	2	3	4	5 Always	NA
I help improve the quality of life of my clients						
I help clients meet their objectives to change their situations						
I help clients address a range of problems, including psychological, medical, and social issues						
I help clients address one or two key problems that will improve their lives						
I help clients resolve crisis situations						
I help families respond to client needs						
I am satisfied with my ability to help clients navigate through the social services system						
I am satisfied with my ability to coordinate care						

between the medical and mental health community to address the needs of clients
I can effectively respond to the number of requests for assistance made by clients and their families
I work with community organizations to adapt our service delivery system
I am satisfied with my ability to address complex and chronic care problems of clients
I am satisfied with the amount of time I spend with clients
I am satisfied with my ability to respond to cultural differences among the clients I serve
I am satisfied with my ability to influence the design of services to better meet client needs